



**An Action Research Study Examining Teachers' and Learners'
Beliefs regarding Oral Corrective Feedback: Exploring the Relation
between Training and Teachers' Provision of Oral Corrective
Feedback in the Language Classroom**

Nevine Helmy Youssef

**A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy in Education
at
Cardiff School of Education & Social Policy
Cardiff Metropolitan University**

October 2019

**Director of Studies
DR Jill Llewellyn-Williams**

**Supervisor
Dr. Inas Hussein Hassan
Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics
Vice Dean for Postgraduate Studies
College of Language and Communication
Arab Academy for Science & Technology**

Acknowledgments

There are many people who assisted, supported, and guided me throughout this project, to whom I am truly indebted. To an extraordinary Director of Studies, Dr Jill Llewellyn-Williams, I am eternally grateful for her continuous guidance, unflagging support, and unflinching encouragement at times when I really needed someone to believe in me. Her ideas were highly informative and enlightening, and helped add considerable value to my work. I am also deeply thankful to my supervisor, Dr Inas Hussein, for her emotional support and relentless efforts in helping me overcome the numerous challenges faced throughout this endeavour. My sincere appreciation goes to Dr Cecilia Hannigan-Davies for her advice and willingness to help whenever her input was needed.

I would like to extend my gratitude to my colleagues at the College of Language & Communication (AASTMT) who agreed to take part in the study, without whom I would never have been able to accomplish this project. To the wonderful, supportive AASTMT students who participated in my research and always showed willingness to help when I needed them, I am forever filled with gratitude. I will always be thankful to the Arab Academy for Science, Technology and Maritime Transport (AASTMT), where I work and consider a second home, for providing an environment conducive to our growth as researchers.

Last, but definitely not least, I am deeply indebted to my family. I can never thank my mother enough for her priceless gift of love. She constantly supported me through the hardships of studying and working a full-time job. I am grateful to my wonderful brother Sherif for his unceasing encouragement and for always being a true source of happiness to me; knowing that he will always be there no matter what life throws our way provides the sense of security that helps me attain my full potential. Both him and my mother are sincerely the closest people to my heart. I will forever be indebted to my beloved father who passed away years ago; his faith in me and his trust in my

abilities always pushed me forward and helped me see the light at the end of the tunnel. I hope this accomplishment would do him proud and enable me to live up to his expectations.

Abstract

In the language classroom, the majority of learners regard the teacher as the principal source of knowledge. Learners rely on their teachers to provide them with the target language norms and to deal with their erroneous language utterances, through providing oral corrective feedback (OCF), during interaction within the language classroom. This study examined teachers' and learners' beliefs regarding the use of OCF, and explored the potential influence of OCF training on teachers' beliefs and provision of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction.

Set in the tertiary level in Egypt, the current investigation examined intermediate EFL Egyptian students' beliefs on OCF. At the onset of each of three data collection cycles, quantitative data were gathered using a questionnaire and qualitative data were compiled through focus groups.

Five Egyptian English language teachers participated in the study, each teaching a class of first year students. Teachers' beliefs and provision of OCF were examined prior to commencing the training process using one-to-one interviews and classroom observations. To investigate how OCF training influenced the five participants' beliefs and teaching practices throughout the course of the intervention, qualitative data were collected using stimulated recalls, reflective e-journals, interviews and classroom observations. Learners' beliefs were probed once again through post-intervention focus groups to examine any changes that could be linked to their teachers' in-class provision of OCF throughout the 6-week training process.

Analysis of the pre-intervention data demonstrated that both teachers and learners valued the role of OCF as an integral part of classroom interaction. However, the majority of students reiterated past classroom experiences citing lack of OCF or negative affective effects concerning how feedback was provided by their teachers. As for the five teachers, various degrees of incongruency between beliefs and OCF practices transpired through data analysis. In addition, there was an apparent lack of familiarity with OCF techniques, especially among the less experienced teachers.

Data gathered throughout the intervention indicated a development in teachers' knowledge and classroom practice, as regards the provision of the OCF, in relation to the training process. Analysis of the post-intervention focus groups indicated a more positive outlook on students' part concerning their teachers' approach to the correction of oral errors.

The current investigation contributes to the growing field of OCF research by exploring both teachers' and learners' voice. Findings highlight the importance of focusing on the under researched area of OCF training and suggest potential benefits for incorporating this training component in mainstream teacher training and teacher development programmes.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments	ii
Abstract.....	iii
Content.....	v
List of Appendices.....	x
List of Tables.....	xi
List of Figures.....	xiii
Abbreviations.....	xiv
Chapter One: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Background to the Problem under Investigation.....	2
1.3 Context.	11
1.4 Aims of the Investigation.....	17
1.5 Design of the Study.....	19
1.6 Conclusion.....	20
Chapter Two: Literature Review.....	22
2.1 Introduction.....	22
2.2 Language Learning and Interactionist Theories.....	22
2.2.1 The Input Hypothesis.....	23
2.2.2 The Interaction Hypothesis.....	28
2.2.3 The Noticing Hypothesis.....	33
2.2.4 The Output Hypothesis.....	36
2.2.5 Summary of the Interactionist Approach to Language Learning.....	39
2.3 Communicative Language Teaching and Classroom Interaction....	40
2.3.1 What is CLT?	40
2.3.2 Development of the CLT Approach.....	41
2.3.3 Form-Focused Instruction in CLT.....	43
2.3.4 CLT in the Egyptian Educational Context.....	46
2.4 English for Specific Purposes as a Medium for Language Learning	49
2.4.1 English for Business.....	51
2.5 Corrective Feedback and Oral Classroom Interaction.....	52
2.5.1 What is Feedback?	53
2.5.2 Types of Corrective Feedback.....	56
2.5.2.1 Recasts.....	59
2.5.2.2 Prompts.....	62
2.5.3 Studies on Corrective Feedback in Laboratory and Classroom Contexts.....	65
2.5.3.1 Laboratory Settings.....	67
2.5.3.2 Classroom Settings.....	69
2.5.4 Noticeability of Corrective Feedback.....	73
2.5.4.1 Uptake as a Measure of Noticing.....	74
2.6 Review of Teachers' Beliefs.....	81
2.6.1 The Relation between Past Learning Experience and Teachers'	

	Beliefs.....	83
2.6.2	Do Teachers' Beliefs Vary from their Teaching Practices?.....	85
2.6.3	To What Extent Can Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices Change?.....	91
2.6.4	The Influence of Teacher Education and Training on Change of Beliefs and Practices.....	94
2.7	Learner Beliefs.....	98
2.7.1	Means of Investigating Learner Beliefs.....	100
2.7.2	Focus of Research into Learner Beliefs.....	102
2.7.2.1	Types of Learner Beliefs.....	102
2.7.2.2	Sources of Learner Beliefs.....	103
2.7.2.3	The Nature of Learner Beliefs.....	105
2.8	Teacher and Learner Beliefs Concerning the Provision of Corrective Feedback.....	108
2.8.1	Should Errors be Corrected?	109
2.8.2	Timing for the Provision of Corrective Feedback.....	111
2.8.3	Which Errors Need Correction?	114
2.8.4	How Should Learner Errors be Corrected?.....	117
2.8.5	Who Should Provide Corrective Feedback?.....	120
2.9	Teacher Training and Professional Development.....	121
2.9.1	Professional Development of Teachers.....	123
2.9.1.1	The Applied Science Approach.....	124
2.9.1.2	The Reflective Practice Approach.....	125
2.9.1.3	Criticism of Schön's Approach to Reflective Practice.....	128
2.9.1.4	Reflection as Opposed to Practice.....	130
2.9.1.5	The Importance of Reflective Practice.....	132
2.9.2	Teacher Training and Reflective Practice and their Influence on the Provision of Oral Corrective Feedback.....	134
	Chapter Three: Methodology.....	139
3.1	Introduction.....	139
3.2	Background to the Philosophy of Research.....	139
3.2.1	The Positivist Paradigm.....	144
3.2.2	The Interpretive Paradigm.....	148
3.2.3	The Conflict between the Positivist and Interpretive Paradigms....	152
3.3	Research Methodology Used.....	156
3.3.1	Choosing a Suitable Research Methodology.....	156
3.3.2	Action Research and its Suitability to the Present Investigation.....	158
3.3.3	Stages of Action Research.....	160
3.3.3.1	Reflexivity in Action Research.....	161
3.3.4	Participation and Power within Action Research.....	164
3.3.5	Action Research: Knowledge and Practice.....	165
3.3.6	Advantages of Action Research.....	167
3.4	Research Context.....	168
3.4.1	Participants.....	171

3.4.1.1	Teachers.....	171
3.4.1.2	Learners.....	178
3.4.2	The English for Business Course.....	180
3.5	Training Teachers on the Provision of OCF in the Classroom.....	181
3.6	Data Collection Methods.....	187
3.6.1	Interviews.....	189
3.6.2	Questionnaire Exploring Learners' Beliefs Concerning OCF.....	193
3.6.3	Focus Groups for Exploring Learners' Beliefs.....	196
3.6.4	Classroom Observations and Video Recording of Sessions.....	200
3.6.5	Gathering Reflective Data from Teachers during Several Stages of the Intervention.....	204
3.7	Ethical Considerations.....	209
3.8	Issues of Validity and Reliability.....	214
Chapter Four: Results and Data Analysis.....		217
4.1	Students' Beliefs Regarding the Provision of OCF.....	217
4.1.1	Questionnaire Results.....	218
4.1.2	Focus Group Meetings.....	233
4.2	Teachers' Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practice.....	248
4.2.1	Teacher A – Yosra (September 2015).....	251
4.2.2	Teacher B – Sally (September 2015).....	257
4.2.3	Teacher C – Dalila (February 2016)	264
4.2.4	Teacher D – Sherifa (February 2016)	270
4.2.5	Teacher E – Malak (September 2016)	276
4.2.6	Discussion.....	283
4.3	The Relation between Training and Teachers' Classroom Practice.....	284
4.3.1	Teacher A – Yosra (September 2015)	290
4.3.1.1	Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students.....	290
4.3.1.2	Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation.....	293
4.3.1.3	Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three.....	295
4.3.1.4	Guided Electronic Journals.....	296
4.3.1.5	OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons.....	297
4.3.1.6	Post-intervention Interview.....	300
4.3.1.7	Discussion.....	302
4.3.2	Teacher B – Sally (September 2018)	304
4.3.2.1	Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students.....	304
4.3.2.2	Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation.....	306
4.3.2.3	Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three.....	310
4.3.2.4	Guided Electronic Journals.....	311
4.3.2.5	OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons.....	313

4.3.2.6	Post-intervention Interview.....	315
4.3.2.7	Discussion.....	318
4.3.3	Teacher C – Dalila (February 2016).....	321
4.3.3.1	Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students.....	321
4.3.3.2	Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation.....	323
4.3.3.3	Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three.....	326
4.3.3.4	Guided Electronic Journals.....	328
4.3.3.5	OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons.....	329
4.3.3.6	Post-intervention Interview.....	332
4.3.3.7	Discussion.....	334
4.3.4	Teacher D – Sherifa (February 2016).....	337
4.3.4.1	Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students.....	337
4.3.4.2	Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation.....	340
4.3.4.3	Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three.....	341
4.3.4.4	Guided Electronic Journals.....	343
4.3.4.5	OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons.....	345
4.3.4.6	Post-intervention Interview.....	347
4.3.4.7	Discussion.....	349
4.3.5	Teacher E – Malak (September 2016)	352
4.3.5.1	Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students.....	352
4.3.5.2	Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation.....	354
4.3.5.3	Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three.....	357
4.3.5.4	Guided Electronic Journals.....	359
4.3.5.5	OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons.....	360
4.3.5.6	Post-intervention Interview.....	362
4.3.5.7	Discussion.....	364
4.4	Training Teachers on the Provision of OCF and its Influence on Students’ Beliefs	366
4.4.1	The Importance of Teacher-Student Interaction for Language Learning and the Teachers’ Role in Promoting Such Interaction..	369
4.4.2	Preference for Elicitation as a Form OCF.....	372
4.4.3	The Affective Dimension Associated with the Provision of OCF.....	374
4.4.4	A Focused Approach to Correction of Oral Errors.....	376
Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusion.....		380
5.1	Students’ Beliefs Regarding the Teachers’ Use of OCF in the Classroom.....	380
5.2	Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices Regarding the Provision of OCF.....	384
5.3	The Extent to which Training Influenced Teachers’ Beliefs and	

	Provision of OCF.....	389
5.4	Students' Beliefs Regarding the Use of OCF Following the Training Process.....	397
5.5	Conclusion.....	402
5.6	Limitations and Recommendations.....	406
References	410
Appendices	439

**Word count starting the Introduction chapter till the end of the Conclusion
chapter= 99,998 words**

List of Appendices

Appendix A	Corrective Feedback Techniques.....	439
Appendix B	Examples of Different Forms of Recast and Elicitation Moves.....	440
Appendix C	Teacher Practice Sheet (1)	442
Appendix D	Teacher Practice Sheet (2)	443
Appendix E	Pre-Intervention Interview Questions.....	445
Appendix F	Post-Intervention Interview Questions.....	446
Appendix G	Questionnaire.....	447
Appendix H	Pre-Intervention Focus Group Questions.....	450
Appendix I	Post-Intervention Focus Group Questions.....	451
Appendix J	Data Collection and Teacher Training Time-Line per Cycle.....	452
Appendix K	Degrees of Student Repair Following Teachers' Provision of OCF...	453
Appendix L	Frequencies and Percentages of Subtypes of Elicitation and Recasts Provided by Each Teacher.....	454
Appendix M	Student Information Sheet – Classroom Recordings and Observations.....	459
Appendix N	Student Consent Form – Classroom Recordings and Observations	462
Appendix O	Student Information Sheet – Focus Groups.....	463
Appendix P	Student Consent Form – Focus Groups.....	466
Appendix Q	Teacher Information Sheet.....	467
Appendix R	Teacher Consent Form.....	470
Appendix S	Timeline for Recruitment of the Teachers Participating in the Three Data Collection Cycles.....	471
Appendix T	Sample Pre-Intervention Interview Transcript (Teacher B) + Sample Coding Frame.....	472

List of Tables

Table 1	Teachers' Preferences Regarding Different CF Types (Li, 2017).....	119
Table 2	Corrective Feedback Observation Scheme (Ammar & Spada, 2006)..	174
Table 3	Research Methods Matrix.....	188
Table 4	Learners' Views in Response to the Statement 'Errors are an indication of what I still don't know in English.'	219
Table 5	Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's First Question.....	220
Table 6	Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Second Question....	221
Table 7	Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Third Question.....	223
Table 8	Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Fourth Question....	226
Table 9	Learners' Preferences Regarding the Use of Various Forms of CF in the Language Classroom.....	229
Table 10	Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Fifth Question.....	231
Table 11	Pre-Intervention Focus Group Meetings.....	235
Table 12	Total OCF Techniques Provided During Yosra's Three Observed Lessons.....	298
Table 13	Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Yosra in Each Observed Lesson.....	298
Table 14	Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Yosra's Classes.....	299
Table 15	Total OCF Techniques Provided During Sally's Three Observed Lessons.....	313
Table 16	Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Sally in Each Observed Lesson.....	314
Table 17	Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Sally's Classes.....	315
Table 18	Total OCF Techniques Provided During Dalila's Three Observed Lessons.....	330
Table 19	Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Dalila in Each Observed Lesson.....	330
Table 20	Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Dalila's Classes.....	332
Table 21	Total OCF Techniques Provided During Sherifa's Three Observed Lessons.....	345
Table 22	Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Sherifa in Each Observed Lesson.....	346
Table 23	Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Sherifa's Classes.....	346
Table 24	Total OCF Techniques Provided During Malak's Three Observed Lessons.....	361
Table 25	Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Malak in Each Observed Lesson.....	361

List of Figures

Figure 1	Operation of the Affective Filter (Krashen, 1982).....	26
Figure 2	Options of Corrective Feedback (Loewen & Nabei, 2007).....	58
Figure 3	Continuum of Key Epistemological Positions in Human and Social Sciences (adapted form Grix, 2010).....	156
Figure 4	An Action-Reflection Cycle (McNiff, 2017).....	161
Figure 5	Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle.....	206
Figure 6	The Need for OCF in the Language Classroom.....	221
Figure 7	Timing of CF During Oral Interaction.....	222
Figure 8	Learners' Preferences Concerning the Focus of Error Correction in the Language Classroom.....	224
Figure 9	Forms of OCF Provided to Beginner Level Students.....	227
Figure 10	Forms of OCF Provided to Advanced Level Students.....	228
Figure 11	The Extent to which Teachers Push Learners to Self-Correct.....	231
Figure 12	Preferences for Correction by Classroom Peers.....	232

Abbreviations

TL – Target Language

IL – Interlanguage

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching

CF – Corrective Feedback

OCF – Oral Corrective Feedback

FFI – Form-Focused Instruction

EFL – English as Foreign Language

ESL - English as a Second Language

ESP – English for Specific Purposes

L1 – First/Native language

L2 – Second/Foreign Language

SLA – Second Language Acquisition

NS – Native Speaker

NNS – Non-Native Speaker

IEs – Interactional Exchanges

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Acquisition and learning of more than one language has become one of the most important features of human development. This has transpired, in no small part, following the evident need of individuals from different walks of life to acquire a second language (L2) in order to cope with the increasing demands of globalization and economic development. Over the past decades, such demands have made English one of the most sought after second languages, particularly in Egypt where it is the most widely used and where the current investigation is conducted. This is similarly reflected around the world. Hence, having a strong command of spoken and written English and exhibiting adequate levels of fluency and accuracy have become vital at both the undergraduate level, where students attempt to enhance their career prospects and secure better employability either inside their countries or abroad, and at the professional level where employees might seek better options in their corporate lives or aspire to global mobility.

In the attempt to achieve such levels of accuracy and fluency, the language teacher plays a pivotal role. Despite the shift to a more learner-centred approach in recent years, one which promotes autonomy and independent learning, the teacher has still been considered an essential provider of the knowledge necessary for learning. Although language teachers may be relieved at this and regard learner dependency as a means of ensuring that their position is safe (Llewellyn-Williams, 2009), such dependency entails shouldering an immense responsibility. At the core of this

responsibility is the teachers' role in facilitating the teaching-learning experience to the best of their abilities, commencing with the preparation of the teaching materials, all the way to passing the knowledge to students and striving to ensure the required levels of accuracy and fluency in both oral and written language production are attained. Each of the above stages is regarded as a considerable feat that calls for presenting teachers with the necessary knowledge and opportunities for practice that would enable them to perform to the best of their abilities. The current investigation deals with the oral aspect of learners' language production and the teachers' role in addressing the inaccuracies of such production through providing feedback during student-teacher interaction.

1.2 Background to the Problem under Investigation

The role played by feedback has a place in several theories of language learning and language pedagogy (R. Ellis, 2009). Feedback is viewed as an essential contributor to language learning in both the cognitive and behaviourist theories. In addition, the communicative approach to language learning views feedback as 'a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy' (R. Ellis, 2009, p.3). Feedback can be either positive or negative, with the former affirming the correctness of the learners' utterances and the latter signaling some form of deviation from the language norms, thus having a corrective intent. Corrective feedback (CF) constitutes one type of negative feedback. During oral interaction, oral corrective feedback (OCF) is regarded as 'a pedagogical technique teachers use

to draw attention to students' erroneous utterances, and which may result in learners' modified output (Suzuki, 2004)' (Lee, 2013, p.217).

The research conducted on OCF and its importance in L2 development stems from an interactionist approach to language learning. Gass (2003) states that 'the interactionist position is one that accords an important role to conversation as a basis for second language learning' (p.241), which sheds light on the importance of conversational interaction between teachers and students as one means of interlanguage (IL) development. As maintained by the interactionist perspective with regard to learning a second language (Mackey, 2012; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long, 1996, 2007; Gass, 2003; Pica, 1996), negotiation taking place during classroom interaction is conducive to learning an L2 as it presents learners with numerous chances to obtain comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982, 1985), to modify their language output and assess existing hypothesis about the target language (TL) (Swain, 1995, 2005), as well as notice the difference between their language production and the TL norms (Robinson, Mackey, Gass, & Schmidt, 2012; Schmidt, 1995, 2001; Schmidt & Frota, 1986). Such processes can help in restructuring learners' IL (Goo & Mackey, 2013).

For OCF to play a positive role, learners should initially notice the corrective intent behind the feedback. Schmidt (1995, 2001) stated that in order to become aware of the target forms in an L2, learners should consciously notice the formal aspects of the language imbedded in the input. Noticing has been operationalized in more than

one way through studies focusing on OCF (e.g. Ammar & Sato, 2010; Trofimovich *et al.*, 2007; Mackey, 2006; Philp, 2003;). For the purpose of the current investigation, **noticing** will be operationalized as learners' immediate uptake following the provision of OCF (Parvin, 2013; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Braid, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; R. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Another approach which acknowledges the importance of OCF is the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. Despite its initial focus on the communicative dimension of language which put little emphasis on the accuracy of the language forms produced, and, consequently 'the amount of teacher correction [was] significantly reduced' (Horner, 1988, in Han, 2002, p.2), such a view was later challenged. There was a shift towards CLT with more focus on form (Brown, 2016). Spada and Lightbown comment that:

Recently, some researchers and educators have reacted to the trend toward communicative language teaching and have revived the concern that allowing learners too much 'freedom' without correction and explicit instruction will lead to early fossilization of errors.

(Spada & Lightbown, 1999, p.121)

Such a role for OCF in enhancing learners' IL development is specifically highlighted with relation to foreign language (FL) settings. Gurzynski-Weiss (2016) has indicated that meta-analyses on CF effectiveness 'have demonstrated that it plays a facilitative role in language development particularly in foreign language (FL) settings where learners' opportunities with the target language are limited ...' (p.255). In addition, FL settings usually entail extensive focus on form (Nassaji &

Fotos, 2011) which provides a rich environment for the provision of OCF. Consequently, further investigations are warranted in FL contexts with the aim of exploring the various OCF techniques used during teacher-student interaction.

The research focusing on the different types of CF falls back on the taxonomy of OCF techniques presented by Lyster and Ranta (1997) who identified six types of OCF (Appendix A). Ranta and Lyster (2007) further classified the six types into two major OCF categories: reformulations, corrective techniques through which the teacher corrects; prompts, techniques through which students are pushed to self-correct. Nassaji (2007) made a further distinction of the two CF categories, reformulations (or recasts) and elicitations (which Ranta and Lyster (2007) referred to as prompts), and classified subtypes of each category (Appendix B). For the purpose of this study, Nassaji's (2007) classification of **recasts** (reformulations) and **elicitations**, as two categories through which the teacher either provides the correction or pushes learners to self-correct, will be adopted. The reason for choosing these two categories as the focus of the current investigation is how they are usually 'used by teachers in ways that sustain classroom interaction and maintain its coherence' (Lyster & Mori, 2006, p.272), as opposed to other techniques which potentially disrupt the flow of oral interaction within the language classroom. Another reason is the ongoing controversy concerning the benefits of both categories, despite the general findings that recasts are usually the prevailing technique in the language classrooms (Brown, 2016; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Goo

& Mackey, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 2013; Li, 2010; Russell, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998).

To arrive at a better understanding of the role of OCF in the language classroom, a focus on the stakeholders, both teachers and learners, is important. Investigating the beliefs and past experiences of both, as well as the knowledge and practice of the latter, with relation to the provision of OCF, could result in a better understanding of the factors that might influence the intricate issue of oral error correction which is regarded by both teachers and students as a potentially “face-threatening act’, or FTA (Brown & Levinson, 1987)’ (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010, p.425).

The importance of examining both teachers’ and learners’ CF-related beliefs could be linked to the recurring mismatch between the two. Research by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) demonstrates a discrepancy between students’ and teachers’ perception of what constitutes effective oral error correction. Gurzynski-Weiss (2016) comments that ‘investigations of instructors’ CF intention(s) and students’ perception(s) attest that instructors and learners are not always on the same page when it comes to CF (Gurzynski-Weiss & Baralt, 2014, 2016; Mackey et al., 2000)’ (p.269), which ‘could be harmful to foreign and second language learning’ (Russell, 2009, p.28) and lead to hindering the success of learning a FL (Schulz, 2001). Such outcomes present a need for conducting further research into teachers’ and students’ beliefs regarding the correction of oral errors in an attempt to bridge the gap.

Learner beliefs are regarded as dynamic since they can change based on the individual's emotional state, situation, and surrounding company (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011); accordingly, exploring those beliefs is essential for both learners and teachers. Recognizing their beliefs about CF will guide learners to understand how feedback might help in developing their IL. As for teachers, when they get acquainted with the preferences of learners they will be better equipped to deal with incidental aspects of the teaching process, such as the provision of OCF (Basturkmen, 2012). Knowing learners' beliefs about CF will also assist teacher trainers and educators in gearing teachers towards CF practices that would correspond with students' needs and beliefs with the aim of benefiting the teaching-learning process.

As the main providers of CF in the language classroom, teachers' beliefs have been extensively examined, along with their classroom practice (Kartchava *et. al*, 2018). However, research examining the beliefs of teachers with regard to CF is still viewed as 'an understudied area in the descriptive CF domain' (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016, p. 255). A number of investigations attempted to probe the beliefs teachers hold about CF in general (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Agudo, 2014; Jean & Simard, 2011; Bell, 2005; Schulz, 1996, 2001), others addressed the effectiveness of certain CF forms (e.g. Yoshida, 2008, 2010). In the area of juxtaposing beliefs and CF classroom practices, research has focused on experienced teachers (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2016; Kamiya, 2014; Roothoof, 2014), novice teachers (Baleghizadeh & Rezaei, 2010), as well as compared the practices and beliefs of a beginner teacher

and an experienced one (Junqueira & Kim, 2013). In view of the relatively limited amount of research conducted so far, more investigations are called for to explore teachers' CF beliefs, the sources behind such beliefs and the relation between them and teachers' classroom practice. Such an area of research is especially significant in the Egyptian context where English is taught as a FL and students' language development relies for the most part on the instruction and interaction taking place within the language classroom.

Concerning teachers' provision of CF, various investigations have reported the prevalence of one form of OCF, namely recasts, (e.g. see Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013 for a review; Yoshida, 2008; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2004; Havranek, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), others have shown how demanding it is for some teachers to provide regular feedback in response to certain linguistic targets; consequently, many errors are left unattended (Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001; Allen *et. al*, 1990). Several studies comparing teachers' beliefs and provision of CF (e.g. Sepherinia & Medizadeh, 2016; Méndez & Cruz, 2012) show that although teachers have a favourable perception concerning the importance of OCF, they are apprehensive about its use due to affective concerns with regard to hurting students' feelings and affecting their motivation to participate; thus exhibiting constraints 'typically related to students' emotional needs' (Sepherinia & Medizadeh, 2016, p.483). Similar affective concerns are reported by other investigations (e.g. Kartchava *et. al*, 2018; Li, 2017; Rassaie, 2013; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). Such outcomes might be associated with several factors:

limited knowledge concerning the various techniques available for addressing learners' erroneous utterances, limited experience regarding how and when to use such techniques, and limited knowledge concerning the cognitive aspect of error correction. To address such an issue it would be highly relevant to quote Lyster and Ranta's (1997) conclusion that 'Teachers might want to consider the whole range of techniques they have at their disposal' (p.56). Advocating diversity in the use of OCF, Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) argue that 'The most effective teachers are likely to be those who are willing and able to orchestrate, in accordance with their students' language abilities and content familiarity, a wide range of CF types that fit the instructional context' (p.30). To further support the case for variety in addressing oral errors, R. Ellis (2012) maintains that trying to arrive at the most effective CF strategy is a fundamental mistake, due to the multifaceted and diverse nature of language classrooms in various settings and across diverse cultures (Lyster & Mori, 2006).

Such a need for variety, knowledge, and practice concerning teachers' in-class CF provision presents viable grounds with regard to the potential usefulness of CF training on teachers' beliefs and practice. Possible benefits of such training are accentuated as research has reported: 1) that teachers' beliefs are susceptible to change (e.g. Li, 2017; Busch, 2010; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010), and 2) that there is a broadly acknowledged connection between teachers' beliefs and actions (S. Borg, 2011). Such a connection is viewed as a bidirectional one, if beliefs can shape behaviour (S. Borg, 2003), they could also be re-shaped by training, teaching

practice, as well as frequent reflection on such practice (S. Borg, 2011). This relation between training and teachers' beliefs regarding the provision of OCF is corroborated by research outcomes (e.g. Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2014; Baleghizadeh & Rezaei, 2010; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010) which have reported that one of the characteristics that influenced teachers' CF decisions within natural classroom settings is training and SLA education. Kartchava *et. al* (2018) also assert the importance of investigating the impact of training teachers on the provision of CF on the latter's beliefs and classroom practices, adding that any potential change is unlikely to happen without an experiential component in the training process. Vásquez and Harvey (2010) present an argument regarding the benefit of CF training for teachers with various levels of experience: 'we have observed that error correction is a topic that teachers typically feel eager to learn more about, and an issue that less-experienced (as well as more-experienced) teachers struggle with' (p.424). Both novice and experienced teachers can benefit from training if they are provided with learning opportunities that integrate theory with practice, as well as give teachers the chance to experience and reflect on the newly introduced knowledge; this allows each teacher to personalize and internalize the outcomes of the training (Woods & Çakir, 2011).

1.3 Context

The reason for developing the above argument is an interest in the prevailing lack of accuracy in learners' L2 oral production and a desire to help undergraduate

students, in the Egyptian EFL (English as Foreign Language) context, to overcome their errors and produce more target-like language. In addition, this study aspires to influence language teachers' classroom practice through presenting them with the tools necessary for dealing with the recurring erroneous utterances in their students' oral production during teacher-student classroom interaction. This interest stems from years of working as an English language instructor, coordinator, and teacher trainer at the tertiary level.

In Egypt, similar to various countries worldwide, learning an L2, mainly English, is emphasized both in schools and universities. The urgent necessity for learning English at the tertiary level has become more evident in the last two decades to cater for the demands of the modern job market. Universities, both public and private, usually include ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses as part of their curricula for undergraduate students, through which students practise various language skills within a specialized medium focusing on their field of study. A case in point is one reputable private higher education institution in Alexandria, Egypt, where the current investigation is conducted and where I, the researcher, work. This institution, being the most prominent in Alexandria, and one of the most highly eminent in Egypt, is expected to provide the job market with candidates who are able to communicate using a relatively high level of both fluency and accuracy in the English language. Consequently, investigating the teaching-learning process within the boundaries of the above-mentioned institution presents a suitable context for the present research.

The role played by language learning in enhancing employability within the Egyptian job market is highlighted by Osman (2012) stating that 'one should excel in one or more foreign languages' (p.7) because 'Languages.....are essential for young people to gain an opportunity in the labor market in developing countries, and increasingly in Egypt' (p.8). On the other hand, recognizing the role played by universities in advancing graduates to the job market, albeit on a negative note, El Fekky and Mohamed (2018) report that ' It is argued that Egyptian universities do not prepare their graduates for career opportunities; as they lack important employability attributes such as.....language skills' (p.167). The current investigation focuses on one of those skills, oral language production, with an attempt at guiding teachers to the different techniques for addressing the inaccuracies of such production.

In the Egyptian educational system, classroom teaching is pivotal in the teaching-learning process, especially with relation to language learning. The time spent in the classroom interacting with teachers is a cornerstone in students' IL development; consequently, teachers should be equipped with the tools and techniques that would enable them to 'orchestrate' the teaching-learning environment in a manner conducive to learning, or else students' would be at a disadvantage.

Having been part of the educational system for quite some time, working as a teacher, academic coordinator and teacher trainer, I have had the opportunity to get a clear picture of what goes on in the language classroom. Being a teacher at the

tertiary level for years now, I have dealt with a large number of students who, despite having studied EFL for years, still exhibit major accuracy problems during oral communication. Being an academic coordinator¹ for a number of years as well, and going into classes for observations, as part of my responsibilities, I have perceived first-hand how teachers, both novice and experienced, find dealing with students' oral errors a challenging task. Some of them let the majority of these errors slide unattended; others, who endeavour to address such errors, do not quite know how to go about it. They either overcorrect, because they are keen on not letting a single error go unattended; an approach fostered by the prevailing exam-oriented teaching culture in Egypt (McIlwraith & Fortune, 2016), which can eventually lead to students getting frustrated and abstaining from participation. Others, I have noticed, approach the psychologically sensitive issue of oral error correction in a judgemental way. In other words, they would use terms like "No, this is wrong", which could immediately put students off so that they shut themselves out from not only participating but also from paying attention to the teacher's input during the lesson. A third observation I have made is that several teachers tend to not allow students an opportunity for uptake or for modifying their language production following the provision of OCF. They would provide the correction themselves and instantly proceed with oral interaction. Even when teachers attempt to push learners to self-correct, the former repeatedly tend to provide the correction, not allowing learners a chance at modifying their language output.

¹ An academic coordinator is responsible for organizing the course syllabus, preparing any extra teaching materials to be used alongside the course book, as well as providing guidance for teachers in areas related to

Needless to say, more skilled teachers, the majority I might add, have a little more experience in dealing with the issue of students' oral errors; however, when I discussed the issue they responded that they have received very little (or no) training on how to deal with students' errors during oral classroom interaction, and still regard it as a demanding task. Even the ones who have undergone teacher training reported that there was not much focus on this specific area, and that dealing with erroneous oral production is something they struggle with to present, an issue which I have occasionally observed during my classroom observations.

I believe it is of relevance at this stage to present a broad picture of teacher training in Egypt. Language teachers usually graduate from English language departments in the Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Languages, or Faculty of Education. With the exception of the Faculty of Education, graduates of these colleges do not get any hands-on teaching practice as part of their undergraduate studies. In the Egyptian educational context, pre-service teacher training is not mandatory. Some institutions mainly seek individuals with a good command of the English language, who have specialized in one branch of English language studies; they allow these individuals to start teaching and work on training them on the job. Other institutions follow the same recruitment procedures; however, they focus on training their recruits inside the institution before they begin their teaching duties. Several other institutions stipulate that any recruited teachers should either have previous experience and/or pre-service training. Due to such lack of a regulatory framework for recruitment, one usually finds teachers with a variety of backgrounds in the same institution. In

the language institution where the current investigation is conducted, the general tendency is to recruit teachers with either previous experience or training. In other cases training courses are provided for new recruits within the premises of the institution before they start teaching. However, due to the rapidly growing and extensive student population and the insufficient number of teachers, in rare occasions novice teachers get recruited, receiving guidance and on the job training from their coordinators as the semester proceeds.

A standard procedure following classroom observations, which is part of my coordination duties, is conducting a feedback session with the teachers. I attempted to transform these sessions into a learning experience for the teachers, rather than making them feel they were being evaluated, because it was my conviction that they welcomed the experience as it gave them a chance to reflect on the teaching process (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2011). This in turn presented me with a rich source of data that proved to be extremely beneficial for my research objectives. During these feedback sessions, I always made a point of raising the issue of OCF, its importance, when and how to provide it, and how students might feel towards it. The majority of teachers stressed its importance and the role it plays in scaffolding; however, in many cases classroom observations of these same teachers exhibited minimal provision of OCF, thus their beliefs and classroom practices were 'incongruent' (Kamiya, 2014). Most teachers would comment that OCF feedback should be provided when students produced non-target like utterances. However, they usually had very little to say when it came to how such feedback should be provided. They

were not aware of the various available techniques, how some might be more suitable than others at certain stages of the lesson, and how the use of such techniques can vary depending on the students' proficiency levels. The answer I received from different teachers, whether novice, experienced, with or without formal training, was that this issue was not adequately focused on as part of their training, whether in the institution where they work or in the training courses they have attended.

Such observations suggest a potential benefit for familiarizing teachers with the various techniques of OCF at their disposal. This can take place through a systematic training process, since the possible benefits of CF-training have been reported by previous research (e.g. Kartchava *et. al*, 2018; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016; Agudo, 2014, 2015; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2014; Baleghizadeh & Rezaei, 2010; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). In addition, teachers' beliefs and practices should be juxtaposed based on the incongruency reported above, and falling back on outcomes reported from previous research (e.g. Kamiya, 2014; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Dong, 2012; Borg, 2005).

Similar to the need for understanding teachers' perspectives, it is essential to explore students' beliefs concerning such a sensitive issue as oral error correction, as well as to inquire about their preferences (Ur, 2012). This provides insight and helps raise awareness, which would eventually inform teachers' classroom practice. As noted in the previous section, there is a strong call for exploring both teachers' and students' beliefs as they complement each other, and mismatches would be

harmful for the learning process if students' expectations are not met (Li, 2017).

1.4 Aims of the Investigation

The current investigation attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What are students' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction?
2. What are teachers' beliefs and classroom practices regarding the provision of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction?
3. To what extent does training teachers on providing OCF affect their beliefs and classroom practice?
4. To what extent does training teachers on providing OCF affect their students' beliefs?

The current investigation focuses on the two main stakeholders in the teaching-learning process, teachers and students in the Egyptian EFL context. Central to the study is how to address students' oral errors. It attempts to explore the beliefs of both stakeholders regarding the role of OCF in the language classroom. A main emphasis of this investigation is training teachers on the provision of OCF. This intervention presents a focal point around which beliefs of students are explored prior to and following the training process, while teachers' beliefs and teaching practices are examined prior to, during and following completion of the intervention. The five participating teachers had diverse teaching experience ranging between eight months to six years. Students were of intermediate English

proficiency; level B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2011).

This research adds to the growing number of investigations which focus on the role of OCF in language classrooms. It builds on recommendations from previous studies regarding the necessity for raising teachers' awareness to the variety of oral error correction techniques, for exploring the benefits of CF training, and for examining the links between teachers' beliefs and classroom practice. Following their replication of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, Vásquez and Harvey (2010) present an argument in favour of teacher education activities through which 'teachers will have opportunities to engage in active reflection on their own practice' (p.439), a process which would enhance their awareness of teaching and learning issues. They also advocate examining changes in teaching practice following participation in an educational/training activity. Mackey, Polio and McDonough (2004), after implementing a short teacher education workshop focusing on the use of OCF, which they referred to as 'Incidental focus on form', recommend that future investigations should 'take a longer term perspective, and employ alternative introspective data collection methodologies such as stimulated recalls (Gass & Mackey, 2000) to further explore teachers' awareness and use of incidental focus-on-form techniques in L2 classrooms' (Mackey, Polio & McDonough, 2004, p.321). Baleghizadeh and Rezaef (2010) suggest that further research is needed to investigate the connection between teachers' beliefs and their observed classroom practice with regard to the use of corrective feedback, in addition to focusing on

different populations, novice and experienced teachers. Further recommendations were made regarding how 'practicing teachers may need support in making more sophisticated decisions relating to oral corrective feedback (Busch, 2010)' and concerning 'the importance of ensuring that teacher education programmes are practice-oriented' (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2016, p.497). The above recommendations, among other methodological approaches, helped shape the various stages of this research in an attempt to arrive at outcomes that would guide CF training procedures in the future.

1.5 Design of the Study

The study consists of three cycles (Appendix J) each commencing with exploring students' and teachers' beliefs, and comparing teachers' beliefs with their classroom practice. This is followed by the intervention, comprising the training process with all its practice and reflective elements. After completion of the intervention, teachers' and learners' beliefs are probed again to explore any apparent shift which might be linked to the components of the training process. This post intervention exploration of beliefs proved significant since beliefs are viewed as dynamic and could be re-shaped depending on a number of factors (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2011) of which are training, practice, and reflection on teaching practice (S. Borg, 2011). Hence, the study is regarded as an interventional investigation, with an exploratory design.

The investigation falls within the action research paradigm, which I view as a

powerful methodological tool for change. It has the potential of generating knowledge based on inquiries conducted in practical contexts (Koshy, 2005). The advantage of action research methodology is that it can maintain the development of all participants, i.e. the students, the teachers, and the researcher. Action research allowed me as a researcher to implement a research method/a training technique, and presented me, and potentially the other participants, with a chance to reflect and evaluate, then possibly change for the purpose of achieving better practice in the next stage of the same cycle, or the following cycle. This ability to generate and apply solutions/modifications to recurring issues through the constant reflective process, which was at the core of each of the three cycles in the current investigation, had the potential of empowering the participants (McNiff, 2013), especially the teachers. They could experience first-hand the prospective benefits of the training process, as well as perceive the extent to which their continuous reflections played a role in evaluating and possibly modifying such a process.

1.6 Conclusion

The current investigation aims at improving an integral feature of FL classroom practice, teachers' approach to dealing with students' oral errors. This is explored from both teachers' and students' perspectives, which allows for a better understanding of the phenomenon at hand. With an attempt to influence practice, an interventional training process is implemented during which teachers undergo various practice, teaching and reflective procedures with the aim of influencing their

provision of OCF in the language classroom. The outcomes of this investigation can shed light on the prospective benefits of CF training which might alert teacher trainers and educators to the importance of focusing on this aspect in future teacher training programmes.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

In an attempt to shed light on the importance of interaction for language acquisition, the current literature review begins with a thorough discussion of the interactionist approaches to language learning and how they developed over time focusing on input, interaction, noticing of target forms and language output. This leads to a discussion of CLT and its development over time through both its strong form, which mainly emphasizes the importance of fluency, and its weaker form, which highlights the benefits of focus on form during classroom interaction. The review goes on to shed light on ESP as one domain of language learning which has strong connections to CLT. A detailed discussion of the various CF techniques used in the language classroom follows, highlighting the role each plays in the development of learners' language production. The following sections shed light on both teachers' and learners' beliefs about language learning and teaching in general, and the usefulness of CF in specific. The review ends with a focus on aspects of teacher training and professional development, with specific emphasis on reflective practise, and how it can affect classroom practice in general, and the provision of OCF in particular.

2.2 Language Learning and Interactionist Theories.

Research into interaction in language learning has become increasingly important in recent decades. Interactionist theories of language learning have developed over

years highlighting the role of such a process. These theories are rooted in four constructs: input, interaction, noticing and output. The four constructs were developed into hypotheses that are claimed to play a major role in language learning and acquisition. These are: the Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, the Noticing Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis. The following sections discuss each of these hypotheses elaborating on the role it plays in language development.

2.2.1 The Input Hypothesis

Gass (1997) has defined input by stating that ‘ Input in the L2 Literature refers to the language to which the learner is exposed either orally or visually’ (p.28). She has gone further to assert that ‘input is perhaps the single most important concept of second language acquisition’ (*ibid*, p.1). Gass (2003) points out that several approaches to second language acquisition (SLA) view input as an essential component of language development. Among those is Krashen’s model (Krashen, 1980), seen as the most prominent theory concerning the role of input in SLA.

Krashen (1980, 1982, 1985) developed the Input Hypothesis, which is part of a broader theory of SLA comprising five interrelated hypotheses². Through the Input Hypothesis, Krashen attempted to answer the pressing question of how individuals acquire language. In his discussion of the Input Hypothesis (1985), Krashen claims

² The five hypotheses of Krashen’s model are: (1) the acquisition-learning hypothesis, (2) the monitor hypothesis, (3) the natural order hypothesis, (4) the input hypothesis, and (5) the affective filter hypothesis.

that individuals acquire a language by receiving 'comprehensible input' in that language either orally or in a written form.

According to Krashen (1982) the comprehensible 'Input Hypothesis' indicates that learners' chances at SLA increase when their interlocutors provide language input that is at a level higher than their current language competence. Krashen (1985) applied the concept of $i+1$ in understanding input, where i is the learner's current language competence and $i+1$ is the following stage of his/her interlanguage³ (IL) development reached through comprehensible input. Krashen states that:

Humans acquire language in only one way, by understanding messages, or by receiving 'comprehensible input'.....We move from i , our current level, to $i+1$, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing $i+1$.

(Krashen, 1985, p.2)

Krashen (1982, 1985) suggested two corollaries to the idea of comprehensible input, the first of which relates to speaking. He explains that speaking another language is a result of acquisition. He further elaborates that speaking 'emerges' as a consequence of acquisition which results from the exposure to comprehensible input. The second corollary relates to the acquisition of grammar. Krashen assumes that if individuals are exposed to comprehensible input in an abundant manner, it will suffice for them to acquire the necessary grammatical rules; therefore

³ R. Ellis (2003) summarizes the definition of interlanguage as follows, "the term refers to (1) the system of L2 knowledge that a learner has built at a single stage of development ('an interlanguage'), and (2) the interlocking systems that characterize L2 acquisition ('the interlanguage continuum')"(p. 344).

minimizing the necessity for grammar instruction. Krashen constructed such a function of input following first language (L1) acquisition research which states that children construct their L1 grammar through exposure to caretakers' language which initially aims at communicating meaning (Ortega, 2009). He makes an interesting comparison between the provision of comprehensible input by the teacher and a 'well-balanced diet' (Krashen, 1982, p.70) presented to learners from which they always have access to the grammatical structures they need. According to Krashen, adults' acquisition of an L2, similar to children's acquisition of an L1, happens unconsciously without individuals being necessarily aware of it.

Another of the five hypotheses which Krashen claims to have a direct impact on language acquisition is the Affective-Filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982, 1985). In this hypothesis Krashen attempts to clarify that feeling comfortable and being receptive to input is essential for L2 learners to acquire language. He elaborates that several affective variables along the lines of 'motivation... self-confidence... anxiety' (Krashen, 1982, p.31) could be related to the success of SLA.

Krashen claims that 'acquirers' differ when it comes to the 'level of their Affective Filters' (Krashen, 1982, p.31). When a learner's Affective Filter is down, the chances are high that she/he would be more motivated to learn an L2; consequently, comprehensible input could be easily understood and language acquisition could occur. On the other hand, if the Affective Filter is up, learners might understand the comprehensible input presented to them but they will probably not reach the stage

of language acquisition. In this case, the 'affective filter (acts as) a mental block that prevents acquirers from fully utilizing the comprehensible input they receive' (Krashen, 1985, p.3). He explains that in such a condition the comprehensible input will not reach the 'Language Acquisition Device' (LAD) introduced by Chomsky for the acquisition of L1 (Figure 1), which Krashen argues can be applied for L2 acquisition as well.

To summarize both the comprehensible Input Hypothesis and the Affective-Filter hypothesis, Krashen states that individuals acquire language when they are exposed to rich comprehensible input (at an $i+1$ level) in a low anxiety environment. Consequently, this puts strong emphasis on the role of the teacher in providing a stress free learning environment conducive to SLA.

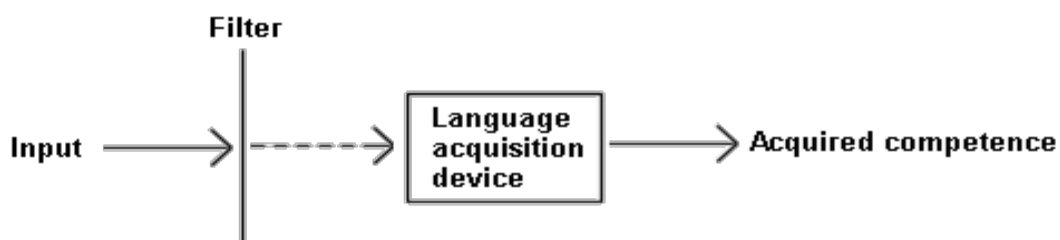


Figure 1: Operation of the Affective Filter (Krashen, 1982, p.32)

As Krashen's Input hypothesis placed strong emphasis on the importance of comprehensible input, Krashen did not advocate the importance of error correction focusing on form. He stated that corrective feedback needed only to be provided if the error produced by the learners impeded the comprehension of the message.

Krashen further suggested that CF could lead to raising the 'affective filter', consequently preventing the comprehensible input from being processed and language from being acquired.

The Input hypothesis has been criticized for vagueness and lack of adequate evidence. In order to highlight some of the shortcomings of Krashen's hypothesis, Mitchell and Myles explain that:

It is not clear how the learner's present state of knowledge (i) is to be characterized, or indeed whether the 'i + 1' formula is intended to apply to all aspects of language, including vocabulary and phonology as well as syntax.

(Mitchell and Myles, 2004, p.165)

Krashen's Input theory has also been challenged regarding the extent to which comprehensible input is sufficient for SLA. Many researchers argued that input by itself does not suffice when it comes to learning a second language (Long, 1996; Swain, 1993, 1995; Schmidt, 2001; White, 1987). White (1987) pointed out that the Input hypothesis did not take into consideration the positive outcomes of providing rules. She argued that some syntactic structures could not be easily acquired through comprehensible input and, as a result, formal grammatical instruction is necessary. Long (1983) agrees with Krashen's approach regarding the importance of comprehensible input for SLA, though he had a different view regarding the role of 'interactionally modified input' (R. Ellis, 1999, p.5) which Long argues is essential in providing learners with the necessary information related to problematic language forms. Long clearly states that 'comprehensible input alone is insufficient'

(Long, 1996, p.423) and that focus on form is essential while attempting to achieve 'native-like proficiency' (*ibid*). He elaborates that the lack of grammatical instruction or focus on form has led to limited grammatical accuracy of learners in immersion L2 contexts, where comprehensible input was provided on a large scale, (Swain, 1995; Swain 1991) as productive skills 'remain far from native-like' (Swain, 1991, cited in Long, 1996, p.423).

Other studies which have criticized the claim that comprehensible input is sufficient for language acquisition (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 1994; Swain, 1985; Schmidt, 1983), conducted in both classroom and natural settings, have shown that although learners received plenty of input they constantly demonstrated deviation from L2 norms in their language production.

The above challenges to Krashen's Input hypothesis demonstrate that despite the wide agreement to the necessity of comprehensible input for language acquisition, it cannot stand on its own. Other aspects need to be considered in order to attempt an explanation of the learning process.

2.2.2 The Interaction Hypothesis

The concept of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) was further developed by Long (1981, 1983, 1996) and is seen to constitute the first aspect of what is later known as the Interaction hypothesis. Long (1983) states the importance of two components for language acquisition to occur, input and interaction. He presents a

definition for both input and interaction: 'Input refers to the linguistic forms used; by interaction is meant the functions served by those forms, such as expansion, repetition, and clarification' (Long, 1981, p.259). In his 1983 study, Long argued that when non-native speakers participate in conversations with native speakers, communication is made possible through the modification of interaction. Long claimed that such interactional modifications, employing techniques such as repetition and clarification requests, referred to in later research as corrective feedback⁴ techniques (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), are both necessary and sufficient for second language acquisition.

Although both Krashen's Input Hypothesis and Long's Interaction Hypothesis put strong emphasis on the importance of comprehensible input, there is a distinction in the view of each researcher as to the role of such input. Krashen argued that input becomes comprehensible as a result of simplification and with the aid of contextual and extralinguistic clues. Long (1983), on the other hand, stressed the importance of interactionally modified input⁵ arguing its benefit in providing learners with the necessary information concerning problematic linguistic items (R. Ellis, 1999). Example 1 shows an instant of modified input when student 1 signals a communication problem, using a confirmation check, while modifying the language item accurately.

⁴ Lightbown and Spada (2006) define corrective feedback as 'any indication to the learners [by the teacher] that his/her use of the target language is incorrect' (p.197).

⁵ R. Ellis (1999) explains that modified input is 'input that has been adjusted to facilitate the interlocutors' comprehension' (p.4)

Example 1:

S1: And what is your mmmmm father's job?

S2: My father is now retire?

S1: Retired?

S2: Yes

(Varonis & Gass, 1985, p.78)

The results of Long's research put forward the presupposition that interactional modifications and comprehensible input work together to generate L2 learning opportunities (Gass, Mackey & Pica, 1998).

Long's realizations led to the formulation of the 'Interaction Hypothesis' (Long, 1983; 1996) which states that '...a crucial site for language development is interaction between learners and other speakers' (Long & Robinson, 1998, p.22). Long's Interaction Hypothesis highlights the role of negotiation in IL development, which refers to the conversational adjustments that aim at repairing breakdowns in communication (Gass, 2003; Long, 1996). The early form of the hypothesis (1983) claimed that the modified forms of interaction, such as linguistic simplification and using a slower rate of speech, are what made the input more comprehensible and, accordingly, led to SLA. Other studies in this area were in agreement regarding the role of interaction in improving comprehension at large (Doughty & Pica, 1986) and language development specifically (Mackey & Philp, 1998). One study that highlighted an additional means through which interaction can promote language learning was conducted by Pica (1994). She pointed out that when a break in communication occurs or when there is a problem in understanding, the

interlocutor can use various negotiation strategies to indicate the problem to the other speaker. Pica argued that these interactional moves signal to the learner that she/he needs to modify their message. Such raising of the learner's awareness can induce noticing which might prompt L2 development (Schmidt, 1990).

The above observations, in addition to the Comprehensible Output hypothesis introduced by Swain (which will be discussed in detail later on), played a role in prompting Long to modify his hypothesis (1996). The modified version of the interaction hypothesis states that:

....it is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learners' developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together most usefully, although not exclusively, during *negotiation for meaning*. Negative⁶ feedback obtained during negotiation work or elsewhere may be facilitative of L2 development..

(Long, 1996, p.414)

R. Ellis (1999) also pointed out that engaging in oral interaction with the aim of negotiating communication problems can assist in language acquisition as it 'creates conditions that foster the internal processes responsible for IL development' (R. Ellis, 1999, p.4). *Negotiation for meaning* is further defined by Lyster (2004) as 'various input modifications and interactional moves including semantically contingent feedback such as repetition and reformulation, [which] provides learners

⁶ Gass (2003) defines negative evidence as 'the type of information that is provided to learners concerning the incorrectness of an utterance' (p.225). Long (1996) defines it as 'direct or indirect evidence of what is grammatical' (p.413).

with implicit negative evidence and thus serves to benefit L2 development' (p.403). Long (1996) states that negotiation entails 'recycling' certain language elements which would accordingly increase the chances of their noticeability by the learner. He adds that the use of some modificational techniques such as 'stress of key words and partial repetition... involved in some reformulations can make target forms salient' (Long, 1996, p.452). Negotiation also helps learners make adjustments to their IL grammar through the provision of feedback (negative evidence) by the teacher, or a more competent interlocutor, and the learners' modified output. One form of feedback which Long stressed was beneficial is 'recasts'. Long defines recasts as 'utterances that rephrase a [learner's] utterance by changing one or more sentence components (subject, verb or object) while still referring to its central meanings' (Long, 1996, p.434). In example 2, a native speaker uses a recast following the erroneous utterance of a learner, where she/he modifies the direct object:

Example 2:

NS: and right next to her a phone rings?
NNS: forring?
NS: A phone? Telephone? Is there a telephone next to her?
NNS: yeah... I don't have a telephones picture.
NS: you don't have a picture of a telephone?

(Pica, 1996a, p.8, cited in R. Ellis, 1999, p.10)

Long suggested that learners can deal with more complex linguistic forms through interactional modifications, using feedback forms such as recasts. Since such

interactional modifications involved in negotiation of meaning help learners focus on forms of the language, Long (1996) pointed out that this can help them pay attention to the 'mismatches' between input and output and give learners a better opportunity at modifying their output when they deviate from the L2 norms, which could provide a better chance for L2 acquisition.

2.2.3 The Noticing Hypothesis

As part of the interactionist approach to language learning, various researchers highlighted the relationship between noticing and L2 development. Long's (1996) modified interaction hypothesis draws attention to the importance of noticing the features of a language during interaction. One of the early scholars to put emphasis on the relationship between noticing and language learning is Schmidt (1990, 1995). His Noticing Hypothesis stressed the importance of learners' awareness of the gap between the input language they receive and their output. Schmidt argued that noticing does not only facilitate L2 learning, but is essential for learning to take place. He highlighted two degrees of awareness during interaction, a lower degree and a higher one. The lower degree is when noticing takes place, which is the starting point for learning, and the higher one is when understanding takes place and knowledge is internalized. This process of turning the input that students notice

into intake⁷ is an essential component of the Noticing Hypothesis (1990).

Inherent in Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis is the importance of interactional feedback during communication, which, based on the concept of 'noticing the gap' (Schmidt & Frota, 1986) can direct learners' attention to the gap between their IL and the native TL. Schmidt (1995) points out the importance of both input and interaction in language development. However, he stresses that these two components should not be regarded as only a means of improving learners' communicative skills, but should also lead to learners both noticing and comprehending the various features of the target language which would enhance the language acquisition process. Schmidt explains that:

...while input and interaction are important to establish a secure level of communicative proficiency, this is not because language learning is unconscious, but because input and interaction, attention, and awareness are all crucial for learning, and when understanding and application are poorly synchronized, there will be problems: fluency but premature stabilization in the case of completely meaning-focused learning, abstract knowledge but limited ability to perform in the case of overly conscious learners or those who have been instructed with an excessive focus on form. In this view.....direct instruction, conscious-raising, and a focus on form help learners bring order to the input they encounter, facilitate understanding, and boost or support natural acquisition processes.

(Schmidt, 1995, pp. 3-4)

Concerning the relation between noticing, resulting from the provision of interaction feedback, and language development, Mackey (2006) wanted to examine

⁷ Chaudron (1985), cited in Gass, (1997, p. 138) defines intake as 'the mediating process between the target language available to learners as input and the learners' internalized set of L2 rules and strategies for second language development'.

whether such feedback led to enhanced noticing of language forms. She also wanted to investigate whether such noticing resulted in language learning. The data from her study, through learners' reports, did suggest a relation between interactional feedback forms provided in connection with learners' errors and enhanced noticing. In addition, the data suggested that noticing promoted L2 learning, however, there was no clear evidence that they were associated as some learners did report on noticing without showing any L2 development, while others developed without reporting any form of noticing. Mackey reported on the limitations of her study stating that 'a fundamental limitation of empirical studies of noticing and interaction [is that] researchers do not have direct access to learners' internal processing' (p. 424). This relates to Schmidt's argument that:

Learning takes place within the learner's mind (brain) and cannot be completely engineered by teachers... students do not always attend to what teachers intend them to attend to (Solimani, 1992) and may prefer to achieve awareness at a higher or lower level than what is prepackaged by teachers.

(Schmidt, 1995, p.46)

There is support for the Noticing Hypothesis from various researchers and scholars. From a theoretical perspective, Gass (1988) sees noticing as an essential primary step for acquiring language. Lynch (2001) also regards noticing as crucial for language development. Regarding the Input processing approach, VanPatten (2007) argues that languages are learnt through conscious attention to both meaning and form.

2.2.4 The Output Hypothesis

In addition to input and interaction, some researchers have argued for the significance of output during conversational interaction as a means of language development. In the 1980s, the word 'output' was seen to refer to an outcome; it was regarded as a means of practicing previously acquired knowledge (Krashen, 1985). The following years have seen a 'shift... from output as a... thing, or a product, to output as... an action, or a process' (Swain, 2005, p.471).

Interest in output as a source of language learning stemmed from Swain's work (1985). She argued that both comprehensible output, in addition to input, are necessary for learners to acquire 'grammatical and sociolinguistic competence in L2' (R. Ellis, 1999, p.11), hence the introduction of the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 2005; 1995; 1993; 1985). When learners reformulate their language output following some form of communication breakdown, this can lead to L2 acquisition (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Several researchers investigated output in the process of L2 learning and argued that modified output, resulting from interaction, assists in SLA as it helps learners focus on specific features of the target language (e.g. Toth, 2006; McDonough, 2005; Doughty & Pica, 1986). Moreover, R. Ellis and He (1999) presented evidence through their experimental investigation that input alone was not sufficient and that through modified output language learning is noticeably enhanced.

Swain advocated the importance of the Output Hypothesis based on classroom observations in a French immersion programme in Canada. It was noticed that students, who started their immersion learning experience early, performed much better in the receptive skills evaluation, listening and reading, than the productive skills, speaking and writing. Consequently, it was deduced that the abundant comprehensible input students received in their classes did not suffice since they lacked enough opportunities to produce the language. Swain (1995; 1993) argued that 'pushed output' could be the means to engage learners in 'syntactic processing' (R. Ellis, 1999, p.11), paying attention to language forms, which they might otherwise neglect when their focus is on meaning.

Swain suggested three main roles which 'pushed output' can play in the L2 learning process (Swain, 2005; 1995; 1993). The first is 'noticing the gap' (Schmidt & Frota, 1986, in Swain, 1995, p.129) between the learners' IL and the TL⁸, which can help learners 'generate linguistic knowledge that is new for them, or ... consolidate their current existing knowledge' (Swain & Lapkin 1995, in Swain, 2005, p.474). Swain added that 'noticing a gap' could result from 'implicit or explicit feedback provided from an interlocutor about problems in the learners' output' (Swain, 1995, p.129). In other words, conversational moves, in the form of CF provided by the teacher, could lead to learners modifying their output. Lotchman (2002) also argues that CF

⁸ Target language is defined as L1, L2, L3 or L4 in the process of acquisition (Lightbown & Spada, 1993).

moves could facilitate noticing, enabling learners to produce comprehensible output.

The second role suggested by Swain for output in L2 development is 'hypothesis testing'. This allows learners to 'try out means of expression and see if they work' (Swain, 1993, p. 160). Several investigations have shown that learners modify their output following 'conversational moves as clarification requests or confirmation checks' (Swain, 2005, p. 476) both in laboratory (Pica *et al.*, 1989) and classroom settings (Loewen, 2002, in Swain, 2005). However, instances of modified output were more prevalent in classroom settings, suggesting that learners feel more at ease testing their hypothesis in natural contexts. Moreover, results of Loewen's (2002) investigation showed that conversation moves which pushed learners to produce and answer, such as clarification requests, resulted in more attempts of modified output than moves which directly supplied the answer, such as recasts.

The third role that output might play is a 'metalinguistic' one. Swain explains that this occurs when learners use 'language to reflect on language' (Swain, 1995, p. 132). They would verbally reflect on their use of certain language forms and might discuss why they are using them and whether their output needs to be modified. Swain elaborates on this by asking whether such reflection 'play(s) a role in second language learning?' (*ibid*). In her review of output theory and research, Swain (2005) claims that metalinguistic reflection 'mediates language learning' (p. 478) and relates this idea to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory. A tenet of sociocultural

theory is how people utilize mediating tools; one of those tools is speaking, through which learners can reflect on their language use. Vygotsky (1987, 1978, in Swain, 2005, p.479) also claimed that speaking could be a form of development through reforming and reshaping people's experience. Thus, when learners reflect on language use they could be reformulating their pre-acquired knowledge, as well as internalizing new forms that were not introduced to them before, and both could lead to IL development.

2.2.5 Summary of the Interactionist Approach to Language Learning

The development of the above hypotheses can be summarised as follows: although Krashen's input hypothesis stressed the importance of comprehensible input sometimes going as far as claiming that input suffices when it comes to language acquisition, Long's research (1983, 1996) argues that comprehensible input alone is not sufficient and that negotiation of meaning and interactional modifications are essential for language learning to occur. Schmidt (1990, 1995) went a step further claiming that such interactional modifications and conversational moves helped learners notice the gap between their IL and the TL being acquired. Additionally, Swain (1990, 1995, 2005) added that these feedback moves which attracted learners' attention to the inaccuracies in their language production enhanced the chances for modified output which was essential in L2 development.

2.3 Communicative Language Teaching and Classroom Interaction

2.3.1 What is CLT?

Around the 1960s, researchers and scholars were questioning the Chomskyan view of language learning as a form of habit formation. It was argued that this view should be replaced with one focusing on the importance of communication. Hence, Hymes (1972) put forward the concept of ‘communicative competence’, a main tenet of CLT, which highlighted the learner’s need to focus on using language for specific purposes and situations.

Along the same lines, it was stated that CLT became prominent following criticism of other methods which prevailed in the 20th century (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1997), such as the Grammar-Translation method, where emphasis was on written language and memorization was encouraged, and the Audiolingual method, which emphasized the importance of spoken language but practised it through drills which students had to repeat (Yule, 2016). Such an argument was based on the notion that these methods put no real emphasis on communication in the TL. Consequently, focus in L2 learning shifted to a more communicative approach, which shed light on the importance of interaction, purposeful communication and communicative competence (Mochida, 2002). Yule summed up the CLT approach as:

.... a reaction against the artificiality of ‘pattern-practice’ and also against the belief that consciously learning the grammar rules of a language will result in an ability to use the language.

(Yule, 2016, p.212)

Lightbown and Spada present one of the clearest definitions for the CLT approach.

They state that:

CLT is based on the premise that successful language learning involves not only a knowledge of the structures and forms of a language, but also the functions and purposes that a language serves in different communicative settings. This approach to teaching emphasizes the communication of meaning in interaction rather than the practice and manipulation of grammatical forms in isolation.

(Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p.197)

A major goal for CLT is to enhance learners' communicative skills and competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). In attempting to clarify what communication is, Savignon (1997) states that it comprises of 'expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning' (p.14). Of interest to the present study is the concept of negotiation of meaning where one interlocutor indicates to another, through employing various techniques, the need for the latter to modify their language output. When the teacher employs such techniques in the language classroom, they could be considered as forms of CF which enhance interaction by signaling to students that their language production diverges from the TL norm, consequently, they would attempt to modify their output.

2.3.2 Development of the CLT Approach

Several versions emerged of the CLT approach and what they had in common was a focus on the functions and use of language rather than merely the target like forms and structures. Long's interaction hypothesis (1983, 1996) strongly influenced the CLT approach. Early on, CLT focused primarily on the successful communication of

meaning during interaction with no real emphasis on form-focused instruction. With the modified version of the interaction hypothesis, there was a tendency to include grammar instruction as part of the communicative approach to language teaching (Spada & Lightbown, 2009). These two varying foci of the CLT approach are linked to what is referred to as the 'strong version' and the 'weak version' (Klapper, 2006; Howatt, 1984) of CLT. The 'strong version' viewed L2 learning, similar to L1, as a natural process taking place in the learner's mind during which meaningful input occurring during communication is the major factor leading to L2 development, with no real significance to focus on form or error correction (Klapper, 2006).

The 'weak version' acknowledges the importance of instruction for the learning of a foreign/second language. It highlights the importance of communicative activities that help learners develop their language abilities. Howat (1984) states that:

The weak version.... stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes, and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities in a wider program of language teaching.

(p.279)

Drawing a comparison between the strong and the weak versions of the CLT approach, Klapper (2006) explains:

.....the aim is the same, namely communication, but the means employed to achieve it are different. In particular, classroom activities are more structured so that through rehearsal, learners are enabled to adapt and combine elements of language in new communicative settings, to practise communicative functions in a controlled way and gradually build up... freer FL exchanges.

(p.110)

Klapper (2006) outlines the main characteristics of the weak version of CLT, which has become the mainstream one. The most relevant of those, in relation to the present investigation, is using language for a specific purpose as learners are given a specific task to achieve through using their L2. Another important trait is how grammar, and focus on form, is employed to support communication and not considered an end in itself. Furthermore, there is an emphasis on teaching grammar inductively during which learners are encouraged to identify patterns and practise of forms follows. This mainstream model presents learners with the opportunity to express what they think allowing for a more authentic use of the TL, during which there are ample chances for interaction with other colleagues and with the teacher. The focus while communicating in the TL involves negotiation of meaning, and such negotiation allows for the use of CF when dealing with learners' errors, which are viewed by this model as 'a natural outcome of developing learners' communication skills' (Klapper, 2006, p.112).

2.3.3 Form-Focused Instruction in CLT

The term 'Form-focused instruction' (FFI) has been generally used to describe 'any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form either implicitly or explicitly' (Spada, 1997, p.73), or 'any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form' (R. Ellis, 2001, pp.1-2).

Over the years, there has been an increase in awareness concerning focus on form and the role grammar teaching plays for improving communicative ability (e.g., Nassaji, 2000; Doughty & Williams, 1998; N. Ellis, 1993; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Savignon, 1991; Lightbown & Spada, 1990). To further emphasize the importance of learning grammar within the CLT approach, Savignon (2002) differentiates between communicative competence and communicative ability. Communicative competence focuses on the individual's ability to negotiate and interpret meaning, as well as express oneself, while communicative ability is that of understanding meaning and utilizing forms in a suitable manner. Hence, it is claimed that communication can hardly exist without structure and the proper use of language forms, accordingly, in the communicative language classroom there needs to be a balance between form-focused and meaning-focused activities (Lightbown & Spada, 2006), with the teachers adequately addressing learners' erroneous oral language production.

To further highlight the importance of focus on form in CLT, I believe it is worthwhile to shed light on studies conducted on students enrolled in an immersion programme in Canada to measure language accuracy (e.g. Swain, 1985). Despite being exposed to ample TL input, students' language production still lacked accuracy. Williams (1995) attributes this grammaticality problem to excluding any kind of form-focused instruction, consequently leaving students' erroneous utterances unattended. Scholars who advocated the importance of paying attention to form during teaching a foreign/second language conducted a number of studies to examine the effectiveness of such an approach (e.g. Doughty & Williams, 1998;

Doughty, 1991; White, 1991). The results indicated that students who had experienced form focused instruction performed better in the targeted language structures than students without such instruction.

Although some teachers are of the conviction that attracting students' attention to grammatical forms while engaging in communicative, meaning-based activities might not be the right thing to do (Lightbown, 1998), other scholars build a strong argument concerning how form-focused instruction and communicative activities can go hand in hand. It has been suggested that learning TL forms in context helps students pay attention and makes such forms easier for students to remember (Nassaji, 2000; Foto, 1994). In her study focusing on Japanese students studying English, Foto (1994) investigated the effect of combining communicative activities with a focus on form. Results show that students who were involved in communicative activities dealing with target grammatical forms performed better in the grammar test. In a more recent study, Boroujeni (2012) examined the effectiveness of different approaches on the teaching of grammar. The findings suggest that 'a type of grammar instructional method in which attention to grammatical forms happens in the context of communication is favored' (Boroujeni, 2012, p.1573). The findings of the above studies resonate with what Brown states as one of the characteristics of CLT, 'fluency and accuracy are complimentary principles underlying communicative techniques' (Brown, 2001, in Mustafa & Yahaya, 2013, p.790).

2.3.4 CLT in the Egyptian Educational Context

For the purposes of the present study it is important at this stage to shed some light on the CLT approach in Egypt. With the continuous growing importance of English as an International Language (EIL) and the similarly expanding desire of individuals to develop their language in order to improve their future prospects, 'a reconceptualization of our approach to language/s education in ways that recognize a diversity of goals for people from different backgrounds' (Leung & Scarino, 2016, p.81) has become essential. With that said, it is unfortunate that the traditional methods employed for teaching English as a foreign/second language in developing countries, including Egypt, around the world have not quite paid off in 'empowering learners with English communicative competence' (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017, p.285). Accordingly, to cope with changes and to attempt to cater for the need for communicative competence, CLT seems to be the most suitable approach, and Egypt, like many other countries, has been trying to direct the general teaching trend towards that approach (Ginsburg & Megahed 2011; Ginsburg, 2010).

Since the 1970s, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Egypt has put a lot of effort into the education and training of teachers (Kozma, 2005). There was a collaboration with higher education and research institutes, as well as TESOL (teaching English to speakers of other languages) specialists, to improve teachers' instructional abilities, and provide them with opportunities for development which would present the necessary support needed to improve their teaching skills (Darwish, 2016). The CLT approach was seen as the most viable choice (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017);

accordingly, the MOE has been preparing teachers to adopt it in their classrooms since the early nineties (Ibrahim, 2004, in Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017).

Despite the above initiatives for adopting a CLT approach, several investigations have shown that the general attitude in the Egyptian language classrooms was one of a traditional teaching approach (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; Abdel Latif, 2012), giving priority to the teaching of grammar and vocabulary, and a focus on accuracy. In a study using a mixed methods approach, Ibrahim & Ibrahim (2017) examined whether the teaching of English language in Egyptian schools was in line with the principles of CLT advocated by the MOE. The results demonstrated that some teachers were mostly unaware of the principles underlying CLT. Questionnaires showed that 88% of the respondents (a total of 100) favoured accuracy over fluency, and classroom observations demonstrated an almost dominant attention to focusing on language drilling exercises. This in part relates to the examination oriented teaching environment that the Egyptian system fosters which teachers discussed during the interviews. Another study (Abdel Latif, 2012) investigated 'how a standards-based communicative curricular reform' (p.78), implemented on the English language course in an Egyptian secondary school, affected teachers' teaching practices. The results indicated that the curricular reform has not led to the anticipated changes in teachers' classroom performance and that the most influential factor on teachers' practices are washback, which is 'the influence of testing on teaching and learning' (Abdel Latif, 2012, p.87).

In an insight paper, McIlwraith and Fortune (2016) presented perspectives of ELT from various stakeholders. Grammar and vocabulary were found to occupy 70.08% of class time, with teacher-talk dominating the biggest portion of the lesson, limiting students' participation and student-teacher interaction. As a result, it was common that students who produced erroneous language were not guided to self-correct. Results showed the tendency of teachers to 'teach to the test', and one of the respondents commented: 'In the school system exams are more important than education....' (McIlwraith & Fortune, 2016, p.6); accordingly, there is less focus on communicative activities. The results also demonstrate that teachers are largely influenced by their students in this area. One teacher explained:

With this exam system, students are very resistant to taking part in speaking activities....Students usually regard speaking....activities as supplementary rather than basic ones. They care more for the exam-related activities.

(McIlwraith & Fortune, 2016, p.14)

Although the CLT approach has had significant influence on language teaching for several decades, and has been placed under the spotlight by the educational authorities in Egypt for nearly three decades now, implementing it has proven to be a conundrum in various educational contexts. As presented above, this difficulty in implementation is deeply rooted in two aspects, one being the suggested lack of awareness on part of various teachers with relation to the principles of CLT, and the other is the exam-oriented culture that is arguably dominating both the learning and teaching aspects of education in Egypt. Consequently, emphasis is mostly on drilling

exercises which aim at accuracy, with minimal time devoted to oral interaction which would present learners with a chance to actively use the L2, and eventually enable teachers to provide feedback that could promote IL development.

2.4 English for Specific Purposes as a Medium for Language Learning

While gaining momentum in the field of foreign/second language learning, CLT advocates realized that English was needed by a variety of learners to be used in specific educational and occupational contexts. This explains the rise of the ESP domain. It focuses on teaching communicative skills and specific language needed for certain roles, rather than simply focusing on general English. In order to specify the language needed for different occupations and the kind of communication learners are required to be proficient at, needs analysis is usually conducted through 'the use of observation, surveys, interviews, situation analysis, and analysis of language samples collected in different settings' (Richards 2006, p.12). Emphasizing specialized needs of learners in specific educational and occupational fields, as opposed to the general English field, ESP focuses on areas such as vocabulary, grammar, kinds of texts usually occurring in each field, functions needed for communication, and needs for particular skills over others (Richards, 2006). Based on the results of the needs analysis, ESP courses are designed to address particular needs of university students based on their fields of study, as well as occupations in various fields.

Attempting to clarify the genre of ESP, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain that 'ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to the content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning' (p.19). Later, in an effort to define the term ESP, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) offer a clarification of its characteristics. They state that:

1. ESP is geared towards meeting specific needs of certain learners.
2. ESP utilizes the activities and the underlying methodology of the field it focuses on.
3. The language, skills, and discourse ESP is centered on, should be relevant to the activities of the discipline it serves.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) also state that one of the characteristics of an ESP course lies in assuming that learners have some basic knowledge of the language system; accordingly, it can be argued that an ESP approach allows learners to utilize their already existing knowledge to acquire more language, as well as add to the relevance of what students are learning in the ESP context.

With reference to the above explanation and definitions of the ESP domain, several sub-divisions are of relevance; of those is the field of English for Business, which is the context in which the current study takes place.

2.4.1 English for Business

Similar to most ESP sub-divisions, 'teaching Business English involves teaching English to adults working in Business of one kind or another, or preparing to work in the field of Business' (Donna, 2005, p.2). An important point to contemplate when trying to clarify the nature of Business English is learners' expectation of the course, what is it they hope to acquire. However, this makes more sense when considering learners who are already in a specialized work field and who know what is expected from them on the job. As for the case of learners enrolled in Business English courses, such as undergraduate students, they are unlikely to know much about their prospective field of work, and in such a case, the general aims and objectives set for a course might need to adopt a more general approach which would benefit learners in several specialized contexts in the Business field. In other words, although learners are not yet clear about what to expect, they need to feel that they can utilize whichever skills, functions, lexis, or structural items they internalize during the course in their future career.

Although, as mentioned above, the aims and objectives of an undergraduate English for Business course tend to be somewhat more general, the course still needs to have a technical content, with frequent introduction of common business terms. As for speaking and writing skills, focus should be on a style appropriate to a professional working environment. Regarding classroom interaction and the language studied in class, Donna (2005) argues that 'teacher talk' (p.4), can present

a rich source of input and exposure in the classroom. That is to say, interaction between teachers and learners, with all its intricacies of dealing with oral errors and pushing learners to modify their language production through various feedback techniques, is as essential in the ESP context as any other General English context.

The following section focuses on corrective feedback provided in the language classroom and its role in getting learners to modify their language output.

2.5 Corrective Feedback and Oral Classroom Interaction

As presented in the above sections, a multitude of theories and approaches to language learning and teaching have come into play over time. Although some have gained better momentum and more fervent following than others, what the majority have in common is an aim to provide learners with the tools to communicate using the TL. Such tools fall within the realm of *communicative competence* (Hymes, 1972) through which individuals convey and negotiate meaning in order to avoid a breakdown in communication. In the context of the language classroom, negotiation of meaning between teachers and students during the teaching-learning process often entails the provision of feedback by the teacher, which usually signals students to an inaccuracy in their language production. Due to its significance as an educational tool, CF has been the focus of numerous investigations for years and the following sections will shed light on some of those areas of research.

2.5.1 What is Feedback?

Research on feedback goes back a long way. Earlier in the 20th century, Pressey (1926, cited in Bangert-Drowns *et al.*, 1991 and Regian & Shute, 1994) described a mechanical device, which was fed with questions and answers by the teacher. The aim was to have the machine drill students on answers to the questions and provide them with immediate feedback on their responses. A few years later, Trowbridge and Carson (1932) conducted an experiment investigating the effect of providing feedback to blindfolded students who were instructed to draw lines with specific dimensions. The results showed that students who did receive feedback showed improvement over time as opposed to others who were not provided with any feedback.

R. Ellis (2009) states that 'feedback has a place in most theories of L2 learning' (p.3). Of those he highlighted the behaviorist and the cognitive theories; however, it is important to highlight the transformation in viewing feedback from one theory to the other. Behaviorists viewed feedback mainly as a stimulus for the learner to repeat the correct answer. They '...have understood feedback as a reinforcer. That is, the presence of feedback after a student's response increases the likelihood that the response will be repeated' (Kozma & Bangert-Drowns, 1987, p.66). For those adopting the behaviorist tradition, the learner was on the passive side when it came to receiving and processing feedback. On the other hand, a cognitive point of view regarded the learner as an active component of the learning-teaching process where

feedback had a more profound influence 'than merely strengthen(ing) stimulus-response connections' (ibid); accordingly, the provision of feedback helped learners enhance and adjust their own learning through interacting with the learning environment. Bangert-Drowns *et al.* (1991) highlighted the importance of feedback arguing that 'it is hard to imagine how one could develop mastery of a cognitive skill without performance feedback' (p.213). Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) also state that several theoretical perspectives, ranging from the cognitively to the socially oriented, indicate that CF might play a pivotal role in learners' L2 development. According to the cognitive-interactionist perspective, positive evidence, as well as negative evidence provided through CF, are both necessary for language learning, with the latter aiding in the noticing of non-target output (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996). The interaction hypothesis (Long, 1997) predicts that when learners engage in negotiation of meaning during interaction, they are provided with an opportunity to test their hypothesis about the language and to modify their language output accordingly. As for skills acquisition theory, it credits CF with an important role in practising an L2 and claims that 'oral practice in conjunction with feedback promotes continued second language growth' (Lyster & Sato, 2013, p.71), which can gradually move learners to a more automatic, effortless use of the TL (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Based on sociocultural theory, CF presents learners with assistance through a negotiated dialogue as their language production develops from being regulated by others, to self-regulation (Sato & Ballinger, 2012; Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994).

Feedback in learning generally, and language learning in specific, falls into two categories, positive feedback and negative feedback. The former usually affirms that a learner's production of the TL is accurate; 'it may signal the veracity of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic correctness of the utterance' (R. Ellis, 2009, p.3), consequently providing motivation for learners. Negative feedback, on the other hand, is provided in response to learners' erroneous language production and carries a corrective intent. It is significant at this point to clarify the concept of correction which is defined by James (1998) as '..... a reactive second movement of an **adjacency pair** to a first speaker's or writer's utterance by someone who has made the judgment that all or part of that utterance is linguistically or factually wrong' (pp.235-236). For the interest of the present research, focus lies on linguistic abnormalities and form-focused correction of oral language production.

The provision of feedback which indicates some form of deviation from the L2 norm has been referred to in the literature using different terminology such as 'negative feedback', 'negative evidence' and 'corrective feedback'. According to Long (1996, 2006) 'negative evidence' is presented through feedback which attracts learners' attention to what is not suitable in a second language, as opposed to 'positive evidence' which puts forth examples of acceptable L2 forms (Gass, 1997). As for 'negative feedback', it is referred to as 'any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance' (Chaudron, 1977, p.31). R. Ellis (2009) defines 'corrective feedback' as a 'response to a learner utterance containing a linguistic error' (p.3). R. Ellis, Loewen

and Erlam (2006) further elaborate on CF explaining that ‘responses can consist of (a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these’ (p.340). The above definitions of ‘negative feedback’ and ‘corrective feedback’ demonstrate that both terms can be equated and are utilized for presenting negative evidence to learners following their inaccurate L2 production. For the purpose of the present investigation, the term ‘corrective feedback’ will be adopted and will be operationalized in line with Lightbown and Spada’s (2006) definition as ‘[any move by the teacher which indicates] to the learner that his/her use of the target language is incorrect’ (p.197). Another approach to operationalizing CF, which adopts an educational perspective, is provided by Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) and regards CF ‘as an inherent part of classroom practices in which teachers engage to achieve instructional objectives that include consolidation of students’ L2 knowledge’ (p.2). The following section outlines the different forms of CF identified through numerous investigations and the role they play during classroom interaction.

2.5.2 Types of Corrective Feedback

Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted a study focusing on the interaction between four teachers and their students in French immersion classrooms in Canada. Based on this descriptive study, they determined six types of CF used by teachers: recasts, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and clarification

requests (refer to Appendix A for examples and definitions of the different types of CF).

In later work, Ranta and Lyster (2007) categorized the six types above into two broader classifications: reformulations and prompts. Reformulation 'includes recasts and explicit correction because both...supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output' (p.152). Prompts 'include a variety of signals, other than alternative reformulations, that push learners to self-repair' (ibid).

Along the same lines of the above classification, Loewen and Nabei (2007) categorized Lyster and Ranta's (1997) six types of feedback into 'provide' and 'prompt', based on who provides the correction for the errors, the learners or the teachers (Figure 2). Furthermore, Figure 2 demonstrates another distinction of CF types, that of explicitness and implicitness. Loewen and Nabei present a continuum of explicitness, an argument which is also put forward by R. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) and Lyster (1998). Loewen and Nabei distinguish between explicit correction, as the more explicit form in the 'provide' category, and recasts as the more implicit one. In the 'prompt' category, metalinguistic feedback is on the explicit end of the continuum while clarification requests are on the implicit one.

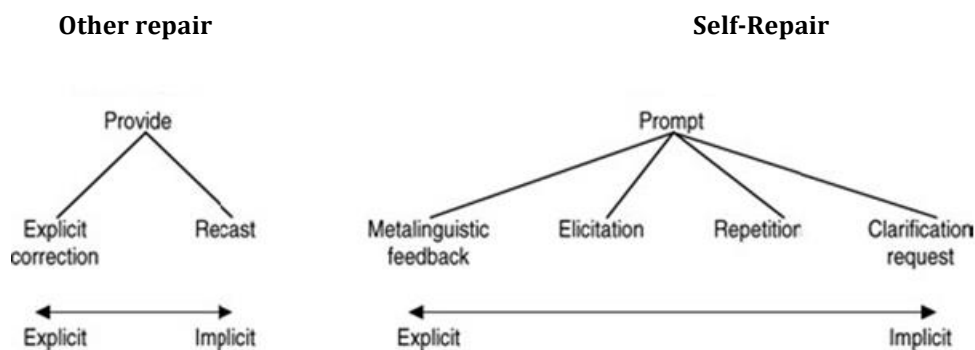


Figure 2: Options of Corrective Feedback (Loewen & Nabei, 2007, p.326)

Although recasts are often regarded as an implicit form, various investigations have demonstrated that they can be significantly explicit based on certain characteristics (Sato, 2011; R. Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Sheen, 2006). Concerning prompts, R. Ellis (2006) suggests the same distribution as Loewen and Nabei (2007) in figure 2 above; however, Li (2010) places elicitations on the more implicit end of the continuum. These varying arguments demonstrate that explicitness is not a constant variable. Ortega (2009) defines explicitness in terms of ‘perceptual salience’ and ‘linguistic marking’ (p.75). Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) argue that ‘learner perceptions of salience and linguistic marking are affected not only by learner variables such as age and metalinguistic knowledge but also by contextual variables such as the instructional context and its communicative orientation’, accordingly, ‘explicitness is a difficult variable to hold constant across classroom studies’ (p.3).

Of special interest to the current investigation are recasts and prompts, which are further elaborated on in the coming sections.

2.5.2.1 Recasts

Mackey and Goo (2007) state that recasts are the most commonly studied form of OCF. Furthermore, several investigations have concluded that recasts are the prevailing form of feedback employed by teachers inside the classroom (Yoshida, 2008; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Research has also shown recasts to be the most frequently recurring type of CF in a range of teaching contexts: university-level FL settings (Sheen, 2004), elementary immersion settings (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), adult ESL classrooms (Panova & Lyster, 2002; R. Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001), and high school EFL settings (Daugherty & Varela, 1998).

Following L1 acquisition studies (e.g. Farrar, 1992, 1990), the role of recasts in learning a second language is highlighted by the interaction hypothesis. The latter argues that recasts can help learners perceive the inconsistencies between erroneous language production and target-like reformulations, while maintaining the original message; thus recasts have the potential 'to provide learners with a primary source of negative evidence' (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p.10). In relation to corrective recasts and L2 acquisition, Long defines recasts as:

...a reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which one or more non-target like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items is/are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s)..

(Long, 2007, p.77)

Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001) present a more general definition of recasts as 'the teacher's correct restatement of a learner's incorrectly formed utterance' (p.720). Accordingly, by recasting 'a teacher both initiates and completes a repair within a single move' (Lyster & Saito, 2010, p.269) without putting any real demand on the learner to modify their output. Example 4 illustrates an instance of an isolated recast where the researcher reformulates the non-target like grammatical production of the learner:

Example 4:

Learner:they saw and they follow follow follow him

Researcher: Followed

Learner: Followed him and attached him.

(R. Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006, p.353)

A distinctive characteristic of recasts is that they do not indicate in a direct manner that the learner has made an error; however, they do present either a partial, as in example 4, or a full reformulation of such an error. Example 5 presents a full-reformulation of a learner's non-target like lexical error.

Example 5:

Student: The woman found a police on the street.

Teacher: The woman found a police officer?

(Nassaji, 2007, p.527)

It has been noted that the beneficial effects of recasts are contingent on contrasting the corrective recast with the learner's erroneous utterance (Long, 2007). Long and Robinson (1998) argue that such juxtaposition leads to a comparison between the

erroneous utterance and the more target-like form. The extent to which learners can deduce negative evidence from recasts, as hypothesized by the interaction hypothesis, can also depend on the context in which recasts are provided (Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). Several investigations have concluded that there are higher chances of this taking place in form-oriented classrooms, which naturally entail an emphasis on accuracy that would prime learners to notice the corrective intent behind recasts (Sato, 2011; Lyster, 2007; R. Ellis & Sheen, 2006).

This concept of **noticing** could be linked to the implicitness or explicitness of the CF form. Researchers have presented different views regarding the implicitness of recasts. Long (2007) suggests that recasts are always implicit and aim at 'not interrupt(ing) the speakers' focus on message' (p.99). On the other hand, R. Ellis and Sheen (2006) present an argument concerning the classification of recasts as explicit or implicit based on a number of features such as 1) intonation, 2) length of the recast move, 3) number of modifications done to the original erroneous utterance provided by the learners, and 4) the context in which recasts are provided, whether didactic or communicative, in ESL/EFL or immersion classroom.

Regarding the explicitness and implicitness of recasts with respect to length, Egi (2007b) explains that recasts are regarded by learners as response to content, and not having a corrective intent, when they include more than two changes to the original utterance; shorter recasts, on the other hand, are likely to be viewed as including some kind of linguistic evidence. Loewen and Philp (2006) concluded that

the number of changes made to the original utterance, intonation, and length of morpheme are important factors which mediate the effect of recasts. Along the same lines, Sheen (2006) argues that short length recasts, word or short phrase, result in more learner uptake than longer recasts. In a laboratory study comparing recasts (referred to as reformulations) with prompts (referred to as elicitations), Nassaji (2007) identified six subtypes of recasts provided during didactic teacher-student task based interaction (Appendix B). The subtypes most provided by the teachers include additional prompts, which Nassaji labels as rising intonation and/or added stress. These prompts led to higher uptake and attempts at repair by learners, adding further evidence that intonation aids learners in identifying the corrective intent of recasts.

2.5.2.2 Prompts

Lyster (2004) defines prompts as CF moves that aid in the production of modified or 'pushed output' (Swain, 1985). Furthermore, Lyster and Mori (2006) state that 'prompts', as opposed to recasts, encompass various signals that 'push learners to self-repair' (p.271). They represent a variety of feedback types under the prompts category including clarification requests, repetitions, metalinguistic clues, and elicitation (for examples of each type, refer to Appendix A). What the four moves have in common is 'withhold(ing) correct forms and instead provid(ing) clues to prompt students to retrieve these correct forms from their existing knowledge' (Lyster & Saito, 2010, p.268. Ammar and Spada (2006), however, used the same term (prompts) without including clarification requests. They claimed that the latter

'can be ambiguous insofar as the requests for correction can be mistaken for feedback on meaning' (p.553). Nassaji (2007, 2009), in his analysis of CF moves occurring during dyadic teacher-student task-based interaction, grouped all the feedback forms observed, which called on learners to modify their output without the teacher providing the correct form, under 'elicitation'. As for 'prompts', he used that term with reference to extra verbal and/or intonational clues which would further serve as cues for learners that their preceding utterances need modification. Example 6 presents an episode of elicitation during which the teacher marks the error through repeating it with a rising intonation and adding a verbal prompt (for further examples of elicitation moves, refer to Appendix B).

Example 6:

Student: She easily catched the girl.

Teacher: She caught the girl? I'm sorry say that again?

(Nassaji, 2007, p.528)

Grouping such output prompting techniques under the term 'elicitation', from my point of view as a researcher and a teaching practitioner, falls into place since the main aim is to elicit from learners the correct form of a previous non-target like utterance. Accordingly, for the purposes of training teachers on the provision of OCF, as well as data analysis of teacher-student interaction in the current investigation, I will adopt Nassaji's classification of elicitation and recast moves (Appendix B).

As demonstrated in Figure 2 above, the prompt category, similar to recasts and explicit correction, ranges from implicit to more explicit forms, yet, prompts are distinguishable from recasts and explicit correction in terms of a level of demand thrust upon interlocutors to react to negative evidence (Ortega, 2009). Consequently, even though prompts might not be explicit owing to linguistic information, they 'might be considered explicit in terms of their illocutionary force' (Lyster & Saito, 2010, p.268), where teachers provide cues that guide learners to attempt at self-repair. It could be deduced from the above that prompts are well suited within instructional discourse and fit well as a catalyst for IL development; nevertheless, as mentioned earlier, several observational studies concluded that recasts, and not prompts, are the CF techniques mostly employed by teachers in the language classroom.

Drawing on a theoretical background for support on the use of prompts as a form of CF, it is assumed that prompts derive theoretical support from Skill Acquisition Theory (Anderson, 1980, cited in Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p.10), the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), and Sociocultural Theory. Skill Acquisition Theory presumes that development of a second language involves progression to a more effortless, automatic stage of language production, which results from practice and the provision of feedback in communicative settings (Dekeyser, 2007), thus attributing a key role for CF in language development. The Output Hypothesis advocates the benefits of having learners 'pushed' to modify their language output, which is hypothesized by Swain (1985, 1995, 2005) to promote IL development.

Swain argues that when learners are pushed to modify their output, their linguistic abilities are stretched to the limit as they try to alter their production in order to deliver the correct message to their interlocutor, which can consequently improve their grammatical accuracy forcing learners 'to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing' (Swain, 1985, p.249). Lyster claims that pushed output engages learners in a process entailing the retrieval of internalized language forms allowing them to 'reanalyze what they have already internalized at some level and may thus contribute to a destabilization of IL forms' (Lyster, 2002, p.248). Furthermore, de Bot (1996), in his analysis of the output hypothesis, argued that learners' benefits are maximized when guided to retrieve TL forms, because 'retrieval and subsequent production can strengthen associations in memory' (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p. 11). Further support for the use of prompts comes from Sociocultural Theory, which highlights the importance of scaffolding, a notion referring to 'the gradual and step-by-step assistance offered by the teacher as needed' (Nassaji, 2016, p.528). Thus, from a sociocultural perspective, learning could be viewed as successful when learners move away from other-repair towards self-repair (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994) through the prompts offered by teachers guiding students to modify their output.

2.5.3 Studies on Corrective Feedback in Laboratory and Classroom Contexts

An increasing number of research studies have noted that the effectiveness of CF is significantly different between laboratory and classroom contexts. Li (2010), in a

meta-analysis of the effectiveness of CF, asserted that data from classroom and laboratory contexts produced different results and stated that 'lab-based studies yielded a substantially larger effect than classroom- or group-based studies' (p.345). This was attributed to the fact that classroom settings include several distractions and feedback might not be aimed at individual learners, thus, CF, of the implicit nature in particular, might not be easily identified by learners (Nicholas, Lighbown & Spada, 2001). Laboratory contexts, on the other hand, allow for the corrective intent behind feedback to be more easily perceived because the latter is provided on a one-to-one basis and focuses mainly on a single structure. One further advantage for laboratory settings, according to Li (2010), is that 'variables can be more easily controlled and the quality of treatment might be better than in the classroom' (p.345).

Similar to the above findings, Mackey and Goo (2007), in their meta-analysis of interaction research, concluded that laboratory-based research showed greater effect of CF than classroom-based studies. However, Gass, Mackey and Ross-Feldman (2005) reported no difference with regard to the effectiveness of feedback provided in either laboratory or classroom settings; their study compared learners participating in learner-learner interaction in both classroom and laboratory contexts.

As seen from the above reviewed literature, results from classroom and laboratory based research yields varying results concerning the effectiveness and the nature of

CF in both settings. In the following sections a more detailed discussion of CF effectiveness is presented, commencing with studies in laboratory settings and moving on to classroom research.

2.5.3.1 Laboratory Settings

As previously mentioned, variables can be more easily controlled in laboratory settings, as opposed to classroom settings; in addition, forms of CF can be used intensively, focusing on a specific language target. For the most part, laboratory studies investigating the use and effectiveness recasts, alone or in comparison to other forms of CF, have generally shown a positive relation between recasts and IL development.

In a study by Loewen and Nabei (2007) comparing the impact of various forms of CF in a Japanese EFL context, a researcher interacted with small groups of learners using meaning-focused activities which targeted question formation. The researchers contrasted the impact of using recasts, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, as well as no feedback. Results showed that all groups receiving CF outperformed the control group, yet, no significant difference was noted across the various groups receiving different forms of CF. Another study comparing the effects of different forms of feedback was conducted by Lyster and Izquierdo (2009). Participants were intermediate level adult L2 learners of French in an English medium university and the study investigated their acquisition of the French grammatical gender. Learners joined a prompt or a recast group and

engaged in one-to-one interactions with highly proficient speakers of French. Results showed that both groups manifested significant improvement. The researchers elaborate on the outcome explaining that consistent exposure to recasts presents learners with positive evidence, which eventually attracts their attention to the negative evidence underlying the provision of such feedback, while prompts repeatedly expose learners to negative evidence which eventually pushes them to modify their output.

In a study by Nassaji (2009), the impact of recasts and elicitations (prompts according to Lyster's classification), were investigated. The aim was to compare their effect on learning linguistic forms that occurred incidentally in dyadic task-based interaction with a native English language teacher. The adult ESL learners received several forms of recasts and elicitations following non target-like production. The effect of CF was measured through immediate and delayed (2 weeks) post-interaction tasks. Data reveals that identification and correction of non target-like utterances was higher following recasts than elicitation moves. Moreover, results suggest that the more explicit the feedback, be it recasts or elicitations, the higher chances there are for modified, target-like language reproduction.

Laboratory studies have also focused on the noticeability of recasts. A number of investigations have used techniques of stimulated-recall to examine learners' awareness of the intent behind CF. Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000), asked L2

learners to watch videotapes of their interaction with native speakers. While watching, students commented on their perception of the CF provided by the native speaker. Two important findings resulted, first, how accurate students' perceptions were dependent on the nature of the linguistic targets, second, the learners' perception of recasts as CF were far less than the native speaker had actually intended in the videotaped interaction. In another experiment by Carpenter *et al.* (2006), recasts were mostly perceived as non-corrective repetitions when learners watched video clips of a researcher interacting with a learner while using both recasts and non-corrective repetitions.

To sum up, studies conducted in laboratory settings deduced that recasts promoted L2 development. In addition, research comparing various forms of CF resulted in either recasts being more effective or proving no significant difference in the outcome across various CF types; moreover, it is suggested that the explicitness of the form of CF used plays an important role in the benefit acquired by the learner (Nassaji, 2009). In relation to noticing, recasts have proven to be more challenging when it comes to learners identifying the corrective intent behind such a form of CF.

2.5.3.2 Classroom Settings

As discussed above, laboratory-based research attributes an important role to recasts in language development. Classroom research, on the other hand, usually finds prompts to be more effective. Highlighting the importance of classroom-based research in examining OCF, R. Ellis, Loewen and Erlam argue that:

... from a pedagogical perspective, it is important to examine corrective feedback within the classroom context. We do not believe that it is easy to extrapolate the results obtained from laboratory studies that involve one-on-one interactions to classrooms in which the teacher interacts with the whole class. In our view, ecological validity can only be achieved through classroom-based research.

(R. Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006, p. 365)

A classroom study focusing on young learners of French in an immersion context was conducted by Lyster (2004). It concluded that prompts played a more prominent role, when compared to recasts, in acquiring grammatical gender. Several FFI conditions were examined through three teachers: a) recasts + FFI, b) prompts + FFI, c) FFI without feedback, while the same subject matter was taught by a fourth teacher without FFI. Results of pretests, immediate posttests and delayed posttests demonstrated that the condition where the teacher provided prompts during FFI had the highest effect in target acquisition at both post-tests. Partially replicating Lyster's (2004) research, Algarawi (2010) conducted a study involving adult EFL learners enrolled in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses, which were mainly form-oriented, in Saudi Arabia. He concluded that all students receiving CF, regardless of the type of CF, performed better in their written production of passive forms.

In a quasi-experimental classroom study, Ammar and Spada (2006) examined the potential benefits of prompts and recasts on acquiring *his* and *her* possessive determiners by ESL learners in Montreal. Intact grade six classes were assigned to a recast, a prompt, or a control group receiving no feedback. Both experimental

groups outperformed the control one. Comparison of the experimental groups showed that the prompt group performed better than the recasts one on posttests. It is noteworthy here that the higher level students benefited from both prompts and recasts, while the lower level ones benefited from prompts significantly more than recasts.

Yang and Lyster (2010) examined the impact of using prompts, recasts or providing no feedback on acquiring past tense regular and irregular verbs by tertiary EFL learners in China. Learners were assigned to a recast, a prompt, or a control group, and engaged in form-focused production activities. Pretests, immediate posttests and delayed posttests assessed learners' acquisition of the target forms for oral and written production. Results showed improvement in acquiring the regular past for the prompt group, as for the irregular past, recasts and prompts were similarly effective.

A study focusing on Iranian learners was conducted by Jafarigohar and Gharbavi (2014). It aimed at exploring whether the provision of recasts and prompts would have varying impact on the grammatical development of forty-five intermediate level Iranian learners of English randomly assigned to a prompt, a recast, or a control group. Data analysis of two pen and paper tests revealed that both recasts and prompts enhanced grammatical development; however, learners in the prompt group achieved higher than both recast and control groups.

As seen above, experimental classroom-based research confirms that the provision of OCF during classroom interaction is significantly more effective than no CF. In addition, results show that research focusing on the development of grammatical structures suggests a more positive impact of prompts over recasts in inducing language development in various instructional contexts.

R. Ellis (2012) advises that interpreting why one form of feedback leads to more gain than another is not easy to understand. He elaborates that the different OCF strategies are not as clear-cut as they are sometimes presented: 'Recasts, in particular, occur in many different forms. Prompts are a mixture of implicit and explicit strategies' (R. Ellis, 2012, p.263). Recasts are seen 'as being elastic in nature' (Mackey & Goo, 2007, p.413) since they occur in different manifestations. They have been considered, among other classifications, as implicit or explicit (Sheen & R. Ellis, 2011; Erlam & Loewen, 2010), interrogative or declarative (Loewen & Philp, 2010), and the various cues accompanying each type of recast are assumed to play a major role in the language gains related to their provision in the language classroom. As regards prompts, their variety and the different techniques used to provide negative evidence play an important role in their effectiveness (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Despite such variety, prompts are seen as a single strategy which mainly withholds target-like reformulations of learners' ill-formed utterances and encourages learners to self-correct.

It has been argued, and logically so, that for CF to have a positive influence on

learning, students need to recognize its corrective intent and accordingly notice the negative evidence presented within; thus the following section discusses the noticeability of CF. For the purpose of the present research, specific emphasis is put on uptake as evidence of such noticeability.

2.5.4 Noticeability of Corrective Feedback

The concept of noticeability in language learning stems from the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990). The Noticing Hypothesis stresses the importance of learners noticing the gap between their language production and the input language they receive. Such noticing might not only facilitate L2 learning, but is crucial for the latter to take place (*refer to section 2.2.3 above for details concerning the Noticing Hypothesis*).

Research has examined learners' noticing of the different forms of CF using various techniques, and one of those techniques is recall protocols. Two types of recall protocols have been employed; the first includes methods carried out during an activity, namely think-aloud or talk-aloud procedures, the second employs retrospective protocols, which involve thinking about an activity that was previously completed. The second protocol involves some form of stimulated recall, which can lead to retrospection through using video, audio or a written form of prompt. Another classification of recall protocols is related to their timing, which can be either retrospective or online. Retrospective protocols require learners to report on their thoughts after completing a task, while online measures focus on

getting learners to inform the researcher of their thoughts during or right after the activity is completed.

Another approach to investigating the noticeability of OCF is uptake, which is highlighted in more detail in the following section due to its relevance to the current investigation.

2.5.4.1 Uptake as a Measure of Noticing

With an intention of investigating the illocutionary force of the various OCF techniques and to classify the language output produced by learners as a response to the provision of CF, Lyster & Ranta (1997) used the term ‘uptake’, which was borrowed from speech act theory (Austin 1962). A rationale for using uptake has been its indication that the learners have perceived the feedback (e.g. Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Lyster & Ranta (1997) operationalized the term uptake as ‘a student’s utterance that immediately follows the teacher’s feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher’s intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student’s initial utterance’ (p.49).

Learners’ uptake following OCF was further categorized; in Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) taxonomy, uptake was classified as either ‘(a) uptake that results in “repair” of the error on which the feedback focused and (b) uptake that results in an utterance that still needs repair (coded as “needs-repair”)’ (p.49). The ‘repair’ category includes four subcategories outlined by Lyster and Ranta (1997, p.50):

'Repetition', 'Incorporation', 'Self-repair', and 'Peer-repair'. The first two follow the teachers' provision of recasts or explicit correction, while the other two refer to modified output following OCF which does not provide the correct forms for the learner, namely prompts. The following examples (Examples 7 – 10) are taken from data of the current study:

1. Repetition:

Example 7:

S: The much money I make.	
T: The MORE money...	[Feedback: recast]
S: The more money	[Repair: repetition]

2. Incorporation:

Example 8:

S: If there had less people, I go.	
T: If there had been	[Feedback: recast]
S: If there had been less people, I would have go and enjoy my time.	[Repair: incorporation]

3. Self-repair:

Example 9:

S: My car was been serviced yesterday afternoon.	
T: Was been?	[Feedback: repetition]
S: No, was being serviced.	[Self-repair]

4. Peer-repair:

Example 10:

S1: By tomorrow, I won't finishing my presentation.	
T: Won't finishing?	[feedback: repetition]
S2: Won't have finished.	[Peer-repair]

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997, pp.50-51), the 'needs-repair' category comprises 6 subcategories:

1. '*Acknowledgement*': refers to the learner's yes/no response following the feedback provided by the teacher.
2. '*Same error*': refers to the learner's repetition of the same error following the teacher's feedback.
3. '*Different error*': refers to the learner's uptake which contains a different error.
4. '*Off target*': refers to uptake which does not include errors, but avoids the linguistic focus of the teacher's feedback.
5. '*Hesitation*': refers to the learner's uncertainty when responding to feedback provided by the teacher.
6. '*Partial repair*': refers to the uptake which contains a partial correction of the original error.

Evidently, the needs-repair category presents an opportunity for additional feedback to be provided by the teacher and consequently allows the error treatment episode to go beyond the student-teacher-student (S-T-S) turn. The following example from the present study illustrates such a sequence:

Example 11:

S: Fruits are more healthier than fast food.	
T: More healthier?	[Feedback: repetition]
S: Yes, more healthier.	[Uptake: same error]
T: Do we say more healthier?	[Feedback: elicitation]
S:mmmm..... [silence]	[Hesitation]
T: Fruits are healthier.	[Feedback: recast]
S: Yes, healthier than.	[Uptake: Acknowledgment + repetition]

Presenting a more concise categorization of students' uptake and repair following the provision of OCF during dyadic task-based interaction, Nassaji (2007a, p.529) distinguishes three categories of repair: successful repair, partial repair and no repair. *Successful repair* resulted in accurate modification or correction of the erroneous output; *partial repair* presented partial correction of the erroneous utterance, and *no repair* resulted in no form of correction for the error. The *no repair* category included responses that incorrectly attempted to repair the original utterance, those that discarded the feedback, and those which simply acknowledged the content of the feedback with terms like 'yeah' 'ok'. Thus, Nassaji (2007) divided Lyster and Ranta's needs-repair classification into two categories, partial repair and no repair.

Several studies focused on uptake as a function of different types of OCF. Lyster and Ranta (1997) examined around 20 hours of classroom interaction between teachers, who were French-English bilinguals, and their students; six types of CF were identified. Data showed that although recasts were the most commonly used form of CF by teachers, they led to the least amount of uptake by learners (recasts added up to 55% of CF moves by teachers and resulted in the least amount of uptake, 31%). While other forms were used less by teachers, they all resulted in more uptake, with elicitation leading to uptake 100% of the time. Such high frequency of recasts and low percentage of ensuing uptake was reiterated in Lyster's following investigations (1998a, 1998b), as well as in other ESL classroom observation studies (e.g. Panova & Lyster, 2002). Such outcomes suggest an important role for the salience of OCF in

relation to noticing and learner uptake.

More recent studies corroborated the above findings. With the aim of describing and analyzing the patterns of CF provided by Iranian teachers, and learners' ensuing uptake and repair, Esmaeili and Behnam (2014) audiotaped and transcribed around 4 hours of interaction in an elementary EFL context. Analysis of data, based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy, showed recasts to be the most frequent CF form used; however, it did not induce a relatively high degree of uptake. On the other hand, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification requests triggered considerable levels of uptake. Results also showed that explicit feedback generally promoted more learner uptake than implicit feedback. Similar results were reported by Nikoupour and Zoghi (2014), who conducted an observational study in six classes with six different instructors and 60 intermediate level female students in Iran. While explicit correction and recasts were the prevailing forms of OCF, elicitation resulted in the greatest amount of uptake.

Despite the above results, other studies have reported considerably higher rates of uptake and repair following recasts. Sheen (2004) conducted an observational study investigating the provision of various forms of CF and the resulting uptake. She focused on four instructional settings, EFL in Korea, ESL in New Zealand, French immersion, and ESL in Canada. Results were mostly similar between the four contexts in relation to frequency of occurrence and resulting uptake; however, recasts led to more uptake in New Zealand and Korean educational contexts. The

reasons were attributed to the highly structured learning environment where students were accustomed to attending to linguistic form, which allows for the corrective intent of recasts to be more salient.

A substantial high percentage of uptake and repair was also reported in an ESL learning context (Oliver & Mackey, 2003), a Chinese as a FL classroom (Fu & Nassaji, 2016), and a Japanese immersion setting (Lyster & Mori; 2006) with relation to the provision of recasts. What these research contexts had in common, similar to Sheen (2004), was a more systematic focus on form during language instruction.

The above investigations demonstrate that learner uptake following OCF can be dependent on the context and the nature of the instructional setting in which feedback is provided. Focusing on recasts in specific, it could be assumed that the ambiguity of this OCF technique is the reason behind the scarcity of the ensuing uptake in content-based classrooms. Presenting a case for the ambiguity recasts, Lyster (1998a) reported in his findings that recasts and non-corrective repetitions are similar and were both used with a high frequency. Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada comment on the ambiguity of recasts explaining that:

...the classroom context (particularly the communicative and/or content-based classrooms) may make it difficult for learners to identify recasts as feedback on form and hence difficult for them to benefit from the reformulation that recasts offer. The exception may be some foreign language classrooms in which students' and teachers' focus is more consistently on the language itself.

(Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada, 2001, p.744)

Consequently, a focus on form in the language classroom is one of the factors that

might raise learners' awareness to the negative evidence provided by recasts.

Other factors identified as influencing the degree of learner uptake are nature and explicitness of CF, as well as opportunities for uptake. A low level of uptake was noticed by Oliver (1995) following recasts, specifically when students were not allowed the opportunity for uptake. Sheen (2006) noticed that the length of recasts was a predictor of learners' uptake; the shorter the recast the more possibility there was for uptake. Nassaji (2007a, 2011b) found that verbal and intonational prompts accompanying recasts and elicitation resulted in a considerable amount of uptake and repair, as opposed to forms of CF which included less explicit prompts or lacked any form of prompt (Appendix B).

Despite the numerous advocates for the benefits of uptake and the arguments that repair following OCF entails modifying language output, which can lead to language development, many researchers have argued that such assumptions do not provide enough evidence that immediate uptake and repair are predictors of language acquisition. It has also been argued that 'successful repair does not indicate that the learner has internalized the correct form' (Nassaji, 2016, p.542). Nassaji (2011b) argues that repair following the provision of CF might simply be an automatic echoing of the feedback. In this case it could be argued that although the learners have noticed the feedback, there is no proof that they have processed or learned from it. Yoshida (2010) reported in her results that although learners, in several instances, did respond to the CF provided by the teacher, they reported no noticing

of such CF. Thus, uptake is seen as problematic when measuring the noticeability of CF; however, it is still argued that immediate repair shows a form of awareness of the corrective intent behind feedback. Moreover, using uptake as evidence of noticing, despite arguments of not being an accurate measure, is worth further investigation, since it does not disrupt the flow of communication as other noticing protocols might do. Therefore, for the purpose of the present study, uptake is the measure employed to observe the noticeability of different OCF techniques and the accompanying verbal and intonational prompts.

2.6 Review of Teachers' Beliefs

The study of teacher beliefs has received a lot of attention in the field of educational research over the years. Despite a long history of investigation, it is still difficult for researchers to specify a clear definition of the term 'belief' (M. Borg 2001), the reason being that beliefs of teachers involve thought processes of an individual nature, which cannot be easily observed or measured. Consequently, there is no agreement with respect to defining beliefs, which makes investigating them a challenging endeavour.

Despite such lack of consensus on how to define beliefs, scholars constantly highlighted its importance over the past decades. Fang (1996) explains that no matter how beliefs are defined, they are held by all teachers regarding their students, their subject matter, and their responsibilities as educators. Basturkmen,

Loewen and R. Ellis (2004), M. Borg (2001) and Pajares (1992) present the view that teachers' behaviour regarding classroom practice is guided by their beliefs. On a more negative note regarding the role played by beliefs, Prawat (1992) explains that teachers' beliefs are generally not consistent with their approaches to teaching and learning. In this sense he argues that teachers can impede the educational process, and that teaching and learning will only significantly improve when teachers are willing to reflect on, and address the gap between their beliefs and classroom practice.

In the field of educational research, due to the difficulty in defining the construct of 'beliefs', researchers have generally opted for examining 'stated beliefs' expressed through data collection methods such as questionnaires and interviews. 'Stated beliefs' are defined by Basturkmen, Loewen and R. Ellis (2004) as 'statements teachers make about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what "should be done", "should be the case", and "is preferable"' (p. 244). Juxtaposing beliefs and stated beliefs, Kamiya (2014) acknowledges that the two might conflict. The reasons Kamiya suggests for such a conflict are teachers' hesitation in voicing beliefs which might not be in harmony with 1) the mainstream norms of society, 2) the standards adopted in the teachers' work context, and 3) the views assumed to be adopted by interviewers. In a research context, teachers can be inclined to conform to the researchers' norms and, consequently, express their beliefs in the form they believe the interviewer wants to hear. Hence comes the importance of classroom observations to contrast teachers' stated beliefs and their

classroom practice.

The following sections will focus on four major areas related to teachers' beliefs in terms of their relation to past learning experience, the extent to which teachers' beliefs are similar to or different from their actual classroom practice, the possibilities of change in relation to beliefs and practices, and finally the influence of teacher education and teaching experience on beliefs and practices.

2.6.1 The Relation between Past Learning Experience and Teachers' Beliefs

Among the factors investigated concerning teachers' beliefs are past experience in language learning. Kennedy (1990) argues that the early years teachers spend as students often result in the acquisition of certain teaching beliefs and practices that are quite difficult to alter. Klapper (2006) also states that 'beliefs are not formed overnight but develop gradually over many years and derive from a number of sources... [among which is] our own experience as learners' (p.18). He adds that 'our experience of learning a second language is likely to be unique to us, because of the type of teachers we ourselves had as learners, the context in which we were learning [and] how much formal grammar we learned' (p.15).

S. Borg (2009b) highlights how various investigations focused on the influence of previous learning experience on pre-service teachers. He refers to Lortie's notion of the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1997, cited in S. Borg, 2009b, p.164), which sheds light on how prior experiences of learning shape prospective teachers' beliefs about the teaching process, as well as their classroom practices, either

positively or negatively (S. Borg, 2009b; Legutke & Ditfurth, 2009). Farrell and Lim (2005) conducted a case study examining teachers' beliefs and classroom practice in a primary school in Singapore. Two teachers participated in the study and data were gathered through interviews and classroom observations. Both teachers expressed strong beliefs concerning the importance of grammar drills in the language classroom, although they had received training on different methodologies of grammar teaching. One of the reasons they stated for their beliefs was past learning experience as students from which they claimed to have highly benefited. A study showing a negative relation between past learning experience, and teachers' beliefs and classroom practice was conducted by Numrich (1996). The researcher analyzed reflective diaries from 25 inexperienced teachers of English, who were taking part in a 10-week practicum. Seven of the teachers expressed their unwillingness to correct their students' errors due to the former's negative experience of being humiliated when corrected by their teachers in the L2 classroom.

Hence, the above studies suggest that teachers can be influenced considerably by the way they had been taught, as well as avoid certain negative practices they had experienced as learners. Consequently, it could be stated that previous learning experiences are of considerable importance in the 'conceptualization of teaching and [the] development [of] tutors' (Klapper, 2006, p.20). It is worth mentioning at this point that basing some teaching practices on one's past learning experience models is not necessarily a negative thing. However, transferring such practices without engaging in any form of critical thinking in order to modify them based on

one's current teaching situation might prove inappropriate and non-conducive to the teaching-learning process. Therefore, teachers need to indulge in a form of reflection on what they consider as good or bad learning experiences in order to identify the positive and negative aspects of each and, accordingly, begin to develop their personal approach to teaching (Klapper, 2006). Although this notion of reflection as a form of professional development will be elaborated on later, it is worthy, before moving to the following section, to quote Bailey *et al.* on the notion of making conscious informed decisions:

We realize that we do have control over our own actions and beliefs. We may model our behavior after that of others, but it will be because we have made conscious, informed decisions to do so.

(Bailey *et al.*, 1996. p.16)

2.6.2 Do Teachers' Beliefs Vary from their Teaching Practices?

Prior investigations focusing on beliefs have shown how they influence behaviour. Pajares (1992) asserts that teachers' beliefs have a considerable effect on their awareness, behaviour, and the decisions they make while teaching. Klapper (2006) adds that 'beliefs are a key determining factor in language teachers' classroom practice' (p.18). In quite an expressive statement on the relation between beliefs and classroom practice Breen *et al.* (2001) have observed that beliefs 'influence how the teacher orchestrates the interaction between learner, teacher, and subject matter in a particular classroom context with particular resources' (p.473)

The complex nature of investigations focusing on beliefs and classroom practices

are manifested through the varying outcomes of research studies, which, in some cases, resulted in congruency between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices, and in numerous others showed either incongruency, or a mix of agreement and disagreement between beliefs and practices.

In cases of agreement between beliefs and classroom practices, a number of studies are worthy of discussing at this point. Bailey (1996) attempted to investigate the extent to which experienced teachers in USA, teaching ESL, diverged from the pre-designed lesson plans. Data was gathered using classroom observations, interviews and stimulated recalls. Bailey specified several decision-making principles the teachers were applying in order to: (a) promote students' involvement, (b) accommodate students' learning styles, (c) further the lesson, (d) teach to the moment, and (e) serve the common good to distribute the wealth. Analysis of the data showed that teachers' classroom decisions were affected by their beliefs concerning language teaching.

Focusing on a different teaching context, that of a biology class, Hsiao-Ching (2000) concluded that the classroom practices of the teacher reflected her teaching philosophy, which was voiced during interviews conducted prior to and throughout the class observation period. Firstly, she expressed a belief that boys were more capable in the study of science, which was reflected in her frequent interaction with boys rather than girls. Secondly, her belief in the importance of interaction and posing questions to students throughout the lesson was clearly reflected in

classroom practice.

On the other hand, the beliefs and practices relation might differ showing various degrees of incongruency. Basturkmen, Loewen and R. Ellis (2004) examined the relation between beliefs and practices of three ESL teachers, with varying teaching experiences, with regard to incidental focus on form. Data collected using interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recalls, and cued response scenarios demonstrated inconsistencies among teachers' practices and beliefs. All three teachers provided feedback during language-related episodes, although they believed in meaning-oriented CF. Discrepancies between beliefs and practice were also noticed regarding forms of CF used and timing of CF. Such inconsistencies were more frequently noticed with the inexperienced teacher than the experienced ones. The reasons suggested by the researchers were that technical knowledge acquired by teachers at an early stage of their teaching career might become proceduralized as they gain more experience, consequently, discrepancies between stated beliefs and actual classroom practice could decrease by time. Basturkmen (2012), in her research review focusing on the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices, corroborated the above by stating that 'More experienced teachers are likely to have more experientially informed beliefs than relative novices, and principles or beliefs informed by teaching experiences might be expected to correspond clearly with teaching practices' (p.288).

Another study showing discrepancies between beliefs and practices of inexperienced teachers was conducted by M. Borg (2005). She reports on a case study of a pre-service trainee ESL teacher taking the CELTA course. Data gathered using interviews, observations, and questionnaires showed two main inconsistencies between beliefs and classroom practice. Of interest to the present study, is the teacher's use of CF. Although she expressed the importance of tactfulness and sensitivity while providing CF, in order to try and avoid any awkwardness, she repeatedly replied with 'no' following the errors made by students.

Focusing on teachers' beliefs concerning CF, and whether such beliefs are consistent with classroom practice, several investigations were conducted focusing on university level teachers (e.g. Dong, 2012; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014). Data collection methods ranged between interviews, stimulated recall and cued responses, as well as classroom observations. All of the above studies showed both congruency and incongruency when juxtaposing beliefs and classroom practices. Below is a discussion of two studies and an analysis of any commonalities between them.

Dong (2012) explored the beliefs about oral CF and the actual practices of two teachers of Chinese at a U.S. university summer programme. On the one hand, results showed consistency regarding implicit CF. Both teachers expressed their preference of implicit CF, and classroom observations reflected regular provision of

recasts. On the other hand, inconsistencies were manifested when both teachers stated they would encourage self-repair, while both mostly used recasts.

Kamiya (2014) investigated the relationship between stated beliefs and practices of four ESL teachers about teaching and oral CF; the results mostly demonstrate consistency between beliefs and practices. The teacher with the least experience had no substantial knowledge concerning oral CF; as for the remaining teachers they had reported diverse levels of beliefs. They expressed the importance of creating a comfortable learning environment; accordingly, they avoided the use of explicit CF and preferred recasts, for fear of embarrassing students. In spite of the overall agreement between practice and beliefs, one teacher with considerable experience demonstrated incongruency. Despite dismissing the value of CF, he provided lots of recasts during classroom practice. Such an observation is contrary to Basturkman's (2012) statement above that accumulation of teaching experience could lead to more correspondence between teacher beliefs and classroom practice.

The above studies present inconsistencies between beliefs and practices in two areas: 1) although some teachers express preference for pushing learners to self-correct, they end up using recasts (Dong, 2012; Basturkmen, Loewen, & R. Ellis, 2004); 2) while a number of teachers did not acknowledge the importance of CF while stating their beliefs, classroom observations revealed the provision of some form of CF, mainly recasts (Kamiya, 2014). Li (2017) suggests the reason behind the later inconsistency might be that those teachers who provided recasts, despite not

believing in the value of CF, 'may have discounted recasts as CF, assuming that CF means explicit correction' (p.154); as is the case with the novice teacher in Kamiya (2014) who explained that she was not clear about how to provide OCF, but ended up using it nine times during the lesson, eight of which were recasts. The above survey suggests an importance for introducing teachers at an early stage to the various forms of CF and its uses in the language classroom.

Some conceivable reasons could be deduced from research regarding the incongruency between beliefs and practice. Lamie (2004) highlighted these reasons as external institutional factors, such as college exams, which force teachers to abandon their beliefs; S. Borg (2003a) asserts that ' social, psychological and environmental realities of the school and classroom.....[may].....hinder language teachers' ability to adopt practices which reflect their beliefs' (p. 94). Another reason for the inconsistency between beliefs and practice was highlighted by Phipps and S. Borg (2007), who argued that a change in beliefs can occur without corresponding alteration in classroom practice, and the opposite might also happen. In their study focusing on two EFL teachers in Turkey, results showed that both teachers highlighted the importance of explicit CF; however, classroom practice revealed that one of them would not use it due to lack of confidence and for fear of hurting learners' feelings. As for the other, despite providing CF during classroom interaction, she was not entirely confident due to concerns about how her students would react. Another study by Phipps and Borg (2009) focused on grammar teaching and examined the discrepancies between beliefs and practices of

experienced teachers in an EFL context. Data analysis indicated differences between beliefs and practice resulting from students' expectations and their preferences, as well as classroom management issues.

The above studies present a brief review of some of the external factors that can lead to inconsistencies between teacher beliefs and classroom practice. The following section will discuss the possibilities of change in teachers' beliefs and classroom practices, and if such change is possible, through what means it can take place.

2.6.3 To What Extent can Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practice Change?

Referring to the time spent by teachers in the 'apprenticeship of observation' as learners, Klapper (2006) explains that 'this inculcates certain implicit models of teaching, with the result that most teachers find it difficult to alter their pedagogical practices and seldom teach as they have been trained to' (p. 20). This suggests that achieving a degree of change in teachers' beliefs and classroom practices is a cumbersome task, even if such change is based on experience and is 'logical or necessary' (Pajares, 1992). A rationale behind this difficulty might be deduced from Pennington's investigation of eight experienced teachers, she argues that:

Teachers change in areas they are already primed to change, and this priming depends on their individual characteristics and prior experiences, which shape their view of their classroom, their students and themselves as teachers.

(Pennington, 1996, p. 340)

This indicates that change is quite individualistic and varies from one teacher to the other. Pennington (1996) elaborates that the influence on teachers' behaviour can occur 'only in areas where the input is valued and salient to the individual, and where it is congruent with, and interpretable within, the teacher's own world of thought and action' (p. 340). She elaborates on the distinction between intake and input, and how intake results from 'accessible input' (ibid). Pennington refers to accessible input as the knowledge teachers are ready to attend to. Although the kind of knowledge to be processed might differ from one individual to another, it will most likely promote some form of change in either the short or the long run.

Previous investigations have suggested several factors that can influence change in teachers. S. Borg (1999a, 1999c) focused on teacher experience and highlighted three factors influencing teachers' cognition and beliefs. Borg listed these factors as: a) schooling, referred to in relation to teachers' past experience as L2 learners, b) teacher education, referring to any work done in preparation for a future career in teaching, and c) classroom experience, which is hands on experience gained through actual classroom teaching. Brown and Cooney (1982), cited a list of factors similar to the above, using different terms (Van Fleet, 1979, in Brown & Cooney, 1982): enculturation (learning experience gained as a student), education (experience gained as a teacher), schooling (teacher education as part of professional development). Brown and Cooney (1982) argue that education and enculturation had the stronger effect on beliefs, in comparison to schooling, since the former takes place in a classroom learning/teaching environment. Arguing for the role played by

enculturation, Klapper (2006), claims that when teachers are faced with critical situations during classroom practice, and especially if they have not undergone suitable training, they are 'likely to revert.....to classroom approaches they themselves experienced as learners ...[because]... in such circumstances it is natural to look, almost instinctively, to one's own time as a learner for pedagogical models' (pp. 20-21).

Research has shown that teacher beliefs and classroom practices are dynamic. They could constantly change, although the pace of such change might differ from one teacher to another. An example for such varying change is shown in a study conducted by Mattheoudakis (2007) who investigated pre-service EFL teacher beliefs about learning and teaching in Greece. The researcher tracked changes in teachers' beliefs over the course of a 3-year teaching programme, exploring the impact of teaching practice in particular. Data were gathered using the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) (Horwitz, 1988), which was administered prior to and following completion of the programme. The results indicate a gradual, rather than a sudden, development in student teachers' beliefs during the three-year programme. Commenting on the outcomes of the study, Mattheoudakis (2007) claimed that the development of beliefs is a progressive process since change would probably happen over time through gathering and integrating knowledge.

Kennedy (1991) sheds light on what can alter teachers' beliefs and practices. He explains that 'teachers.....interpret new content through their existing

understandings and modify and reinterpret new ideas on the basis of what they already know or believe' (p.2). This coincides with the concepts of *assimilation* and *accommodation* discussed by Roberts (1998):

New inputs and experiences may affect the person's construction of the world in two ways. If they interpret the input to fit with their existing knowledge, then they are engaged in assimilation. If they revise their knowledge to take the input into account, then they are involved into accommodation.

(Roberts, 1998, pp. 23-24)

Hence, new content is filtered through each teacher's individual beliefs system, allowing for it to be absorbed, interpreted, and possibly reflected in teaching practices.

Kennedy (1999) presented a number of strategies which could change teacher behaviour. Of interest to the present investigation are: '[1] rational approaches (information-giving); and [2] cognitive strategies (enabling individuals to reflect on and evaluate what they are doing and engaging with attitudes and beliefs)' (p.vii). Kennedy (1999) elaborated that for teachers to successfully attempt a change in classroom practice, cognition and perceptions need to change; one apparent means of influencing cognition is teacher education and training.

2.6.4 The Influence of Teacher Education and Training on Change of Beliefs and Practices

Klapper (2006) stresses 'the important cognitive side of teacher learning' (p.25); such cognition could be developed through education and training. Crandall (2000)

states that teacher education could lead to a change in teachers' beliefs and practices. He elaborates that change is likely to take place when teacher education programmes help trainees develop an awareness of learning and present them with ample opportunities for practice and conscious reflection on such practice. Nevertheless, several investigations have shown conflicting outcomes concerning change resulting from teacher education.

Focusing on six teachers completing a DELTA (Diploma in English language teaching to adults) course, S. Borg (2011) gathered data using interviews and questionnaires. Data analysis showed that only some teachers exhibited a change in beliefs. M. Borg (2005) investigated the beliefs and practices of a trainee ESL teacher during a CELTA course. The researcher reported that the trainee's practice concerning saying 'no' to her students' in response to their errors changed; however, some other stated beliefs remained consistent.

Reasons for the above diverse outcomes were discussed by Rankin and Becker (2006) stating that change which might take place following some form of teacher education or teacher training would probably not happen immediately. While attending to the newly acquired knowledge, teachers have to sift through existing convictions and experiences that have developed over time, making the shift in beliefs and teaching practices a demanding process.

To examine how trainee teachers (n=381) completing an SLA course altered their beliefs, Busch (2010) used BALLI (Horwitz, 1988). The trainee teachers were

tutoring ESL students; however, the course mainly focused on theory and research. Some of the findings, those related to CF, show a shift in the way teachers viewed errors as an integral part of the language learning process. However, worthy to mention is that this area of error correction was covered as part of the course. In addition, the researcher was the trainee teachers' instructor; accordingly, it would be viable to wonder whether the trainee teachers recounted what they thought their instructor wanted to hear. In an earlier study exploring trainee teachers' beliefs about second language learning, Brown and McGannon (1998, cited in Peacock, 2001) recruited 35 participants enrolled in a GDE (Graduate Diploma in Education). The study focused on examining the influence of Lortie's 'apprenticeship of observation' (explained earlier) on teachers' beliefs. Prior to and following the completion of a teaching practicum, participants completed a survey comprised of 12 statements. The second survey presented some changes from the first one, notably in the area of CF.

Other studies focused on the development of beliefs and practices for experienced language teachers. Lamie (2004) wanted to trace such development in Japanese high school teachers of English who were attending the Japanese Secondary Teachers' Programme. Data from classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews showed that the teachers' beliefs and classroom practices reflected some principles of the CLT approach, the main emphasis of the course. However, analysis of the whole data revealed that such change was not constantly noticeable in their classes.

In the study focusing on CF by Numrich (1996), two things might have changed some of the teachers' beliefs and practices during a 10-week teaching practicum. Some teachers realized students' need for CF, as the latter explicitly asked for it. In addition, teachers were instructed, as part of the practicum, to focus on their colleagues' provision of CF during classroom observations. These two factors have probably raised teachers' awareness to the importance and uses of CF, which was the reason why some started using CF during the course of the practicum.

A study employing nine postgraduate (MA & PhD) students, some practising and some prospective language teachers, was conducted by Vásquez and Harvey (2010). They reported a case study examining the developing thoughts and beliefs of the participants about CF, brought about by partially replicating Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study. The study aimed at discovering the extent to which participation in this classroom-based replication would affect the participants' thoughts and beliefs. The trainee teachers recorded a lesson, transcribed data, coded instances of provision of CF, and reported on their findings. Analysis of the data demonstrated a shift in several CF related ideas throughout the semester. The teachers also stated that participation in this research project would result in changes in their future teaching practice as well.

The above studies show degrees of change following various forms of teacher education and training. In contrast, other studies deduced that education and training through reading academic articles (Kamiya & Loewen, 2014), theoretical

coursework (Lo, 2005), or training courses which lacked a reflective teaching component (Kubanyiova, 2006), might still not result in a change in teachers' beliefs or practices. Reasons for this might be, as suggested by Kennedy (1990), that we spend thousands of hours during our years as learners experiencing and internalizing various forms of teaching practices which would not be easily changed by relatively short teacher training and teacher education programmes. As Clark (1988) claims, such deep-rooted beliefs and practices will not be superseded by merely employing the standard approaches of lecturing, discussing, practicing, and evaluating which are adopted in a number of training programmes. What could be a catalyst for development, as Busch (2010) has observed, is 'professional coursework which includes experiential and reflective activities [that] seems to have a stronger effect on the development of beliefs systems' (p.319). Hence, 'knowledge obtained must be processed and consolidated through reflective activities and proceduralized through hands-on practice activities in order for systematic and substantial changes to occur in teacher trainees' belief systems' (Li, 2017, p.152), which would eventually reflect in their teaching practice.

2.7 Learner Beliefs

After reviewing one side of the beliefs coin, teachers' beliefs and how they influence the teaching process, it is necessary to review the other side of the coin, learners' beliefs. Investigation of learners' beliefs is deemed significant since they are perceived as substantial characteristics 'to count with when explaining learning

outcomes' (Dörnyei, 2005, p.214). Hosenfeld (1978, cited in R. Ellis, 2008) states that beliefs are an important part of the 'mini theories' formed by learners with regard to learning a second language, which influence both the process and product of learning.

As discussed in the previous sections, the concept of beliefs has generally been a difficult one to define, and numerous definitions have been introduced in an attempt to clarify what learner beliefs are. Two of those, which I find enlightening and relevant to the current investigation, are 'beliefs as preconceptions language learners have about learning a language' (Huang, 1997, cited in Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017, p.79), and beliefs as 'a group of norms or opinions which were formed in the individual through his experiences and the overlapping of thoughts during the learning processes' (Ford, 1994, in Khader, 2012, p.77). The latter definition in specific highlights the relation between past learning experience and the formation of beliefs.

With the difficulty in defining beliefs as a construct, other terms came to be used interchangeably and it is worthy to highlight them at this point, those are: attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs. Concerning 'attitudes' and 'beliefs', Dörnyei (2005) differentiated between the two concepts. He viewed beliefs as having 'stronger factual support' with the possibility of change, and regarded attitudes as 'deeply embedded and.....rooted back in our past' (ibid, p.214). Dörnyei's view attests to the claim that beliefs are 'dynamic and situated' (R. Ellis, 2008, p.8). Such a potential for

change has been investigated extensively and will be discussed later on.

As for 'perceptions', Gagné (1979, cited in Kartchava, 2012) explains that they represent processes which help individuals become conscious of any occurring events or surrounding objects. Since Anderson (1985) defines beliefs, from the perspective of cognitive psychology, as manifestations of a reality that guide thought and behaviour, human perception could be seen as influenced by beliefs which affect how different events in life are perceived and acted upon. Accordingly, it could be assumed that beliefs affect what we feel, know and do.

For the purpose of examining student beliefs, the same definition presented earlier for teachers' beliefs will be employed, as 'statements teachers [and students] make about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what "should be done", "should be the case", and "is preferable"' (Basturkmen, Loewen & R. Ellis, 2004, p.244).

2.7.1 Means of Investigating Learner Beliefs

A number of approaches could be employed to investigate learners' beliefs about learning. Three of those approaches were highlighted by Barcelos (2003). The 'normative approach', which views beliefs as 'preconceived notions, myths or misconceptions' (p.11). It assumes that beliefs are general and fixed, disputing their dynamic nature, and uses Likert-scale questionnaires, such as BALLI, to study them. BALLI (Horwitz 1988) was developed to 'assess student opinions on a variety of issues and controversies related to language learning' (Horwitz, 1988, p. 284).

Despite negating the dynamic and contextual nature of beliefs through using predetermined items set by the researcher, and in doing so, not allowing respondents to express all their beliefs about language learning, the use of questionnaires on a large scale can still assume a degree of generalizability which might be relevant to wider contexts.

The second is the 'metacognitive approach'. This approach assumes that learners' beliefs constitute 'theories in action' (Wenden, 1999) which help them reflect on their cognitive processes and express their beliefs. The type of data gathered is verbal accounts collected through semi-structured interviews and/or self-reports, and examined using content analysis. Apparently, claims of generalizability are limited when using the 'metacognitive approach; however, reflection allows learners to become conscious of their learning strategies and beliefs, which might aid in the development of the learning process (Bernat and Gvozdenko, 2005).

A third approach is the 'contextual' one. It claims that beliefs vary depending on context. Accordingly, it proposes various means for collecting data and diverse methods for analyzing such data (R. Ellis, 2008), viewing beliefs in students' own terms. Barcelos (2003) states that one of the advantages of this approach is 'present[ing] a much more positive view of learners.....by portraying them as social beings interacting in their environment' (p.25) and taking into account the 'experience-based nature of beliefs' (p.26).

After reviewing the above approaches, it becomes evident that the methodology applied for researching learner beliefs is contingent on the aim behind the research and the questions it aims to find an answer for. A lot of the investigations conducted in the field of learner beliefs focused on the types of learner beliefs, the sources of such beliefs, as well as their dynamic nature.

2.7.2 Focuses of Research into Learner Beliefs

2.7.2.1 Types of Learner Beliefs

Following the 'normative approach', Horwitz (1987, cited in R. Ellis, 2008, p.8) administered the BALLI to a group of learners. Five major areas emerged: '1) difficulty of language learning; 2) foreign language aptitude; 3) the nature of language learning; 4) learning and communication strategies; and 5) motivation and expectations' (Horwitz, 1988, p.284). Based on these outcomes, the researcher stated that learners from various linguistic and cultural environments shared some beliefs about learning. Wenden (1999), employing a metacognitive approach, presented three other categories of learner beliefs while focusing on advanced-proficiency adult learners: (1) the best means of utilizing language, (2) significance of acquiring knowledge about the structure of the language, and (3) significance of individual learning characteristics (such as aptitude for learning). The two investigations, Horwitz (1987) and Wenden (1999), revealed some widespread concepts related to learner beliefs, of those is the significance of focus on grammar for language learning. Findings from Schulz (2001) reflected similar beliefs.

Colombian FL students (n=607) and U.S. FL students (n=824) completed a questionnaire. This questionnaire elicited highly similar awareness with regard to the significance of error correction and the explicit teaching of grammar.

Rather than simply listing different types of beliefs, other research attempted to classify beliefs and draw a link with metacognitive knowledge. Higher order 'conceptions' and lower-order 'beliefs' were introduced by Benson and Lor (1999) as representations of learner thinking. 'Conceptions' are defined as being 'concerned with what the learner thinks the objects and processes of learning are' whereas beliefs are 'what the learner holds to be true about these objects and processes' (ibid, p. 464). Conducting their study in Hong Kong and focusing on students at the tertiary level, Benson and Lor examined the participants' feedback concerning a programme which focused on advancing independent learning skills. The results suggest that the beliefs and conceptions learners have about a language and how to learn that language could have an analytic or an experiential nature. These are not necessarily mutually exclusive as learners usually hold a mixed set of both. Such results present a justification for employing both quantitative and qualitative methods when attempting to investigate learners' beliefs.

2.7.2.2 Sources of Learner Beliefs

Another focus of research into learner beliefs is investigating the sources of such beliefs. Two of the main sources that emerged in the literature are past experience and culture. Highlighting the importance of past learning experiences, Klapper

argues:

One of the most important principles of all teaching is to start from where the students are, to build on their strengths and their weaknesses, in order to do this effectively we must understand their previous learning experiences.

(Klapper, 2006, p. 72)

Little and Singleton (1984, cited in R. Ellis, 2008) reported on a study in which they surveyed learning beliefs of language students, both undergraduate and graduate, in Dublin. Outcomes suggested that previous learning experiences influenced participants' beliefs in relation to their current language-learning situation. This was clear in their preferences regarding the activities they wanted to engage in while learning. They preferred production activities, such as speaking and writing, to receptive activities, such as listening and reading. The researchers claimed that this was probably related to the nature of the instruction they had received before.

Concerning the role of culture in shaping learners' beliefs, research has yielded different outcomes. Some studies have not shown an evident connection linking learner beliefs to the encompassing culture. In her review of the research into L2 beliefs, Horwitz (1999) argued that there was not enough proof supporting the claim that the beliefs held by learners differed systematically based on cultural background. In the study conducted by Schulz (2001), limited cultural differences were detected between American and Colombian students. In the Colombian context, 97% of the students wanted more feedback to be provided by teachers, while 90% of the American students expected it. The differences reported were

mainly between teachers and students, regardless of the context. Teachers did not share their students' inclination towards the importance of grammar instruction and error correction.

Other studies, however, suggested a role played by culture in shaping beliefs about language learning. A study focusing secondary school students, 315 Japanese and 248 Australian, was conducted by Prudie, Hattie and Douglas (1996). It aimed at examining the differences between both groups' beliefs about learning and the extent to which they employ self-regulated learning strategies. Results showed both to have different conceptions; while Australian students had a narrow, school dependent perception, Japanese students had a broader perspective, viewing learning as a lifelong, experiential process leading to self-fulfillment.

Another study by Abd Majid (2008) used interviews to explore how cultural values affected the perceptions of three successful postgraduate learners in the Malaysian education context. Through analyzing the data, three cultural values emerged; relationship-oriented, religious and, collectivistic. The researcher claims that these findings have implications for understanding how cultural values may shape adult Malay students' views on learning.

2.7.2.3 The Nature of Learner Beliefs

R. Ellis (2008) has attested to the 'dynamic and situated' (p.8) nature of learner beliefs. Such a claim of beliefs being situation specific and constantly changing has been explored through various investigations. Kern (1995) administered the BALLI

at the start and the end of a 15-week study semester. Considerable change in learning beliefs was reported amongst undergraduate students (n=180) in the U.S. studying first year level French. A shift in beliefs was quite evident with regards the extent to which error correction affected language learning, suggesting that students had become more aware of their errors and found it difficult to avoid them. There was also a change in learners' responses related to the role of grammar in learning a FL, with 32% exhibiting higher levels of agreement and 20% lower levels.

In a more recent study, Peng (2011) examined the shift in a first-year college student's beliefs about language teaching and learning since the time of enrolment. Qualitative data were collected over seven months. Results demonstrated that the student's beliefs were considerably altered after moving from school to the new learning context of college language classrooms. The researcher claims that findings demonstrated the 'emergent, dynamic, and context-responsive' (Peng, 2011, p.314) nature of learner beliefs which could be explored using an ecological theoretical framework.

In a longitudinal case study, Zhong (2015) investigated shifts in the learning strategies and beliefs of two learners emigrating to New Zealand from China. Data gathered using triangulation exhibited a shift in learning beliefs from an initially analytical approach, to a more experiential one, based on the approaches adopted in the New Zealand teaching context. Moreover, learners developed beliefs concerning the role of collaborative learning; in addition, they employed social learning

strategies, which were not previously attempted in China. Hence, the results suggest an intricate relationship between learners' beliefs and learning strategies, indicating a certain dependency of the L2 learning strategies on beliefs or changed beliefs.

In another study examining Iranian university students' beliefs about language learning using Horwitz's BALLI, Fazilatfar *et al.* (2015) examined the shift in learners' beliefs over a semester. Results revealed a positive attitude on the students' side regarding learning the English language since it improves their chances of getting a good job. Another change in beliefs occurred with relation to the difficulty of learning the English language. At the beginning of the term, fewer than a third of the students considered English to be a difficult language; however, by the end of the term, more than 50% of the students were of the same conviction. The researcher warns that these findings should alert teachers to gear their teaching approach towards students' realistic beliefs about language learning in order to achieve better outcomes throughout the course of the term.

The above investigations reveal the high possibility of change in learner beliefs over time as a result of various factors. In addition, data gathered through qualitative and quantitative methods show different aspects of change in beliefs, which indicates the importance of using both approaches concurrently while examining changes in beliefs in order to capture a more in-depth picture of the whole process.

2.8 Teacher and Learner Beliefs Concerning the Provision of Corrective Feedback

Since beliefs affect learners' actions with regard to improving L2 learning (Khong, 2015), such beliefs should not be disregarded by language instructors. As illustrated so far, beliefs can strongly influence teachers' and students' classroom actions. In case of disagreement between teachers' and learners' belief systems, disruption might occur in the teaching-learning process. R. Ellis (2008) explains that 'little learning is likely if there is a mismatch between the teacher's and the students' belief systems' (p.24), which might affect the motivation learners have for learning the language, as well as their confidence in the teacher's professional expertise (R. Ellis, 2008; Schulz, 1996). With regard to teachers, 'misunderstandings about beliefs could lead to frustration, which could result in misguided methodology' (Kartchava, 2012, p.109). This factor of agreement between teachers' and learners' beliefs is essential when considering the role of CF during instruction in the language classroom.

Attempting to clarify what CF beliefs are, Li (2017) explains that they 'refer to the attitudes, views, opinions, or stances learners and teachers hold about the utility of CF in second language (L2) learning and teaching and how it should be implemented in the classroom' (p.143). Li states a number of reasons concerning the utility of examining CF-related beliefs. First, that the extent to which CF is effective might depend on learners' receptivity and positive attitude. Secondly, comparing student and teacher beliefs is important since mismatches might lead to dissatisfaction and

demotivation on the students' side. Thirdly, knowledge about the stakeholders' beliefs presents an insight concerning the extent their views agree with or digress from what has been previously concluded about the effectiveness of CF and its classroom occurrences.

One important dimension focused on in relation to CF beliefs sheds light on how learners and teachers view CF. This can be approached based on the five questions Hendrickson (1978) formulated in relation to how errors should be corrected in a foreign language teaching context, these are: '1) Should learner errors be corrected? 2) When should learner errors be corrected? 3) Which learner errors should be corrected? 4) How should learner errors be corrected? 5) Who should correct learner errors?' (p. 389).

2.8.1 Should Errors be Corrected?

Research into the provision of CF has shown that a considerable number of instructors either resort to recasts or avoid correction as a whole. In the majority of cases, teachers cite their apprehension regarding communication breakdowns or the potential negative outcomes, which might result from the provision of CF, with regards motivation and learners' willingness to participate in classroom interaction. On the other hand, studies focusing on language anxiety demonstrate that learners are usually receptive and welcoming of feedback on their performance (Schulz, 1996, 2001; Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Moreover, studies conducted on both foreign (e.g. Schulz, 1996; 2001) and second language learners (e.g. Chenoweth *et al.*, 1983)

have shown a tendency on students' part to understand and acknowledge the effectiveness of CF on language learning.

In an earlier study, Schulz (1996) used a questionnaire to explore teachers' and learners' attitudes towards explicit grammar instruction and CF. Responses of teachers (n=92) and American FL students (n=824) were compared. Opinions relating to the importance of written CF were very close (93% for teachers and 97 % for students), while responses concerning OCF varied considerably, with students welcoming OCF (90%), and the majority of teachers not recognizing its importance (70%). Administering the same questionnaire in a follow-up study to teachers (n=122) and their Colombian foreign language students (n=607) presented similar results. The data showed a high percentage of agreement on the students' side concerning the benefits of OCF (97% of 607 students), while a large number of teachers (61% of 122 teachers) expressed their disagreement. Such cross-cultural agreement on students' side concerning the importance of CF attests to its role in language learning, which made Schulz (2001) warn that 'If teacher behaviors do not mesh with student expectations, learner motivation and a teacher's credibility may be diminished.' (p.256).

In a review by Li (2017) focusing on teacher and learner beliefs about CF, he cited several survey studies which included data about students' views concerning the importance of CF. His aggregation of the results of several of those studies (Agudo, 2015; Davis, 2003; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996, 2001) showed the positive attitude

learners had towards CF: the mean agreement rate he reported for the importance of CF was 89%. In another study, Lee (2013) also presented evidence of advanced learners' positive attitude toward the provision of CF. The mean score reported for the survey questionnaire item addressing CF importance was 4.43 out of 5 (88.6%).

Concerning teachers' views regarding the importance of CF, results showed a certain lack of enthusiasm, as highlighted in Schulz (1996, 2001) above. Combining the results of seven related investigations (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Agudo, 2014; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Bell, 2005; Davis, 2003; Schulz, 1996, 2001) shows only 39% of participants agreeing to the importance of CF. Nevertheless, closer examination of each study presents varying results. Teacher agreement rates differed starting with 30% (Schulz, 1997) and reaching 83% (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010). Suggestion for these discrepancies might relate to: 1) focus of the studies, as Gurzynski-Weiss's and Rahimi & Zhang's studies focused mainly on CF which might have raised teachers' awareness to its importance, 2) teaching experience, in Rahimi & Zhang teachers with more experience had a more positive attitude of CF than less experienced ones (90% vs. 75%). Moreover, the less experienced teachers expressed more concern regarding students' motivation and confidence in relation to the provision of CF.

2.8.2 Timing for the Provision of Corrective Feedback

Two aspects could be discussed in relation to the timing of CF: immediate versus delayed and online versus offline. The former relates to whether error correction

should immediately follow the introduction of a new linguistic item, or should be delayed sometime after, and the latter refers to whether error correction should be provided during an oral activity or after its completion.

Focusing on learners' beliefs regarding the provision of immediate correction, results from two studies, Davis (2003) and Brown (2009), show that learners prefer an immediate correction to their errors. In Davis (2003), 86.6% (n=97) EFL learners agreed to a questionnaire statement focusing on the immediate correction of errors to avoid faulty language acquisition. In Brown (2009), the mean score of the students (n=1,409) who agreed to a statement asking whether good teachers should delay the correction of errors was 2.12 out 4 (53%), indicating a higher preference for immediate correction.

Concerning learners' views in relation to online and offline CF, Harmer (2007, reported in Li, 2017) conducted a survey for which 62% of the respondent preferred to receive CF right after the error was made. Lynch (2009) conducted a study with 60 postgraduate students attending a British university. He aimed at providing CF through presenting learners with a sample performance (through an audio recording or a transcript) after completion of an activity, to attract their attention to the gap between their language production and the provided model. The majority preferred the model to be presented after the completion of the activity rather before it.

Regarding teachers' beliefs about CF timing, several investigations did not show

preferences for immediate CF. In Davis (2003), 33.3% (n=18), showed agreement to the questionnaire item stating that 'Students' errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits'. When Brown (2009) analyzed teachers' responses to the item suggesting that teachers should not provide immediate correction, the mean score was 3.13 out of 4 (78.25%), which was quite different from the results of students' responses to the same item (discussed above) presenting a mean score of 2.12 (53%). Referring to what might influence teachers' preferences concerning the timing of CF, Kartchava (2006) suggests background knowledge and teaching experience, since pre-service teachers who had no theoretical language acquisition knowledge were more inclined to stay away from immediate CF than others with more knowledge.

Aiming at teachers' preferences concerning online and offline feedback, research results show several factors at play. Two of the teachers participating in Roothoof's (2014) study on the relationship between teachers' OCF in the classroom and their beliefs explained in their responses to open-ended questions that feedback timing usually relates to the type of error, whether impeding communication or not. In the study by Rahimi and Zhang (2015) investigating non-native English teachers' perceptions about CF during oral communication, one of the teachers indicated in a follow-up interview that provision of immediate error correction would be necessary in case the error impeded communication, related to the target of the lesson, or was a recurrent error. Thus, studies show that teachers' opinions about the timing of OCF might be affected by several factors, which warrants deeper

investigation into the issue.

2.8.3 Which Errors need Correction?

Attempting to answer the above question, research has usually focused on the following aspects: 1) the degree to which errors need to be corrected (all or only some errors), 2) if CF should only aim at the errors which interfere with communication, 3) whether CF should only target the errors related to the focus of the lesson.

Concerning the degree to which errors should be corrected, Ancker (2000) surveyed teachers' and students' perceptions in 15 countries, focusing on whether teachers should correct all of students' errors. Results showed high discrepancies between teachers and students with the former showing a 25% agreement rate and the latter 76%. This low percentage on the teachers' side related to concerns about the effect of correction on students' confidence and motivation, whereas the higher percentage on the students' side shows how they might view correction as an aid to speaking English correctly. Considerably high rates of agreement were also reported by Lee (2013), focusing on advanced ESL teaching assistants. Questionnaire answers indicated their desire for the teacher to correct: 1) all of their errors when they speak English (mean score: 4.17 out of 5 (83.4%)), and 2) frequently occurring errors in their oral production to be corrected (mean score: 4.42 out of 5 (88.4%)).

Jean and Simard's (2011) study targeted 2,321 L2 high school students, 990 studying French as a second language (FSL) and 1,314 studying EFL. Questionnaire

responses showed that 30% of FSL and 54% of EFL students were of the opinion that grammar errors should be corrected on regular basis during oral interaction. The researchers attribute the difference between the two groups to their L1 learning experiences. FSL students received less formal grammar instruction in their L1 (English) language classes, in comparison to EFL students who were exposed to more grammar instruction in their L1 (French) language classes.

With regard to whether CF should only aim at the errors which interfere with communication, approval rates in Jean and Simard's (2011) study were 51% for FSL learners and 41% for EFL ones. In the same study, items focusing on whether CF should only target the errors related to the focus of the lesson received lower percentages of agreement, with 32% of FSL learners and 23% of EFL learners approving, indicating that learners expected a wider range of CF during their language classroom experience.

Examining teachers' perceptions regarding error correction, concerning the degree to which errors should be corrected, as reported in Ancker's (2000) results above, only 25% of the teachers agreed that all errors should be corrected. In a study by Bell (2005), only 19% (n=457) of the postsecondary FL teachers of French, German, and Spanish deemed it necessary to correct students' errors all the time. In the more recent investigation by Jean and Simard (2011), 26 FSL and 19 EFL teachers participated in the study, of which only 31% and 16% respectively concurred with the idea of providing CF for all grammar mistakes. Another study by Agudo (2014),

focusing on pre-service EFL teachers' CF beliefs in Spain, 33% (n=55) agreed that all grammar errors should be corrected, while 63% agreed to correct only some errors, so as not to demotivate and discourage students with too much correction. When it comes to correcting errors interfering with the communication process, 33% of the 92 American FL teachers who completed the survey agreed (Schulz, 1996), while in Jean and Simard (2011), agreement rates were higher with 54% FSL and 68% EFL teachers showing approval. In the same study, agreement rates to whether CF should only target the focus of the lesson were 52% for EFL teachers and 46% for FSL ones.

The above review concerning which errors should be corrected presents varying results. Concerning the correction of all grammatical errors during oral interaction, students' and teachers' views varied, with teachers being much less supportive of the notion, and some indicating their apprehension of negatively impacting learners' motivation. Moreover, the agreement rate throughout the different investigations varied among students, with some researchers deducing that past L1 learning experience played a role. Regarding the aspects of being selective in providing CF, whether for errors which impede communication or those which related to the focus of the lesson, support was higher on the teachers' side for both cases, in comparison to their views regarding correcting all grammatical errors. As for students' agreement rates, they were especially lower in the cases of targeting specific linguistic items which related to the focus of the lesson. Such varying results do not present substantial proof regarding which errors should be corrected. Most

of the studies used survey questionnaires to gather data, which include rigid items not allowing for the participants to elaborate on their views and perceptions. It could be of benefit to combine more qualitative data collection methods, along with the survey questionnaires used, when exploring students' and teachers' views regarding the provision of CF in the language classroom.

2.8.4 How should Learner Errors be Corrected?

There has been little research on students' preferred feedback types. In an older study, (Schulz, 1996), responses to questionnaire items focusing on CF provided during oral language production showed that the majority of students (90%) appreciated receiving explicit CF to the oral errors they produced. Another study conducted by Amador (2008) examined the preferences of college students (n=23), in a beginner English course, concerning twenty techniques that could be used for error correction. The techniques were presented in the form of mini-dialogues similar to their occurrence in class. Results showed preference for explicit CF techniques in which students were told what their mistakes were.

In Lee (2013), results were reported on students' views concerning several feedback types identified in classroom CF research. Survey answers of 60 advanced-level international teaching assistants, enrolled in an ESL speaking programme in a U.S. university, showed a mean score of 4.43 out of 5 for the item 'When my teacher corrects me, I want him/her to tell me what I got wrong and provide the correct form immediately'. The item inquiring about students' opinion concerning self-

correction had a mean score of 3.60. This suggests a preference for explicit correction. The above investigations indicate that students with varying proficiency levels prefer being provided with explicit correction for their errors. In addition, the relatively small number of investigations attempting to explore students' preferences in relation to CF types warrants a need for more research in that area.

With regard to teachers, more studies have been conducted focusing on their favoured and most frequently used types of CF. Several investigations concluded that recasts are the prevailing form of feedback employed by teachers inside the classroom (Kartchava, 2016; Yoshida, 2008; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2004; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In a review of more recent CF studies focusing on teachers' preferences regarding the types of CF used, Li (2017) presents the results (Table 1) from three studies, Agudo (2014), Bell (2005) and Rahimi and Zhang (2015).

Li (2017) reported the combined mean agreement rate for recasts in the three studies to be 76.7%, showing an overall preference towards using recasts, despite a lower degree of agreement, 56.9%, for student teachers in Agudo (2014). Concerning the remaining types of feedback, numbers presented in the table suggest that: 1) experienced teachers tend to go for a more balanced approach trying to use various types of CF during classroom interaction, 2) novice teachers are not in favour of using explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, 3) student teachers have a more comprehensive approach to using CF, which is less than experienced

teachers but noticeably more than novice teachers, 4) teachers were notably in favour of indirect CF.

Table 1: Teachers' Preferences Regarding Different CF Types (Li, 2017, p.147)

Feedback	%Agree	Respondents	Source
Recasts	56.6	55 student teachers	Agudo, 2014
	70	20 novice teachers	Rahimi & Zhang, 2015
	75	20 experienced teachers	
	80	475 experienced teachers	Bell, 2005
Explicit correction	68.8	55 student teachers	Agudo, 2014
	75	20 experienced teachers	Rahimi & Zhang, 2015
	15	20 novice teachers	
Metalinguistic feedback	64.7	55 student teachers	Agudo, 2014
	60	20 experienced teachers	Rahimi & Zhang, 2015
	15	20 novice teachers	
Clarification	49	55 student teachers	Agudo, 2014
	70	20 experienced teachers	Rahimi & Zhang, 2015
	60	20 novice teachers	
Indirect feedback	70.5	475 experienced teachers	Bell, 2005
Direct feedback	48	475 experienced teachers	Bell, 2005

Smaller-scale qualitative research has presented findings which corroborated those of the above quantitative ones. For example, Roothoof (2014) included in the survey questionnaire presented to 10 EFL teachers 11 open-ended questions focusing on the methods they preferred for providing CF. Almost half of the teachers were inclined to integrate different forms of CF during interaction with students. This suggests, as mentioned earlier, that employing qualitative data collection methods can be quite informative when exploring language-learning/teaching beliefs.

2.8.5 Who should Provide Corrective Feedback ?

The last of Hendrickson's (1978) questions dealing with how errors should be corrected focuses on the source of the CF; two sources could be focused on, teachers and peers. In Schulz's (1996, 2001), the majority of the 607 U.S foreign language students and the 824 Colombian EFL students showed preferences for teacher correction in front of the class. Responses to survey items inquiring about being corrected by fellow students during small group work showed a low rate of agreement, 15% for Colombian and 13% for U.S. students.

In Amador (2008), all 23 college students agreed to the questionnaire item inquiring whether the teacher should be the one correcting their errors. As for the item focusing on students' attitudes towards peer correction, only 52.2% agreed, 30.4% were of the opinion that peers should not correct each other's errors, and 17.5% stated that correction by their peers was not reliable. Five students explained they had no problem with peer correction and viewed it as a means for language development. Three other students indicated their approval of peer correction provided that the other student had a higher proficiency level. Hence, the more qualitative part of the questionnaire presented a deeper insight into learners' views concerning peer feedback, indicating how learners might be more accepting of the process. Along the same lines of preferring teacher correction over peer-correction, only 42% of the 173 Spanish EFL students in Agudo's (2015) study on the role and effectiveness of grammar instruction and CF agreed with receiving feedback from their classmates.

There has been little attention to teachers' beliefs concerning the source of CF (Li, 2017). One study which has focused on teachers' views on peer and self-correction was conducted by Agudo (2014). Student teachers responding to the survey questionnaire did not show strong agreement for items relating to peer feedback. Only 33% agreed that peer-correction plays a more effective role than teacher correction, and 37% were of the opinion that peer correction caused less anxiety than teacher correction.

This short review reveals that, despite acknowledging the role of peer correction, students lay strong emphasis on the teacher as the main provider of CF in the classroom context. Accordingly, research into teachers' and students' beliefs about various aspects concerning the provision of CF deems itself necessary in order to provide more insight into students' expectations, and attempt to bridge any gap between those expectations and teachers' beliefs through training and continuous reflection.

2.9 Teacher Training and Professional Development

As highlighted in the previous section, teacher training and education are significant for shaping the beliefs of teachers and affecting their teaching practices. Although the current investigation focuses on beliefs and practices regarding the provision of OCF, it is important to shed light on approaches to teacher training and professional development as a whole, since such approaches are viewed as universal and can be

applied to numerous aspects of teaching in the language classroom.

Before elaborating on the concept of professional development, a distinction should be made between the terms 'training' and 'development', which are two broad strands identified within the scope of teacher education. According to Richards and Farrell (2005) 'training involves understanding...concepts and principles as a prerequisite for applying them to teaching and the ability to demonstrate principles and practices in the classroom' (p.3). They further elaborate that training entails experimenting with new techniques and strategies in the classroom, and usually getting feedback on one's performance, necessitating the presence of some form of guidance. Further expanding on the different aspects of training as a form of teacher education, James (2001, cited in Coburn, 2016, p.13) explains that:

....the learning needs for teacher training are typically defined by a recognizable deficit in the participating teachers' knowledge or skills. The learning aims lead to (...) a predetermined outcome (...) specified by the institution which is funding the training. Training is in this sense sometimes referred to as "top-down".

Based on the above explanation it is evident that 'training' usually has a specific goal to focus on and raise teachers' awareness to. Richards and Farrell (2005) present examples of goals from a training perspective, such as, and of relevance to the current investigation, 'techniques for giving learners feedback on performance' (p.3).

As for 'development', it usually encompasses larger goals. Richards and Farrell

maintain that it:

...serves a longer-term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review and can hence be seen as 'bottom-up'.

(Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.4)

Strategies used for development usually involve, among others, analytical and reflective activities such as recording various teaching practices, reflective analysis of such practices, examining beliefs, as well as conversing with others on beliefs and practices.

In conclusion, it could be asserted that both strands within the teacher education scope complement each other. When training sheds light on specific aspects within the teaching/learning process, these are usually embedded into the continuous and more elaborate process of teacher development, which aims at expanding existing knowledge and skills, or developing new ones, with the ultimate goal of pushing forward the professional development of teachers, as will be implemented in the current investigation.

2.9.1 Professional Development of Teachers

Guskey (2002) gives a comprehensive definition for the professional development of teachers as 'those processes and activities designed to enhance the professional knowledge, skills and attitudes of educators so that they might, in turn, improve the

learning of students' (p.16). In a review of publications on professional development, Avaloz (2011) states that 'professional development is about teachers learning, learning how to learn and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students' growth (p.10). Head and Taylor (1997) emphasize the significance of continuity in teacher development for the purpose of transforming hidden potential into actual teaching performance. These views highlight important aspects in relation to professional development: learning, practice and continuous growth. The following sections discuss two prominent approaches to teacher development which reflect such aspects.

2.9.1.1 The Applied Science Approach

The 'applied science approach' is usually linked to the positivist tradition (Richards & Farrell, 2005; Wallace, 1991) which regards professional competence as the mastery of skills identified through careful experimentation and observation. Within the applied science approach, the knowledge provided for teaching is theory-based. It is generated and handed to teachers, who should be trained on how to apply it; moreover, the flow of knowledge is viewed as unidirectional, (Wallace, 1991, p.9). This approach has frequently been regarded as 'threatening' to educators because it often separates theory from practice (Day, 1993; Hargreaves, 1994); nevertheless, it has been argued that the inclusion of theoretical input is essential for teacher training and teacher education (Kelly, 2009). An example is Krashen's (1983) advocacy for the importance of familiarizing teachers with various theories,

which would better enable them to change and implement change. Krashen asserts that in the absence of theory it would not be possible to differentiate between effective and basically habitual teaching practices, between those which aid the teaching-learning process and others which do not.

2.9.1.2 The Reflective Practice Approach

The second model for teacher professional development is the 'reflective practice approach'. It developed as a reaction to the 'applied science approach' with its positivist epistemology emphasizing formal knowledge as a basis for professional development. Thus, reflection in this sense is seen as 'a reaction against the view of teachers as technicians who merely carry out what others, removed from the classroom, want them to do' (Zeichner & Liston, 1996, cited in Ghaye, 2010, p.21). The term 'reflection' emerged mainly with Dewey (1904). Dewey's role in shedding light on the significance of reflective thought in and for learning has been notable. In his book, *How to think* (1910), Dewey puts forward four meanings for the word 'thought'. Of interest to the current investigation, and of relevance to the concept of reflection, is the fourth meaning which highlights the importance of an individual's beliefs and sheds light on the effort made to verify and support such beliefs. Dewey states that '*Active, persistent and careful considerations of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it, and the further conclusions to which it tends*' (Dewey, 1910, p.6) can be regarded as 'reflective thought' (ibid). When the individual faces a problematic situation where existing presuppositions or

actions cease to function and one searches for solutions, whether from previous experiences or from newly acquired knowledge, this fourth type of thinking takes place. According to Dewey, this thinking process is associated with some form of problem solving and can accordingly result in learning.

The sense of reflection on thought outlined above is also present in Schön's theory of the reflective practitioner where reflection is at 'the centre of an understanding of what professionals do' in their daily lives (Smith, 2001, p.8). In response to the growing concern with the positivist epistemology, Schön criticized the 'technical rationality' associated with practice which emphasized technical or formal knowledge as the basis for professional training, where the teachers are expected to apply such knowledge to solve their teaching problems. This was viewed as 'an application of theory to practice [which] devalues the knowledge that teachers develop about and through their teaching' (Ghaye, 2010, pp.23-24). Ghaye (2010) states a problem in association with the technical-rational view, he argues that 'the assumption that teaching problems can be solved just by applying someone else's knowledge to one's own practice is simplistic, and devalues the art and skillfulness of teaching' (*ibid*, p.24), as teachers are bound to come across instances when their previously acquired knowledge fails in presenting a solution to their teaching problems. Schön presents an alternative to such 'technical-rationality'; he highlights the role of reflection in allowing teachers to pose the problems they face and use the knowledge generated through practice and shared among teachers.

This professional knowledge inherent in our daily lives and practice is what Schön refers to as 'knowledge-in-action'. Such knowledge is tacit, intuitive, spontaneous, and often difficult to make verbally explicit (Schön, 1987). However, this 'frequently intangible [knowledge] works in practice, and from it can be developed a new epistemology of practice, in which practitioners regularly adjust their actions on the basis of direct experience' (Klapper, 2006, p.34). Thus, Schön (1983, 1987) refers to such tacit knowledge as 'theories-in-use'. Teachers have their own 'tailored 'theories' (Ghayne, 2010, p.24) about what they believe might or might not work in their teaching practice. Carr highlights this as follows:

Since all practice presupposes a more or less coherent set of assumptions and beliefs, it is to this extent, always guided by a framework of theory. Thus, on this view, all practice....is 'theory-laden'. Practice is not opposed to theory, but is itself governed by an implicit theoretical framework which structures and guides the activities of those engaged in practical pursuit.

(Carr, 1987, p.165)

Nevertheless, in several instances during practice, practitioners could face problematic situations because their current 'theories-in-use' cannot offer direct guidance. If the practitioner opts for addressing such an issue, they need to employ a different form of thinking. Schön (1987) refers to this process as 'professional artistry', which is proposed to develop through reflection.

Schön (1983, 1987) states that reflection could occur within one of two forms. The first is done on the spot without interrupting the action, referred to by Schön as 'reflection-in-action'. It follows a quick evaluation of the situation where an instant

decision is called for. In this sense, the individuals' thinking reshapes their actions while they are doing it. This could be viewed as very similar to Dewey's notion of 'reflective thought'.

The second form is 'reflection-on-action', which consists of reflection after the event. In this case, reflection mainly aims at understanding what took place. Such a process of understanding could produce reconstructions of our practice which might be directed towards dealing with future issues, in this case, the more precise term for the process would be 'reflection-for-action' (Schön, 1983, 1987).

Based on the above, for understanding to take place, practitioners need to think consciously and become aware of what they are doing, and why they are doing it. As a result, such thinking can shape our understanding and construction of the world. Consequently, reflection can be seen as a key component to constructing or reconstructing our knowledge of the world as we know it, which might be the reason why reflective practice has become a popular professional development tool over the years.

2.9.1.3 Criticism of Schön's Approach to Reflective Practice

Despite the role Schön's principles have played concerning the importance of reflective practice, they have faced several criticisms. First, the differentiation between reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action has been debated. A main criticism by Eraut (1995a, 2004) relates to lack of consideration to 'context' in Schön's model. In Schön's (1983, 1987) model, there seems to be little difference

between reflection-in-action during intense situations where there is little time to respond (similar to what teachers face on a daily basis) and situations where there is plenty of time to engage in the reflective process. Secondly, Smith (2001) argues that Schön's model does not make clear how reflective practice affects praxis. It focuses more on creating awareness, rather than how to influence practice. He states that although 'there is a clear emphasis on action being informed, there is less focus on the commitments entailed' (Smith, 2001, p.11).

A third criticism of Schön's model relates to reflection-in-action, questioning whether such a notion can exist. For phenomenologists, such as Van Manen (1995), this concept is debatable. Meaning is created through the actual teaching practice; it would be difficult for practitioners to examine or reflect on their experiences and then attach meaning to those. Another issue highlighted by Van Manen (1995) is the 'temporal dimension' emphasized in Schön's model. He questions the feasibility of reflection-in-action and believes that the dynamic and active characteristics of teaching make it impossible to teach and reflect at the same time, suggesting that teaching is an 'unreflective' activity. Van Manen (1995) stresses that the action of teaching entails 'pedagogical thoughtfulness and tact' (p.8); such tact, which is not taught but develops with experience and practice, 'spontaneously emerges as a certain type of active confidence in dealing with ever-changing social situations' it could be a 'spontaneous bridge or link between theory and practice, when a direct technical relation is not possible' (ibid, p.10), this is similar to situations when a practitioner is able to apply technically acquired knowledge to specific situations.

Accordingly, in Van Manen's view, it is experience and practice, not reflection, which comes to the aid of teachers in their time of need and guides them to suitable approaches in their teaching practice.

The importance of practice as opposed to reflection is also highlighted by Beckett (1996). He distinguishes between two concepts regarding practitioners' actions, the first is 'acting intentionally', where the 'action is the outcome of prior deliberation' (ibid, p.142). The second 'intentional action', refers to an 'action appear[ing] immediately and spontaneously' (ibid, p.142), in this case the individual finds herself amidst the situation and has to act instantly without deliberation, reflection or time to plan, a form of 'hot action'. Based on this distinction between the two forms of action, Beckett (1996) disagrees with the notion of reflection-in-action. In his view, reflection-on-action may be possible when time allows; however, when professionals are engaged in 'hot action', it would be quite difficult to purposefully direct their actions. Like Van Manen (1995), Beckett (1996) also believes that a teacher's view of what is 'good' and 'right' for their students is developed by engaging in practice.

2.9.1.4 Reflection as Opposed to Practice

Several of the above criticisms focus on prioritizing practice over reflection; in addition, they argue against the possibility of reflection during the actual teaching process. However, the arguments introduced by Van Manen and Beckett do not quite dismiss the importance of reflection in general, and the notion of reflection-in-action

in specific. While criticizing Schön's and Dewey's notions of reflective thought, both Van Manen (1995) and Becket (1996) overlook Schön's and Dewey's assertion that the reflective process can happen quickly, and that the teachers' ability to consciously or unconsciously perform this increases with experience. If Schön's (1983; 1987) and Dewey's (1910) assertion is true, it might clarify why experienced teachers can shift smoothly from one activity to the next, without indications of facing difficulty. Accordingly, it might be assumed that an increased familiarity with reflection, and not only practice, enhances teaching skills.

Another criticism by Becket and Van Manen that could be argued against is their assumption that the act of teaching inside the classroom is too dynamic to allow for any form of reflective thought. Firstly, neither Schön nor Dewey suggested that reflection should be ongoing throughout all the teaching activities. Reflection is assumingly required when teachers are faced with issues that are not resolvable using their existing skills. Secondly, on a personal note, I find it worrying that someone would assume that teaching is mainly an 'unreflective practice', which might insinuate a mechanical approach that disregards the feelings, demands, apprehensions, and capabilities of both teachers and students.

Another issue to comment on is the concept of 'good' and 'right' suggested by both authors. It is difficult to believe that teachers automatically learn these virtues from teaching (Beckett, 1996; Van Manen, 1995), when it could be assumed that what is 'good' and 'right' in the activity of teaching is considerably dependent on the

context. One would wonder what could happen when teachers' unchallenged actions lead them to assume that a certain approach is 'right' when that might not be shared by other fellow teachers, supervisors or students.

This notion of communicating and collaborating with other stakeholders is an area where Schön's model falls short. Practitioners are constantly searching within themselves and examining their own beliefs for solutions to their problems. This approach is seen as quite limiting since it might be difficult for teachers to realize problems with their own teaching, the reason being that their theories-in-action become so deeply imbedded that they are not easy to observe and critique.

2.9.1.5 The Importance of Reflective Practice

As suggested above, experience in individual teaching contexts might not result in teaching practices that are 'good' or 'right'; consequently, teachers might need to examine their practices more closely and objectively. This can take place through involving others in the process, such as mentors, supervisors or teaching colleagues (Atay, 2008; Johansson, Sandberg and Vuorinen, 2007; Hoekje, 1999), since sharing experience with others in the same profession can help teachers add to their knowledge range.

As discussed earlier, reflection is important for analysis of performance which aims at professional development. However, the main importance lies in reflection-on past actions, which has the potential of impacting future actions (Sowa, 2009; Johansson, Sandberg & Vuorinen, 2007), and could also be seen to affect

spontaneous reflection-in-action over time. Reflection on past action requires examining the beliefs held by practitioners as well as the environmental factors that led to the formation of such beliefs, in addition to a close analysis of how such beliefs impact their professional practice. As professional development entails improving practice, several educators (e.g. Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004; Wallace, 1991) believe in the benefit of teachers reflecting on their past actions, as well as the environmental influences that may have led to such actions (i.e. school policies or previous learning) to uncover unconscious theories or beliefs, as both can ultimately steer an individual's professional behaviour. In addition, it is important to re-assess these theories in light of newly received knowledge to determine if such theories are as relevant as the practitioners had originally assumed. It is through this process of turning back one's thoughts to consider previous judgments and actions, in light of new knowledge and experience, that teachers (and professionals in general) can form a better understanding and acquire more knowledge about their own professional practice.

The importance of such a process does not only lie in identifying forms of practice which could be adapted or changed, but is also crucial for practitioners who wish to improve the overall effectiveness of their teaching, since such a process can present them with options for change (Johansson *et al.*, 2007; Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004; Wallace, 1991; Schön, 1987). The following section will highlight the potential role played by training and reflective practice with relation to OCF used during classroom interaction.

2.9.2 Teacher Training and Reflective Practice and their Influence on the Provision of OCF

As highlighted in section 2.6.4, teacher education and training can play an important role in relation to teachers' beliefs and practices. With relation to treatment of oral errors in the language classroom, Brown (2016) states that '...education/training appear to moderate [teachers'] CF choices' (p.447). However, there is paucity in research which has investigated the relation between training and reflective practice, and the provision of OCF.

A few studies focused mainly on the change in teachers' beliefs. In their investigation replicating Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study, Vasquez and Harvey (2010) address the issue of whether feedback training can affect beliefs. Participants, a combination of practicing and potential language teachers, were enrolled in an SLA course. The researchers viewed the replication project 'as serving as a bridge between formal research and practical inquiry' (Richardson, 1994, cited in Vasquez and Harvey, 2010, p.421). Data were gathered using qualitative and quantitative methods. The study revealed that both the course and the replication project helped students develop a better understanding concerning the usefulness of OCF. While this study provides support with regards the impact of CF training on beliefs, the outcomes do not demonstrate that such training would alter teachers' CF strategies in the classroom. This calls for further research into the relation between CF training and teachers' classroom practices.

Another study, which adopted a more theoretical approach towards teacher development in the area of CF, is by Kamiya and Loewen (2014). They examined the relationship between one experienced ESL teacher's reading of three academic articles on the topic of OCF and his stated beliefs. Data were collected prior to and following the reading of the articles. Analysis suggests that the teacher's beliefs regarding CF affected his response to the articles, in that he concentrated on the research outcomes which were in accordance with his existing beliefs before reading the articles. This can provide support for previous claims that theoretical materials on their own are not sufficient for implementing change; it also suggests an important role for using a more practical, reflective approach.

An older study by Numrich (1996) highlighted change in novice teachers' beliefs and practice in relation to OCF in the language classroom. One of the reasons suggested for the increase in the provision of OCF during teaching was their observation of other teachers with a focus on the use of CF in the classroom. The researchers claim that this might have played a role in highlighting the importance of oral error correction. Such a claim indicates the role played by observations in training teachers and guiding them to focus on specific teaching aspects, the benefits of which could be likened to having teachers watch recorded videos of previous teaching in order to reflect on specific features of their performance.

A more recent study conducted by Agudo (2014) aimed to analyse what 55 pre-service EFL teachers enrolled in a teacher education programme in Spain believe

about the role and effectiveness of CF in the language classroom. Questionnaire results suggested that the beliefs student teachers hold about CF are an outcome of their previous experiences as language learners, their teacher training practice during the practicum experience, as well as teacher training courses. The researcher states that the results suggest that pre-service teachers would benefit from more training on CF pedagogy. On a larger scale, Agudo argues that:

...teacher educators [should].....consider how pre-service teachers' beliefs influence to a great extent the process of learning to teach, thus affecting their.....classroom instructional decisions and actions. Accordingly, influencing student teachers' beliefs about L2 learning and teaching should become today a primary goal of L2 teacher education so as to improve second language pedagogy.

(Agudo, 2014, p. 223)

Another study mentioned earlier, although not directly focusing on CF, is by Kubanyiova (2006) who focused on change of teachers' classroom practice following a 20 hour in-service teacher training course. Eight teachers participated in the study with teaching experience ranging between 1 and 28 years. Results showed that in the majority of cases, no change occurred, and one reason cited for this was a lack of reflective teaching culture. One of the participating teachers explained in an interview with the researcher:

I never really think about my classes like I did today. You see, reflections like you suggested we write . . .well, it would surely be very helpful, but I really can't see how I could do that. During breaks, I barely have time to reach our staff room and change the books before another class

starts.....when the classes are over.....my priority is to be ready for teaching tomorrow. And to get out of here as soon as possible.

(Kubanyiova, 2006, p.9)

The above investigations focused on teachers with vastly different levels of experience, starting with pre-service teachers all the way to teachers with 28 years of experience. Results suggest that teachers with various degrees of experience could benefit from some form of training aiming at the use of OCF in the language classroom. In support of this, R. Ellis (2009) and Lyster and Saito (2010) argue that, as research has shown that learners respond to CF in different ways, 'teachers need to adapt and adjust flexibly a wide variety of corrective feedback techniques to the particular learner's cognitive and affective needs' (Agudo, 2014, p.214). Accordingly, teachers' awareness needs to be raised to the various techniques of OCF at their disposal, they need to be trained on the use of such techniques, as well as be encouraged to resort to reflective practices which would alert them to the suitability of the various forms of CF and to the need to alter their techniques if deemed necessary. Applying such reflective practices based on classroom performance reflects what Richards and Farrell (2005) state in relation to the importance of classroom practice for teachers, 'classrooms are not only places where students learn-they are also places where teachers can learn' (p.2).

In conclusion, building on the paucity of research focusing on OCF training and the use of reflective practice as a tool for raising teachers' awareness and improving

their practice in this area of classroom interaction, the current investigation firstly, aims at examining teachers' pre-existing beliefs and practices in relation to the use of oral CF in the language classroom. Secondly, in an attempt to consider students' voice, the study explores students' beliefs in relation to the importance of OCF in the language classroom. Thirdly, the current research examines how training teachers on the provision of OCF can influence both their classroom practice and their pre-existing beliefs. Finally, consideration of students' voice becomes a focus again with the aim of exploring whether their beliefs and perceptions regarding the role of OCF in classroom interaction changed following the training process undergone by their teachers.

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter deals with the methodological aspects of the current investigation. It begins with a background to the philosophy of research, with emphasis on the positivist and interpretive paradigms. This is followed by a discussion of the research methodology implemented and its implications for the present study. After that the data collection methods are described and their suitability to answer the research questions are clarified. Later, the ethical considerations adopted are explained and issues of validity and reliability are highlighted.

3.2 Background to the Philosophy of Research

Conducting educational research is primarily an attempt to pursue knowledge and truth with an aim to provide a framework for a better teaching and learning environment. However, there is no one systematic approach for such a venture. As researchers are separate individuals with different convictions and beliefs regarding the truth about reality and how knowledge can be conceived, these researchers have different ontological assumptions, which lead to specific epistemological outlooks that impact their theoretical approaches to methodology when investigating a particular phenomenon. In simple words these are 'assumptions about what the

world is, how it works, and how we can claim to know these things' (Clough & Nutbrown, 2002, p.30).

How individuals view reality and existence is referred to as ontology; ontology is the study of being and reality (Crotty, 1998). Blaikie (2000, p.8, cited in Grix, 2010, p.59) gives a more detailed definition concerning ontology. He explains that ontological claims are:

.....claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other. In short, ontological assumptions are concerned with what we believe constitutes social reality.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) distinguish between two kinds of reality, an 'external' reality that is detached from the individual, and another reality that is the outcome of an individual's awareness of their surroundings. The authors raise a number of questions:

....is social reality external to individuals – imposing itself on their consciousness from without – or is it the product of individual consciousness? Is reality of an objective nature, or the result of individual cognition? Is it a given 'out there' in the world, or is it created by one's mind?

(Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.5)

What ensues here is a discussion of what can be considered as 'reality'. The individuals' approaches to gaining knowledge about reality are directed by their ontological assumptions. Pring (2015) mentions 'realism' as one approach to understanding reality; it is 'the view that there is a reality, a world which exists independently of the researcher and which is to be discovered' (p.76). Along the

same lines Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) explain that 'realism' refers to objects having an existence independent of the knower. Accordingly, the outcomes of any investigation are valued depending on the extent to which they measure up to that reality. In that sense, meaning only exists in the 'real' things, not in the researcher's conscience (Scotland, 2012); consequently, the researcher would aim at exploring that meaning. Crotty further expands on this stating that:

A tree in the forest is a tree, regardless of whether anyone is aware of its existence or not. As an object of that kind, it carries the intrinsic meaning of treeness. When human beings recognize it as a tree, they are simply discovering a meaning that has been lying in wait for them all along.

(Crotty, 1998, p.8)

This view of reality was not approved by some of those who theorize about research, like Guba and Lincoln (1989). They saw reality as 'socially constructed' (p.13) which, consequently, might lead to the presence of 'multiple realities' (Pring, 2015, p.56). Accordingly, research should focus on '...people's perceptions of [that] reality' (Pring, 2015, p.77). In this sense, reality differs from person to person; since reality is constructed by individuals, there might be as numerous realities as there are individuals.

The above view of reality fosters the conviction that the world does not exist independently of our knowledge of it (Grix, 2010). Revisiting the previous example regarding our perception of trees, Crotty elaborates:

We need to remind ourselves here that it is human beings who have constructed it as a tree, given it the name, and attributed to it the associations we make with trees.

(Crotty, 1998, p.43)

This means that objects do not exist without us referring to them or constructing their identity. A tree would not exist as we know it unless someone refers to it as a tree. In this sense, meaning is formulated through interaction between the individual consciousness and the surrounding world (Scotland, 2012).

Such assumptions about the nature of reality are at the core of human beliefs; they influence our approach to the ultimate search for knowledge and inform our epistemological outlook. Grix 2010 states that 'ontology is the starting point of all research, after which one's epistemological... positions logically follow' (p.59). In attempting to further distinguish between ontology and epistemology, Grix elaborates that 'if ontology is about what we may know, epistemology is about how we come to know what we know' (*ibid*, p.63). Epistemology is the view of how an individual obtains knowledge, it 'focuses on the knowledge gathering process' (*ibid*, p.64). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) state that epistemology is concerned with the 'nature and form' of knowledge, as well as 'how it can be acquired, and ... communicated' (p.6). Guba and Lincoln (1994) explain that epistemology raises a question regarding the nature of the relationship between the 'would-be knower and what can be known' (p. 108). Grix (2010) explores two views in this regard. One considers reality as existing 'independently of our knowledge of it' while the other

adopts the view that ‘ ‘reality’ is socially and discursively ‘constructed’ by human actors’ (Grix, 2010, p.64). Along similar lines, Pring (2015) makes a distinction between ‘a knowable world existing independently of the knower’ (p.60) where there is a clear detachment between the researcher and what is being researched, and a world where individual interpretations reflect what goes on in the world and construct knowledge. Cohen, Manion and Morrison further elaborate on such a distinction explaining that:

The view that knowledge is hard, objective and tangible will demand of researchers an observer role, together with an allegiance to the methods of natural science; to see knowledge as personal, subjective and unique, however, imposes on researchers an involvement with their subjects and a rejection of the ways of the natural scientist.

(Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.6)

The contrasting ontologies mentioned earlier, those of viewing reality as either subjective or objective, and epistemologies, that of the researcher role being either an outside observer or an active participant, entail the adoption of different theoretical approaches. Investigators embracing an objectivist perspective, and treating the world as being external to the individual, will employ a positivist tradition in their endeavour to search for truth and knowledge in an attempt to make sense of the world. On the other hand, researchers adopting a subjective point of view and believing in more than one reality based on individual consciousness will implement an interpretive approach in their quest for knowledge. In the following sections each of the two approaches will be discussed thoroughly.

3.2.1 The Positivist Paradigm

Understanding various phenomena in the world has been a main principle in Western thinking since the time of Ancient Greeks. In more recent times, positivism has been identified in history with the name of the 19th-century French philosopher August Comte. His position advocated resorting to ‘...observation and reason as a means of understanding [a social phenomenon]...’ and promoted the view that ‘...all genuine knowledge is based on sense experience and can be advanced by means of observation and experiment’ (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.7). As a result, the positivist tradition was suspicious of ‘knowledge-claims which went beyond what was accessible to observation’ (Pring, 2015, p.110). In his study and analysis of Comte’s positivist approach, Oldroyd (1986) explains that it leads to a social phenomenon being investigated the same way as a natural and physical one. This means that investigative procedures of the natural sciences can be employed by the social sciences; consequently, the analysis of the research outcomes should be presented as ‘laws or law-like generalizations’ (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.7) similar to those of a natural phenomenon. Pring (2015, p.113) expands on this by stating that the scientific and empirical assertions based on experience and observation can result in provisional generalizations, which could be predictive of future incidents.

The positivist agenda was pushed forward in the 19th century at a time when justifications for various phenomena were presented without logical explanations to

back them up; in addition, there was no tolerance for opposing arguments (Pring, 2015) since there was no theoretical approach to build such arguments on. The positivist tradition allowed for a 'systematic study [of] what is factual and open to observation' (Pring, 2015, p.110), and extended to the study of society and social structures. Consequently, substantial investigation into the social sciences originated and was based on the view that the foundation of any true knowledge must be based on experience and observation (Pring, 2015). Later, in the 20th century, in pre-war philosophical work, scholars advocated the positivist tradition as they believed in its capability of producing comprehensible knowledge at that time. This was best demonstrated in the work of Carnap while clarifying some misunderstandings concerning positivism:

Everybody in testing any sentence empirically, can not do otherwise than refer finally to his observations; he can not use the results of other people's observations unless he has become acquainted with them by his own observations, e.g. by hearing or reading the other man's report.

(Carnap, 1936, pp.423-424)

It is evident that in the positivist tradition, studying what is factual and the ability to provide empirical evidence through observation, are at the core of the search for knowledge and truth. However, these same claims can carry inside them the seeds of contradiction. Pring states that:

What counts as facts, or what are basic objects of observation, are by no means unambiguous. Are they things like churches and schools? Or are they bricks and mortar, which, put together, we (but possibly not others from a different culture) call churches and schools? Or are they the interpreted

perception of colours, shapes, sounds – the phenomenon of direct experience?

(Pring, 2015, p.110)

Observation and the verification of facts could in many cases vary from one individual to another, or from one group of people to another, based on their understanding of the reality of the environment they live in. This explains the difficulty of employing the laws of the natural sciences in the study of the human mind and human behaviour.

The positivist approach of restricting verification of knowledge to the experience of what is factual made it the subject of criticism. Pring (2015) mentions two works, Michael Young's edited book *Knowledge and Control* and Filmer's *New Directions in Sociological Theory*, which clearly demonstrate the drawbacks of positivism. They stress the unique way each individual can form an understanding of the social world; consequently, it is very difficult to study and observe the world through the lens of natural sciences. Contrary to the positivist belief, each human being has his/her interpretations of the world, which ultimately form our knowledge of that world. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) justify the drawbacks of the positivist tradition when implemented in the study of human behaviour by stating that 'the immense complexity of human nature and the illusive and intangible quality of social phenomena contrast strikingly with the order and regularity of the natural world' (p.7). From our view as educators and research practitioners, such intricacies of human behaviour are clearly manifested in the teaching-learning contexts where

human interaction is highly unpredictable and poses a challenge to the application of a positivist approach to research. An additional limitation is positivists' claims to be able to make generalizations. Scotland (2012) discusses the issue of how 'positivistic generalizations ignore the intentionality of the individual, thus actions are not fully understood' (p.11). He explains that the outcomes of observations might be seen as something very different from the reality of things. For example, a number of students could give the same answer to a question; however, each one's explanation of why she/he gave such an answer might show a very different mental process from the perspective of that individual.

Despite the above criticism of the positivist approach in its failure to capture the unique essence of human nature and the diversity reflected in human behaviour, Pring (2015) points out that positivism needs a broader and deeper understanding in order to go beyond the rigid interpretation associated with how to comprehend the world. Grix (2010) gives an enlightening example which goes back to the importance of understanding the previously discussed concepts of ontology and epistemology and their role in clarifying the beliefs underlying research. He explains that '....criticizing a full-blown positivist for not taking into account hidden structures in society (e.g. patriarchal structures), when her ontological and epistemological position does not allow for such things, is a classical case of arguing past one another' (Grix, 2010, p.58).

3.2.2 The Interpretive Paradigm

Drawbacks and limitations of the positivist approach to acquiring truth and knowledge gave rise to the interpretive approach, which is 'sometimes referred to as constructivism because it emphasizes the ability of the individual to construct meaning' (Mack, 2010, p.7). The interpretive approach adopts a subjective perspective to the inquiry about knowledge. It promotes the view that knowledge is personal and unique for each individual based on his/her understanding of, and interaction with, the social surroundings; consequently, the individuals' interpretations of the social world are essential for acquiring the truth about such knowledge. Crotty (1998) explains that 'knowledge...and meaningful reality... [are] contingent upon human practices... constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world... and transmitted within a social context' (p.42). As a result, the social world we are living in can be apprehended through the eyes and interpretations of the persons living in it (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The goal of researchers adopting an interpretive approach is 'to rely as much as possible on the participants' views [interpretations] of the situation being studied' (Creswell, 2009, p.8).

A review of the major criticisms directed at positivism is important in order to understand the need at the time for an alternative approach to the study of human behaviour in an attempt to acquire knowledge. Towards the second half of the 19th century there was a large-scale revolt against positivism. This anti-positivist attack

attracted some of the most renowned intellectuals in Europe at the time. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison:

Opponents of positivism..... are united by their common rejection of the belief that human behaviour is governed by general, universal laws and characterized by underlying regularities.....they would agree that the social world can only be understood from the standpoint of the individuals who are part of the ongoing action being investigated.

(Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.15)

One challenge to the assertion of positivism came from the Danish philosopher Kierkegaard. As an initiator of existentialism he believed that the 'realization of a person's potential was ... the meaning of existence' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.14). Accordingly, he viewed the objectivity claimed by the positivists through imposing rules of behaviour, and making the individual into a mere observer, as a roadblock on the way to that realization. He was a believer in the importance of subjectivity in examining an individual's relationship to what is being investigated (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Another strong criticism came from Ions (1977, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011, p.4). His main concern was the use of quantification and the reliance on numbers and statistics, which was a major tenet of the positivist approach. He objected to quantification being an end in itself, not a means for acquiring truth and knowledge about human behaviour. One further criticism made by anti-positivists focused on the view that defined 'life in measurable terms rather than inner experience... and (excluded) the notions of choice, freedom (and) individuality..' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.14); consequently regarding the behaviour of humans as controlled and passive.

Radnor (2002) explains that 'interpretivists argue for the uniqueness of human inquiry, and to understand human action by means of interpretation is to argue for an altogether different aim from natural science' (*ibid*, p.4). With the advancement of the interpretive tradition, the belief was that research cannot employ an external, detached, observational approach, rather it is regarded as a subjective undertaking which must be observed from inside utilizing the direct experience of the people involved. What human beings do cannot be merely regarded as observable behaviour, 'they are behaviours infused with intentions' (Pring, 2015, p.117). One seemingly simple action performed by several individuals can have numerous meanings based on each person's intentions. The role of the researcher in the interpretivist tradition is to 'understand, explain, and demystify social reality through the eyes of different participants' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.15).

Radnor further clarifies this:

The interpretive approach rests on the premise that in social life there is only interpretation. Everyday life revolves around persons interpreting and making decisions about how to act based on their own experiences and their interpretation of the experience and behaviour of others. The purpose of interpretive research is to clarify how interpretations and understandings are formulated, implemented and given meaning in lived situations.

(Radnor, 2002, p.4)

The interpretive approach promotes the existence of multiple realities resulting from our subjective understanding of the world. Pring (2015) explains that 'we each inhabit subjective worlds of meaning through which we interpret the social world.... that social world is.... our interpretations' (p.118). It logically follows that

researchers would attempt to understand the various explanations presented for a situation in order to shed light on the multiple realities presented by the diverse individuals. This, however, should be approached with caution as it carries one of the criticisms put forward for interpretivism which relates to misconceiving actions based on individual differences and personal view points. Pring (2015, p.118) poses the following questions:

Is it not possible for the social actor (an individual) to misinterpret both her own and other people's actions? May it not be the case that someone else might give a better and truer account of my actions than myself? We do talk of self-deception or of not understanding the whole picture.

On the same issue of misinterpreting action and behaviour, Morrison (2009) gives a classroom related example. A student might assume that the teacher does not like her, and act accordingly; however, in reality the teacher usually does favour the student. In this case the perceptions of the individual are wrong. Consequently, the subjective interpretation might endanger the validity of the investigation and it is suggested that more than one account, from more than one individual, would be taken regarding the same issue.

Another challenge facing the interpretive approach in the search for knowledge is 'bias and subjectivity' (Llewellyn-Williams, 2009, p.87). As researchers, we are at a risk of influencing the views of our participants as well as misinterpreting the meanings of what we observe. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 21) caution researchers that:

One important factor ... (to) be considered is the power of others to impose their own definitions of situations upon participants.... The ability of certain individuals, groups, classes, and authorities to persuade others to accept their definitions of situations demonstrates that while.... social structure is a consequence of the ways in which we perceive social relations, it is clearly more than this.

Here, it is evident that considering the effects of the external social structure is important in our interpretation of events and understanding of social behaviour. One danger that might be faced by researchers is their disregard of the effect of external influence on participants, which can put the validity of the investigation at risk.

3.2.3 The Conflict between the Positivist and Interpretive Paradigms

In the recent history of educational research, a conflict between the positivist and the interpretivist traditions has dominated from a philosophical perspective. The former seeks an objective quest of knowledge and a scientific approach to research aiming to generate 'general laws... which will enable teachers and policy-makers to predict what will happen if.....' (Pring, 2015, p.43), while the latter, pursuing a subjective quest of knowledge, 'purports to reveal the understandings and perceptions of the subjects of research....the peculiarities of each person's perceptions and interpretations of events that significant generalizations are impossible' (*ibid*, p.44).

Here it would be appropriate to draw attention to the term 'false dualism' coined by Dewey (1916, p.323, cited in Pring, 2015, p.45). This reflects the dichotomy between the quantitative approach to research, employed by the positivist tradition, and the qualitative approach, implemented by the interpretive one. Sharp distinctions between the two paradigms are usually based on ontology and epistemology, rather than 'appropriateness to task' (Pring, 2015, p.59), which can make researchers 'slave(s) to methodological loyalty' (Oakley, 1999). Drawing such contrasts puts educational research in the danger of being 'institutionalized' (Pring, 2015, p.59). What occurs is that quantitative and qualitative researchers both 'think they know something about society worth telling to others, and they use a variety of forms, media and means to communicate their ideas and findings' (Becker, 1986, p.122, cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p.14); eventually the process could turn into a 'paradigm war' (Gage, 1989, p.4) rather than a genuine quest for knowledge.

One issue that might lead to the strong allegiance researchers pay to one paradigm over another is a lack of understanding of the complexities related to the phenomena being investigated. Consequently, they fail to see the individual merits of each paradigm. Pring explains this as:

....failure to recognize the complexity of enquiry, and of the nature of that which is being inquired into, which causes the blurring of the distinctions within the so-called paradigms and results in the sharp dichotomy between them, characterized by contrasting conceptions of 'truth', reality and 'objectivity'.

(Pring, 2015, p.67)

With relevance to the concept of 'false dualism' and in criticism of the sharp dichotomy between paradigms, Pring (2015) elaborates that human beings are unique and it would be dangerous to ignore their individual difference when conducting educational research. Assuming generalizations from research outcomes without bearing in mind such uniqueness would put the reliability of our investigations at serious risk (Pring, 2015). He goes on to inquire whether this means that no generalizability can ever be claimed as a result of qualitative research outcomes. Are individuals unique to the extent that no commonalities can be found among them? This is what Pring calls the 'uniqueness fallacy' (*ibid*, p.50). He indicates that there seem to be some common human aspects which would allow us as researchers to claim some predictable generalizations concerning how humans will behave in certain circumstances, bearing in mind the exceptions that might occur due to the consciousness of each individual.

Pring goes on to elaborate that a deeper look into the nature of humans and the interconnection between the 'objective and the subjective, the physical and the mental, the personal and the social' (Pring, 2015, p.51), might allow researchers who vehemently adhere to one paradigm over another to realize that educational research embraces a rich variety of approaches and methods that could be employed to answer the different questions put forward. Along the same lines, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p.180) point out that research should not be 'paradigm-bound' as that would lead to 'stagnation and conservatism'.

To further enhance this concept of eclecticism and employing the appropriate strategies for planning and conducting research, Cohen, Manion and Morrison clarify that:

At issue... is the need for researchers not only to consider the nature of the phenomenon under study, but what are..... the ontological premises that underpin it, the epistemological basis for investigating it and conducting the research into it. These are points of reflection and decision, turning the planning of research from being solely a mechanistic ... exercise into a reflection on the nature of knowledge and the nature of being.

(Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.116)

Clough and Nutbourn (2002, p.19) advise the research community that 'The important point....is that we adopt research stances as they are appropriate to our work'. From the point of view of a researcher and teaching practitioner, I hold the belief that both paradigms, the positivist and the interpretive, with their associated quantitative and qualitative research approaches, are available for researchers to make informed, eclectic choices based on the focus of their investigations. This coincides with an important point put forward by Grix (2010) and illustrated in Figure 3 below. He attempts to clarify that the majority of research does not adhere 100% to one paradigm. In the Figure below, Grix 'clarifies the key epistemological positions for human sciences' where 'the shaded areas locate the borders between paradigms where a great deal of real world research takes place' (Grix, 2010, p.63). To further utilize the available paradigms, the knowledge acquired from one approach (quantitative) can pave the way for further investigation using the other (qualitative) and vice versa.



Figure 3: Continuum of Key Epistemological Positions in Human and Social Sciences
(Adapted from Grix, 2010, p.62)

For the purpose of the present investigation, qualitative data gathering methods are employed for the majority of the stages. The nature of the study calls for the need of such data to present as clear a picture as possible of the phenomena under investigation. Miles and Huberman (1994, p.10, cited in Koshy, 2010), highlight some of the characteristics of qualitative data, which contribute to its strength. They explain that qualitative data gathering methods ‘focus on naturally occurring, ordinary events in natural settings, so that we have a strong handle on what ‘real life’ is like’ (Koshy, 2010, p.115). They also talk about how qualitative data has the ‘ability to capture the ‘richness’ and holism’ of a situation’ (*ibid*, p.115).

3.3 Research Methodology Used

3.3.1 Choosing a Suitable Research Methodology

Research is a form of regulated investigation which results in the production of knowledge. The knowledge that any research produces is attained through the approach(es) employed, which are directly related to our beliefs as researchers and the focus of our investigation.

As discussed in the previous sections, our ontological perspectives of the world vary, and the way we perceive reality differs from one person to the other, accordingly, our epistemological outlook to the search for truth and acquisition of knowledge will differ. The study of human nature, as part of educational research, is quite an intricate issue; consequently, there are a variety of approaches to answer the multitude of questions which arise in our attempt to influence educational practice. These approaches offer a number of methodologies that are chosen based on the aim and nature of the educational inquiry and are determined based on the principle of 'fitness for purpose' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.115).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) explain that 'What the researcher does depends on what the researcher wants to know and how she or he will go about finding out about the phenomenon in question' (*ibid*, p.115). Accordingly, in order to arrive at a focus for our research we need to go observe, determine a problem and then decide what we, as practitioner-researchers, want to do about it. The decisions we make concerning how to try and improve the issues identified can entail the introduction of an intervention and the evaluation of 'the effects of [that] intervention' (*ibid*, p.115), which warrants the use of an action research model. For the purpose of the present research and for the aim of exploring the set objectives, action research was the most appropriate methodology.

3.3.2 Action Research and its Suitability to the Present Investigation

Reason and Bradbury-Huang (2008, p.3) describe action research as:

A set of practices that responds to people's desire to act creatively in the face of practical and often pressing issues in their lives in organizations and communities.

Since a main objective of this investigation is to explore how training teachers on the provision of OCF during classroom interaction would influence their beliefs and performance, as well as examine students' beliefs regarding the provision of such feedback, action research provided the tools for observing, exploring, reflecting and modifying practice if deemed necessary.

Action research as an approach to educational inquiry stemmed from the need for a more pragmatic approach to examining what goes on in the educational context. It mainly focuses on overcoming the 'persistent failure of research to impact on, or improve, practice' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.345). Consequently, action research is usually designed with an aim to 'bridge the divide between research and practice' (Somekh, 1995, p.340). It focuses on the practitioners as researchers, where they would inquire into an issue that arises from the teaching/learning context and decide to investigate it with a desire to improve practice, based on a careful examination of data resulting from rigorous research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Practitioners who are involved in action research usually investigate issues that they have determined during their work in the educational field.

A powerful rationale put forward for the use of action research comes from Ferrance (2000, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.344). He explains that when doing action research teachers work on certain issues that they have determined for themselves and are able to perform better when they examine their own work and are then able to consider different approaches. In this case research is regarded as a 'systematic study that combines action and reflection with the intention of improving practice' (Ebbutt, 1985, p.156). Another insightful definition of action research is put forward by Cohen and Manion (1994, p.186, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.345); they consider action research as 'a small-scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such an intervention'. This attests to the practicality of the research approach in the way it deals with everyday teaching/learning issues.

Since an important principle in action research is that 'practitioners research their own practice' (McNiff & Whitehead, 2011, p.8), it is also referred to as 'practitioner research' (McNiff, 2013, p.23). This practitioner based research is seen as a 'powerful tool for change and improvement' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.344) covering a wide range of issues involving problems with people, tasks and procedures or where a change in some feature can lead to a more desired outcome (ibid). This resonates with what took place in the present investigation. After careful observation of classrooms overtime, it was noticed that a considerable portion of the students' oral errors were left unattended by some teachers, which resulted in the researcher exploring means of modifying that teaching context.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) discuss the scope of action research and the various areas where it can be used; I will mention here those areas that are of relevance to this study which are teaching methods, attitudes and values, and continuing professional development (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.344). Since the present investigation focuses on training teachers on providing OCF during classroom interaction, there is an emphasis on their development as professionals, which impacts their teaching methods and influences their teaching values and attitudes inside the classroom. In addition, the study attempts to explore both teachers' and students' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF during classroom interaction, which also falls within the area of 'attitudes and values' mentioned above.

3.3.3 Stages of Action Research

The process of action research is distinguished by a number of stages that differentiate it from other research approaches. There are various ways in which those stages have been analyzed. Kurt Lewin (1946, 1948, in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011), one of the founders of action research, 'codified the action research process into four main stages: planning, acting, observing and reflecting' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.352). Although Lewin's model has been challenged (e.g. McTaggart, 1996), it paved the way for several models to follow (Altrichter & Gstettner, 1993; Ebbutt, 1985; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1981; Mckernan, 1991, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.352).

What those approaches have in common is the concept of action and reflection, which is a principle tenet of action research. For the purpose of the present investigation I will adopt the 'action-reflection cycle' shown in Figure 4, (McNiff, 2017; McNiff & Whitehead, 2011) which introduces a cyclical process of observing, reflecting, acting, evaluating, modifying and moving in new directions when necessary.

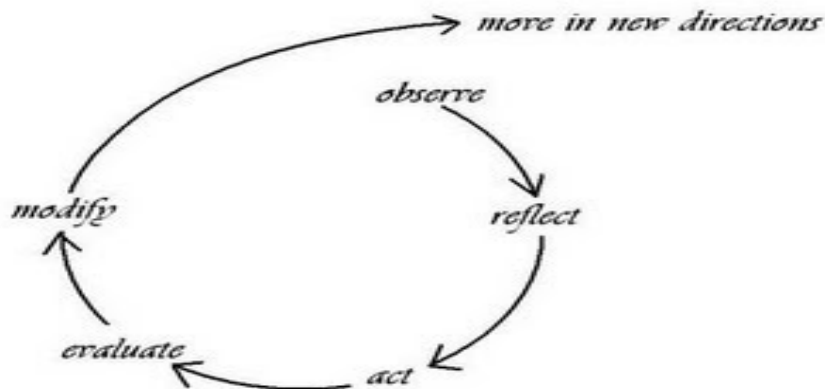


Figure 4: An Action-Reflection Cycle (McNiff, 2017, p.12)

3.3.3.1 Reflexivity in Action Research

Here it would be of relevance to talk about 'reflexivity' in action research. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) emphasize that 'the notion of *reflexivity* is central to action research' (p.359). Koshy (2010) also stresses the importance of reflexivity when using qualitative data; this point is of relevance to the present study which mostly relies on the analysis of qualitative data. Since my role as a researcher entails

training the participating teachers and being in continuous contact with them throughout the stages of the intervention, it is essential to acknowledge, through continuous reflection on procedures, the possibility of any bias or influence that I, as a practitioner-researcher, might have on the data collection and interpretation.

Hall (1996) presents an insightful explanation regarding the concept of reflexivity and what it entails. He explains that it is an attempt to:

1. monitor and reflect on one's doing of the research – the methods and the researcher's influence on the setting – and act responsively on these methods as the study proceeds: and
2. account for researcher constitutiveness. The process begins with being self-conscious (to the extent that this is possible) about how one's doing of the research as well as what one brings to it (previous experience, knowledge, values, beliefs and *a priori* concepts) shapes the way the data are interpreted and treated.

(Hall, 1996, p.30)

The above explanation of the concept of reflexivity coincide with what Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) discuss concerning what is needed when we as researchers come to address that notion. They elaborate on the importance of demonstrating 'a self-conscious awareness of the effects that practitioners [as] researchers are having on the research process, how their values, attitudes, perceptions, opinions, actions, feelings, etc. are feeding into the situation being studied' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.359). They further clarify the necessity for researchers to be as critically analytical of themselves as they are of their participants and of the research processes. Along the same lines, McNiff (2017, p.50)

explains that action researchers 'understand the need for stringent testing and evaluation at all stages of the research'.

Applying and reporting on such a thorough process can respond substantially to some of the criticisms directed towards action research as mainly focusing on action and not research. McNiff and Whitehead refer to such criticism by highlighting some disagreement in the action research field concerning:

The balance between taking action and doing research: many texts emphasize the need to take action but not to do research. This turns action research into a form of personal-professional development but without a solid research/knowledge base.

(McNiff & Whitehead, 2011, p.10)

To avoid facing such a peril, the practitioner-researcher needs to try and ensure the trustworthy reporting of evidence from the gathered data and the reflection on procedures, 'reflection-on-action' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.359), that would entail the provision of meaningful knowledge and allow for the opportunity to back up the claims behind that knowledge by clearly explaining how and why the improvement, if any, happened. To further highlight the importance of reflection in action research and its role as a constructive process, Reason and Bradbury (2008, p.4) clarify that 'action without reflection and understanding is blind, just as theory without action is meaningless'.

3.3.4 Participation and Power within Action Research

The extent of researcher involvement in action research necessitates the reflexivity process discussed above. McNiff and Whitehead (2011, p.8) describe action researchers as ‘insider researchers’ who consider themselves as an integral part of the investigation and ask ‘Is my/your work going as we wish? How do we improve it where necessary?’. They go on to explain that ‘action research is by default participative’ (*ibid*, p.12), which ‘breaks away the separation of the researcher and the participants’ (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.345). Due to its participative nature and the breaking away of separation, this form of research can be viewed as a ‘participatory..... democracy’ where participants and researchers are equal (Giroux, 1983, 1989, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.37). Such a democratic research context puts emphasis on the issue of ‘power and power relations’ (*ibid*, p.349) through providing the suitable means for participants to reflect and share their thoughts in an attempt for the ‘development of participant voice’ (*ibid*, p.354). Along those lines, David (2002) suggests that action research is seen as empowering when it grants participants the opportunity to impact on the development of research. In the context of the present study, participants were accorded such power through being encouraged to voice their thought and express their beliefs through engaging in various qualitative data gathering methods, which in turn proved beneficial for the cyclical process of action research.

To provide further argument concerning the importance of ‘active reflection upon practice’, Pring believes that:

Others become part of the reflective process ... the identification and definition of the problem, the values which are implicit within the practice, the way of implementing and gathering evidence about the practice, the interpretation of the evidence.

(Pring, 2015, p.154)

This can be viewed as further advocacy for the power that participants can have in action research. By having a say and expressing their voice throughout the research process, all stakeholders can play an active role in the change process and in rectifying the problem under investigation, which clearly attests for the role of action research as both a democratic and empowering activity. That being said, it is essential for the researcher to recognize and reflect on the power imbalances that might be unavoidable in the action research context. Although, as mentioned above, action researchers would strive for the research experience to be as democratic and as empowering for the participants as possible, the mere fact that researchers might be viewed as occupying different power, social, or professional positions from the participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018) could possibly swing the pendulum in the researchers' favour, putting unwarranted strain on participants.

3.3.5 Action Research: Knowledge and Practice

It would be of relevance at this stage to go back and discuss the nature of action research. As mentioned earlier, action research is a methodology that combines the two notions of action and research for the ultimate aim of developing practice and gaining knowledge. In attempting to explain what action research is about, the action research community has agreed that:

- Action [means] taking action to improve practice, and....
- Research [is] finding things out and coming to new understandings, that is, creating new knowledge. In action research knowledge is about how and why improvement has happened.

(McNiff & Whitehead, 2011, p.10)

McNiff and Whitehead (2011) further explain that the 'descriptions and explanations' (p.13) offered concerning the reasons behind the perceived improvement are referred to as 'theory'. They add that being able to clarify what one is doing and why he or she is doing it allows for a clear explanation of its importance. In the area of educational research, as in any other field of study, a lucid description of the outcomes of any investigation is essential to highlight its worthiness for the field.

Pring (2015) presents another view concerning this issue, he explains that it is not the aim of action research to generate new knowledge; it usually targets the improvement of practice. He goes on to elaborate that the outcome of research '.. is not a set of propositions but a practice or a set of transactions or activities which are not true or false but better or worse.' (*ibid*, p.153). However, when discussing the nature of action research he adds that 'research.... conducted by the teacher with a view to the improvement of practice should lead to a growth of knowledge, even if this is context bound, tentative, provisional and constantly open to improvement' (*ibid*, p.157). He elaborates that action research focuses on the 'particular' limiting

the opportunities for generalization. Nevertheless, Pring further explains that particular situations are not distinctive in every aspect, therefore ‘... action research in one classroom or school can illuminate ... practice elsewhere’ (*ibid*, p.153).

The above claims directly relate to the aim of the current investigation; firstly, the controversy between producing knowledge and improving practice. The present investigation attempts to achieve both by improving the classroom practice of the teachers through providing them with the necessary tools, during that process the researcher hopes to provide enough knowledge through continuous reflection on the procedures and the data outcomes. Secondly, the issue of generalizability is not a goal of this study; nonetheless, it aims to provide enough evidence that would suggest the usefulness of applying the same techniques in other contexts.

3.3.6 Advantages of Action Research

This section sheds light on various benefits of the action research approach, which deems it suitable for the present study. Some of the principles stated for action research are key to its usefulness. To start with, **collaboration** is a major aspect that allows those involved, researchers and participants, to work together and present their views. Such collaboration ultimately helps in better understanding the situation under investigation, and involves all stakeholders in the attempts to impact that situation. Secondly, the **cyclical process** of action research allows for a better understanding of the issue under investigation, as well as for continuous modification that helps in improving practice and producing the necessary

knowledge that could eventually feed into theory. This makes 'theory and practice... interdependent yet complementary phases of the change process' (Winter, 1996, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.347). Another aspect of action research is that it 'strives to be emancipatory' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.346). It would be overly ambitious to claim that the present investigation aims for the emancipation of the participating teachers or students. However, the form of emancipation I see as an action researcher is giving participants the confidence and the opportunity to express their views and opinions, knowing that there is no risk involved and that everything they contribute is totally confidential. Another feature of emancipation I perceive is raising the participating teachers' awareness to a variety of tools they can implement during classroom interaction with their students, as well as enabling them to implement the techniques they deem appropriate following a continuous process of reflective practice.

3.4 Research Context

The present investigation was conducted in five ESP classes in the College of Management and Technology at the Arab Academy for Science Technology and Maritime Transport (AASTMT). To provide a general background of the setting, the AASTMT, where the researcher has worked for a number of years now, is an educational organization operating under the auspices of the Arab League; consequently, the student population in some colleges is quite multi-cultural. The headquarters of the AAST is situated in Alexandria, Egypt, with branches in other

Egyptian cities and Arab countries. The Alexandria campus, where the research was undertaken, contains a number of colleges such as the College of Maritime Transport and Technology, College of Engineering and Technology, College of Management and Technology, College of Computing and Information Technology, and College of International Transport and Logistics. Learners in each of these colleges complete a minimum of two ESP courses during the first two semesters of enrolment. The curriculum in each of these courses aims at familiarizing learners with the technical terms related to their fields of study, as well as allowing them to practise the four language skills within the context related to their specialization.

Originally, the researcher had planned to conduct the study in one of the colleges where learners came from a variety of nationalities, as the College of Maritime Technology or the College of Engineering Technology, in order to benefit from the diversity in the outcomes of the study. However, that proved very difficult as the intervention would have interfered with the progress of the English language classes due to the fact that the syllabi of the ESP courses in these colleges did not lend themselves to a strong focus on oral communicative activities, and the inclusion of such activities for the purpose of the study would have disrupted the natural flow of the course.

This being said, it was decided to shift the focus of the study to another college, that of Management and Technology, where the student body consisted 99% of Egyptian learners. The choice of this setting, the ESP classes in the College of Management

and Technology, was influenced by three factors; first, the objectives of the English for Business courses emphasize the importance of the oral communicative aspect in language learning. Secondly, the course book used incorporates oral communicative activities as practice for all the grammatical structures introduced throughout the book; consequently, this facilitated carrying out the study in intact classes without disrupting the schedule of the ESP curriculum. Thirdly, upon joining AAST all learners sit a standardized Cambridge placement test to determine their proficiency level in the English language; in the College of Management and Technology in particular, students are then divided into groups based on ability to facilitate the teaching-learning process, which provided a convenient sample for the research. This process of ‘consider[ing] access to a possible sample at the very outset of the research’ (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.119), proved quite helpful later on during the different research cycles, as there was always the possibility of finding intact classes that met the criteria needed for the investigation.

The choice of a classroom setting, as opposed to a laboratory setting, is quite important for the purpose of this study, since a major factor under investigation is the relation between OCF training has and the participating teachers’ classroom practice and use of different OCF techniques, as well as the learners’ reaction to the provision of such feedback. Moreover, the importance of classroom-based research is supported in the literature. Spada and Lightbown (2009) emphasize that a great deal of language learning usually takes place in the classroom since the teacher is the most skilled language user interacting with a variety of students. In addition,

Lyster and Saito (2010) deduced that drawing conclusions from dyadic interactions in laboratory settings is quite restricting since the laboratory setting is a contrived one, where exchanges are different from teacher-student classroom interactions. In the case of OCF specifically, the effectiveness of classroom research is important, since research has shown that language teachers find it challenging to consistently provide OCF when necessary (Nicholas *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, various studies have concluded that teachers usually find it difficult to employ variety of techniques when providing OCF (Esmaeili & Behnam, 2014; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), which is one of the focuses of training teachers in the current investigation.

3.4.1 Participants

3.4.1.1 Teachers

The five participating teachers were English/Arabic bilinguals. They all specialized in English language studies at college, specialisms varying between literature, linguistics and translation, and educational studies. They had diverse teaching experience ranging between eight months and six years. The most experienced teacher, Dalila⁹, had experience in various teaching contexts between middle schools inside and outside Egypt, and college. The second most experienced teacher, Yosra, worked mainly with college students. The third teacher, Sherifa, had taught middle and high school students, college students, as well as graduates in professional English courses. The fourth participant, Sally, had been teaching college

⁹ In order to secure anonymity, all of the participating teachers' names are pseudonyms.

students for two years. The last teacher, Malak, was the least experienced; she had embarked on a teaching career a few months prior to the intervention. All five participants had taught ESP courses in AAST for a period ranging from 6 months to 3 years.

Recruitment of the teachers to partake in the current investigation was preceded by classroom observation visits conducted by the researcher. These initial visits aimed at observing the teachers' provision of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction and assessing the suitability of their participation in the study, in terms of whether or not they might benefit from OCF training. Initial classroom observations of teachers who partook in the first and second cycles, September 2015 (n=2) and February 2016, took place during the February 2015 academic semester. As for the fifth teacher Malak, who took part in the third cycle, September 2016, initial observation of her classroom teaching was conducted during the February 2016 academic semester (refer to Appendix S for timeline of participant recruitment). Permission was granted by the Dean of the Institute for Language Studies (ILS), where the researcher worked, to go into classes and observe the nature of teacher-student interaction. The ILS is the entity in charge of all ESP courses taught in the different colleges at AAST.

During the February 2015 academic semester, prior to commencing the first research cycle in September 2015, twelve teachers in various colleges at AAST were approached by the researcher to seek consent for observing their classes (Appendix

S). None of the teachers approached at that stage were working under the researcher's supervision; this was essential in order not feel pressured into agreeing to these observation visits. The researcher contacted the teachers by email outlining the general aim behind observing their classes and explaining that it was mainly to help the focus of her research in the preliminary stages. It was made quite clear that participation was voluntary. Out of the twelve teachers approached at this phase, nine agreed to be observed (Appendix S).

The criteria employed for these preliminary observations, with the aim of evaluating teachers' suitability to partake in the current investigation, were based on the negative feedback observation scheme developed by Ammar and Spada (2006, adapted by Kartchava 2012, p.128) (Table 2). The scheme contained five categories: (1) error, (2) ignore, (3) recasts, (4) prompts, and (5) other (for explanations of recasts and prompts, refer to Appendix A). It was used to record errors made by students during oral communication as well as the OCF strategies used by the teachers. For the purpose of the present study, if 'metalinguistic feedback' (Appendix A) was provided by the teacher, it was not included under 'prompts'. The former might be considered as a technique that impedes the flow of communication, which is not a focus of this investigation; consequently, it was included under 'other'. For the purpose of teacher training and data analysis later on, the OCF techniques of 'elicitation', 'repetition' and 'clarification requests' (Appendix A) will be referred to as 'elicitation' similar to Nassaji (2007) (Appendix B).

Table 2: Corrective Feedback Observation Scheme, adapted from Ammar & Spada (2006)

Student turn	Teacher turn			
Error	Ignore	Prompts	Recasts	Other

When an error occurred, it was added under 'error'. If the error went unattended it was recorded under 'ignore'. When the teacher responded to the error in an attempt to correct it, this was recorded as 'recasts', 'prompts' or 'other'. This distinction between forms of oral correction provided by the teacher was based on the main interest of the investigation, which focused on 'recasts' and 'elicitation' as forms of OCF which either provided the correction for the learners erroneous utterance (recasts) or pushed them to self-correct (elicitation).

Based on the above observation criteria, it was determined that seven of the nine teachers observed during the February 2015 semester were suitable to potentially participate in the study. Three of the teachers mostly left mistakes unattended and/or resorted to correcting them on the board either right after the error occurred, which disrupted the flow of communication, or globally at the end of the session. Two other teachers made use of a very limited variety of OCF techniques. The remaining two teachers mainly provided one OCF technique, namely metalinguistic feedback or recasts, at all stages of the lesson and mostly did not pay attention to learners' uptake following the provision of such feedback. Hence, the

classroom practice of all seven teachers, with regard to the provision of OCF, indicated a potential benefit from their partaking in the study and undergoing OCF training. From the researcher's point of view, such was an 'equitable selection and inclusion of participants' (Locke *et al.*, 2013, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p.454) since it was based on a pre-set criteria. However, this sheds light on the recurrent issue of power imbalance between the researcher and the participants, since the former gets to determine who is suitable for joining the study. One way of attempting to ease this power imbalance might be to clarify to the teachers (n=2) who did not meet the criteria the reasons behind not participating in the research.

Four of the above seven teachers were asked to volunteer for the first research cycle, commencing September 2015, and the other three for the second cycle, commencing February 2016 (refer to Appendix S for a detailed timeline). Before the beginning of each semester, the teachers were first contacted by email to ask for preliminary consent. For each cycle, two teachers agreed to participate. Worth mentioning here is that with the commencement of each cycle, the participating teachers were instructed by the researcher not to discuss any details related to the intervention with other members of the ILS staff in order not to compromise the reliability of the results for the following cycles. A face-to-face meeting took place between the researcher and the teachers during the first week of the semester to explain the general outline of the research. Since this was still part of the participant recruitment stage and 'the amount and quality of the information offered regarding

the research are entirely at the researcher's discretion' (Bravo-Moreno, 2003; Whitmore, 1994, in Karnieli-Miller, Stier & Pessach, 2009, p.282), limited details were given to the teachers about the OCF techniques. Because teachers were going to be observed prior to the onset of the training, the researcher was concerned that they might alter their teaching techniques if they anticipated the details of the training process. Despite being observed earlier during the February 2015 academic semester, these pre-training observation visits at the onset of each cycles were necessary in order to keep an updated record of the participating teachers' OCF practices prior to commencing the intervention. This enabled the researcher to examine the extent to which the training influenced the teachers' approach to the provision of OCF during later observation of their teaching.

As mentioned earlier, the same stages highlighted above to recruit teachers for the first and second cycles of data collection were also employed for the third cycle commencing September 2016 (refer to Appendix S). Two teachers gave consent for initial observation of their classes in February 2016. Classroom observations exhibited the teachers' limited knowledge of OCF techniques during classroom practice. Both teachers were contacted by the researcher as potential candidates for participation in the third cycle; however, only one teacher, Malak, expressed interest.

For the researcher, one major point of interest concerning the teachers, in addition to teaching experience, was the teacher training they had previously undergone.

Dalila, the most experienced teacher, had two years teaching experience upon joining the ILS and had completed a TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) training course. She reported that it had lasted for a month, two sessions per week each lasting for 4 hours. The second teacher, Yosra, had no experience upon joining the ILS. She had completed an intensive, one-week, language teacher-training course in the ILS before commencing as a teacher. Sherifa had two years of experience before joining the ILS; she had not undergone any formal teacher training. She explained that any training or 'teaching tips', as she referred to them, she had received was provided by her coordinators on the job. Sally had no teaching experience prior to joining the ILS. As part of her undergraduate courses to obtain a degree in Educational Studies, it was mandatory to do some training in a school, teaching 7-year-old students. As for Malak, she had no experience upon joining the ILS. However, after teaching for one semester she completed a comprehensive LTTC (Language Teacher Training Course) offered by the ILS for a period of five weeks. This was the summer prior to joining the study.

When teachers were asked about the nature of the training courses they had undergone, as well as the in-service training, and whether there was emphasis on how to deal with students' oral errors in class, they explained that focus on this area was minimal. The researcher wanted to investigate this further and inquired in detail about the content of these courses from the instructors who provided the training. The feedback corroborated what the participating teachers had mentioned earlier. There was no specific focus on the various techniques available for

providing OCF or on training teachers on how to provide such techniques during teacher-student classroom interaction. This presented a stronger case for the importance of the training provided during the current study.

3.4.1.2 Learners

The participants in this study are 298 undergraduates in the English department at the College of Management and Technology (170 females; 128 males). The students ranged between 18 and 20 years in age. They are Egyptian and speak Arabic as a first language. All 298 students completed the online questionnaire as requested by the researcher. However, only 125 students were part of the 5 intact classes taught by the participating teachers and observed by the researcher. A further group of students, from the five observed classes, participated in focus group meetings prior to (n=22) and following the completion (n=17) of the intervention.

Prior to joining the College of Management and Technology all students sit a Cambridge placement test dividing them into groups based on ability, in order to facilitate the teaching-learning process. The Cambridge Placement Test is an online adaptive test of general English, testing reading, use of English and listening. It is used to place learners at different levels of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) from Pre-A1 to C2 (Council of Europe, 2011). The threshold for joining the English department and registering the English for Business course, completed during the first semester of enrolment, is a B1 level, minimum score being 40/100% and ranging between 40-59%. Due to the fact that

the placement test does not have a speaking component, teachers are required to assess students' speaking skills during the first week of classes while conducting oral activities. Consequently, they could advise moving a student one level up or one level down. However, for the B1 level, students could only be moved up, because moving down would mean having to leave the English section and this was against college policy.

The groups that completed the questionnaire and the 5 classes observed were B1 level. The choice of B1 level students was based on previous observations conducted by the researcher of groups with various language levels. It was evident that B1 level students produced enough errors in oral production warranting the provision of OCF by the teacher, which presented a suitable medium for observing the influence of the training on both teachers and students. This was corroborated by the description of the B1 level language abilities stated in the CEFR handbook. In assessing spoken performance, focusing on different qualitative aspects of language use, it is stated that with regard to 'accuracy' the B1 student *'Uses reasonably accurately a repertoire of frequently used 'routines' and patterns associated with more predictable situations'* (Table 3, Council of Europe, 2011, p.29). This indicates that unpredictable situations that require the use of unfamiliar patterns present a challenge to the learner, and challenges in a language-learning environment lead to errors, consequently requiring correction by the teacher. In relation to 'fluency', the CEFR handbook states that a B1 student *'Can keep going comprehensibly, even though pausing for grammatical and lexical planning and repair is very evident,*

especially in longer stretches of free production' (ibid). This demonstrates the need for repair in longer episodes of oral production, which would call for the teacher's provision of OCF when necessary.

3.4.2 The English for Business Course

Description of the ESP course attended by the participating students during the intervention stated the general aim of equipping learners with the knowledge and skills necessary to help them participate in an English-speaking business environment. The overall course objective was to develop students' communication skills through engaging them in activities which promote different language skills, as well as target lexical and grammatical knowledge, all through oral and written business related materials. The primary aim was helping learners to actively interact using language related to their field of study. Clearly, oral communication was an important aspect of the course and a focus on grammatical knowledge was evident for promoting that.

The students had sessions with the teacher twice a week (for 15 weeks), and each session lasted for 1½ hour. During the sessions the students mainly worked from the assigned course book *'The Business 2.0 – B2 Upper Intermediate'*. Each unit in the book was divided into a number of modules, each with a different primary focus: reading, vocabulary, grammar, speaking or writing. Within the main focus of each module other skills were targeted; for example, listening and speaking activities

were integrated in all modules to further enhance the focus of each lesson, which directly targeted the communicative objective of the course.

For the purposes of collecting data for the present study, grammar classes were observed. The grammar module of each unit includes interactive activities which help students practise the grammatical focus of the unit in a meaningful, communicative way. Since such communicative activities required the use of oral interaction, it presented a suitable medium for the provision of OCF by each teacher. Three grammar classes were observed for each teacher with three different structural focuses. The first focused on the use of comparative and superlative forms, the second on the use of the passive voice, and the third on the use of question tags.

3.5 Training Teachers on the Provision of OCF in the Classroom

In his discussion of the meaning of education, Pring (2015) makes reference to 'teaching as an essential element in the normal educational process' (p.25). Consequently, researchers interested in what takes place inside the classroom should put effort into equipping teachers with the best tools available to enhance their teaching skills and attempt to investigate the ensuing effects.

A focus of this research is training teachers on the provision of OCF and examining the significance of such training with relation to their classroom teaching and their beliefs regarding the use of such feedback. During each cycle of research the training

process consisted of several stages (Appendix J); overall there were three separate cycles each lasting for eight weeks. During the first and second cycles, four teachers volunteered to participate, two different teachers taking part each semester. However, during the third cycle, only one teacher took part in the actual study and another teacher was recruited to participate in the training process, solely for the purpose of providing aid to the actual participant, as it would have been a challenging process for the researcher to conduct the training with only one teacher. This teacher showed interest in the study but made it clear that she would only take part in the training without having to sit for interviews or have her classrooms observed.

First, after interviewing each teacher individually at the beginning of the semester, and going in once to observe her class, the researcher met with both teachers and familiarized them thoroughly with the concept of OCF. During the session a table explaining different corrective feedback techniques was examined, as well as the operational definition and examples of using each technique, adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997) (Appendix A). Teachers were encouraged to reflect on the use of each technique in an attempt to raise their awareness of the importance of OCF in the classroom and eventually help them focus on 'recasts' and 'elicitations', the two main techniques highlighted throughout the study. The two techniques were further explored through analyzing samples of teacher-student classroom interaction, adopted from Nassaji, 2007 (Appendix B), in which different subtypes of each technique were used.

The second stage comprised practising the provision of different sub-types of recasts and elicitations through a sheet of mini-dialogues prepared by the researcher (Appendix C). Those highlighted the grammatical structures that would be the focus of the ensuing grammar session, comparative and superlative forms, and included errors usually made by learners while practising those forms. Both teachers were present and the researcher started off by role-playing the part of the teacher, with both teachers alternating the role of a student, and providing an OCF technique in response to the error in the mini-dialogue. Meanwhile, each teacher was asked to reflect on her colleague's use of OCF, based on her understanding of the techniques. This was followed by the two teachers turn taking the roles of teacher and student, providing both recasts and elicitation, and commenting on each other's uses of the different techniques concerning whether it was suitable or another technique/sub-type could have fit better with the type of error included. Throughout each of the three cycles, this process proved to help raise participants' awareness of the versatile use of the different subtypes of recasts and elicitations, and made them more analytical when attempting to comment on each other's use of OCF techniques and their suitability to the error. During the second and third cycles of data collection a similar sheet, including mini-dialogues, was prepared for practice prior to the second grammar lesson, which focused on the use of passive and active forms (Appendix D). In line with the cyclical process of action research, this addition was based on the feedback from one of the teachers taking part in the

first cycle; she commented that they would have benefited from another practice sheet further on in the semester in order to refresh their minds.

The following stage of the training process focused on using the interactive tasks included in the English for Business course book, *'The Business 2.0 – B2 Upper Intermediate'*, which the teachers were using in their classes, to practise with actual learners on a one-to-one basis. Volunteers from other departments, with similar proficiency levels to the learners participating in the actual study, were asked to take part in the 15-minute activity. Each teacher carried out the communicative activity with one/two students and was encouraged by the researcher to use as many subtypes of recasts and elicitations as she saw fit. The interaction was audio-recorded, after permission was granted by all participants, for the purpose of further reflection and analysis. Following this activity, each teacher, along with the researcher, listened to her recording and reflected on the use of OCF subtypes. These stimulated recall reflection sessions were audio-recorded for further coding and analysis by the researcher. Similar to the previous stage of the training process, this helped teachers become more aware and more objective, especially since they were reflecting on their own performance.

One stage of training focused on the video-recordings from parts of the observed sessions. Klapper (2006) states that part of teacher development is the ability to critically reflect on classroom practice. This would enable teachers to evaluate their performance and make informed decisions concerning ensuing teaching practice.

Therefore, video-recording parts of the sessions allowed for further review of the teachers' use of OCF techniques during interaction with students. The participating teachers, as well as the students in each class, granted permission for the video recordings. Two students in each class expressed discomfort at their faces showing in the video-recordings and the researcher assured them that she would make sure the camera was not focused on them.

Early on in the first cycle, the original plan was to have teachers watch the video recordings on their own and write up their reflections. However, when they were approached by the researcher they both indicated it would be too time consuming, as they were both busy with postgraduate studies. The researcher respected this, as the information sheet given to teachers at the onset of the intervention stated clearly that they were always encouraged to express their opinions about the training process. Consequently, the idea was discarded and the plan was for the researcher to use the video-recordings for analysis of the teachers' classroom practice. However, in answering the first e-journal question (this will be explained in detail later in the chapter) emailed following the first stages of the training process, one of the teachers participating in the first cycle, Sally, commented on her benefit from the stimulated recall activity utilizing the audio-recorded training session with the volunteer students, and further commented 'I also believe if I watch a recorded video of my teaching in class, the discussion with (*name of the researcher*) will help me learn a lot'. Consequently, and in line with the action-reflection process of action research, the researcher put forward the idea of the

second stimulated recall activity utilizing the video-recordings from observation two, the first of the three observations conducted throughout the training process. For the first data collection cycle, both teachers welcomed the stimulated-recall activity acknowledging its potential benefit for their teaching practice, and the activity was conducted immediately following the observation session. In the second cycle, one teacher, Sherifa, was quite enthusiastic, while the other, Dalila, despite acknowledging the benefits of such an activity, expressed discomfort at watching her teaching videos. It is worth mentioning here that Dalila had the longest teaching experience, 5 years, of all five participating in the study.

The video-recordings from Sherifa's second observation were viewed by both herself and the researcher. This was carried out as planned, immediately following the observation session, and the discussion of the video proved quite fruitful. Of interest here is that Dalila approached the researcher expressing an interest in reflecting on her teaching videos with the researcher; this occurred after Sherifa had reported on her video-viewing experience to Dalila and the latter felt the activity would be of benefit to her as well. The same approach was followed for cycle three of data collection with Malak, who did not express any reservations concerning reflecting on her teaching videos with the researcher.

Due to time restrictions and the busy schedules of both the teachers and the researcher, the video-viewing stimulated recall activity was done only once. Initially, and in attempt not to put too much pressure on each teacher, they were

encouraged to approach the researcher as soon as they found time to fit the activity in their schedule, as it needed around 45 minutes. Four of the teachers expressed their interest in watching the videos immediately following the observed lesson and the remaining one, Dalila, did the activity the next day. The discussion of the teaching videos focused on the use of the various OCF techniques and why the teacher used each technique after certain errors; whether or not she would, now that she is reviewing what actually went on, change the techniques she used and why. Moreover, it focused on the students' uptake following the provision of OCF and whether the teacher believed; they got the corrective purpose behind it, and how she reacted following their uptake/no uptake.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

At this stage it is important to refer to the research questions in order to understand how the methods of data collection were effective in attempting to answer these questions. The earlier discussion of the research participants makes it evident that the data necessary to answer the research questions will be provided by both the learners and the participating teachers; Table 3 below presents a research methods matrix including the research questions and methods of data gathering for each. The methods employed to answer the questions are mainly qualitative in nature, with one quantitative instrument. Such qualitative methods allow for a closer interpretive look at the process and the outcomes. They present the opportunity to represent the teachers' voice and give them the chance to reflect and be an active

part in the development of the action research process. The following sections discuss these methods in detail.

Table 3: Research Methods Matrix

Research Questions	Methods of data gathering
1. What are students' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction?	1. Pre-intervention questionnaires 2. Pre-intervention focus groups
2. What are teachers' beliefs and classroom practices regarding the provision of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction?	1. Pre-intervention classroom observations 2. Pre-intervention interviews
3. To what extent does training teachers on providing OCF affect their classroom teaching?	1. Two stimulated recall activities with each teacher: the first utilizing the audio-recordings from the practice session, and the second making use of the video recordings from observation two 2. Three classroom observations for each teacher following commencement of the training process 3. Reflective guided electronic journals (e-journals) 4. Reflective feedback meeting with each teacher following observation three 5. Post-intervention interviews
4. To what extent does training teachers on providing OCF affect their students' beliefs?	Post-intervention focus group meetings

3.6.1 Interviews

Interviews are considered a form of social experience manifesting several features of everyday life where 'interviewers and interviewees co-construct the interview' (Walford, 2001, p.90). In that regard, interviews are viewed as flexible tools for collecting data during which several sensory channels are used allowing participants to give spontaneous answers and presenting researchers with the opportunity to inquire about issues deeper than what was originally planned for in the interview questions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). However, interviews prove to be challenging regarding the issues of '... mutual trust, social distance and interviewer's control' (Cicourel, 1964 cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Karnieli-Miller, Stier and Pessach (2009) mention the term 'power imbalance' (p.279) between researchers and participants, which would relate to the issue of interviewer control. There are valid arguments from my viewpoint for both sides having control, although not equal, over the interviewing process. Discussing the power of the researcher, Kvale (2004, cited in Brinkman & Kvale, 2005, p.164) believes that 'the interviewer initiates the interview, determines the interview topic, poses the questions and critically follows up on the answers, and also terminates the conversation'. Concerning the issue of participants' role, Karnieli-Miller, Stier and Pessach (2009) argue that researchers do not have absolute power over the interviewing process because the participants can decide the extent to which they want to cooperate in the discussion. They can for example want to alter the focus of

the discussion at some point (Hutchinson & Wilson, 1992, in Karnieli-Miller, Stier & Pessach, 2009, p.283), or they might decide to end the interview abruptly.

The notion of power is important in relation to the interview reliability (Cohen, Manion & Morison, 2011). Despite the above points, it can still be argued that the power balance favours the researcher to an extent. Consequently, she/he needs to take all measures necessary to minimize the 'power imbalance'. In the case of the present study, as the researcher was a member of the ESP staff teaching and academically coordinating the English for Business courses for a number of terms, it was taken into consideration that no coordination would be undertaken by the researcher for the classes taking part in the study. An academic coordinator is responsible for organizing the course syllabus, preparing any extra teaching materials used in addition to the course book, and providing guidance for teachers in areas related to classroom management, teaching techniques and assessment. In addition, the researcher made sure she was not academically coordinating the participating teachers in any of the other courses they were teaching. This stemmed from an awareness that her being in a position of authority might put pressure on the participating teachers, making them feel coerced to take part in the study; in addition, the researcher did not want to be in a position that might lead the teachers to express what they thought she wanted to hear, instead of their genuine beliefs throughout the whole experience. With relevance to that issue, Karnieli-Miller, Stier & Pessach (2009, p.282) believe that the 'quality of the data shared with the researcher depend in part on the relationship that develops between the researcher

and various participants'. Despite taking such measures, the researcher still resorted to triangulation in data collection to attempt a higher degree of reliability with the outcomes. Silverman (2013, p.287-8) refers to triangulation as an 'attempt to get a true 'fix' on a situation by combining different ways of looking at it (method triangulation) or different findings (data triangulation)'.

Two interviews were conducted with each teacher, one prior to and one following the completion of the intervention (Appendices E & F). The pre-intervention interviews were carried out early on in the semester, during week two (Appendix J), before familiarizing teachers with the concept of OCF and introducing the different techniques used to provide it. The aim behind the interview was to explore each teacher's beliefs regarding the importance of oral classroom interaction with the learners, the role of oral error correction in the language classroom, in addition to getting a picture of their approach to error correction. Interviews were conducted in a quiet room on campus during lunch break. After being granted permission by the teachers, two small recording devices were used for audio-recording. The use of an audio-recording device was deemed the most useful for making a record of the participating teachers' replies. Despite being time consuming in terms of transcribing, it allows for the analysis of the whole interview. Following the completion of the intervention, including training the teachers and observing their grammar classes, a post intervention interview was conducted with each participant separately to explore whether their beliefs about the provision of OCF had changed,

and the extent to which the training process was effective with relation to classroom practice.

Both the pre- and post-interviews are 'standardized open-ended interviews' (Patton, 1980, p.206, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.412), which would play a role in the reliability of the outcomes. A strength of this kind of interview is that all the participating teachers were asked the same questions; consequently, their responses were comparable (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). This was of specific importance in the post-intervention interviews, which explored the relation between the training process and the participants' beliefs and teaching practices. However, due to the individual differences and varying teaching styles, in some cases the responses prompted unplanned questions from the researcher, allowing a clearer understanding of the extent to which the training influenced the ensuing teaching process. This relates to Pring's view (2015, p.540) that in interviews 'meanings are 'negotiated' between researcher and researched', which would ultimately bring up new issues that the researcher would want to probe into. In such a case it becomes clear how interviews can be a method of data collection in which 'the research is responsive to participants' own frames of reference and response' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.413).

The researcher's director of studies and a number of the researcher's colleagues piloted the pre-intervention research questions (Appendix E); the feedback was positive and the questions proved to be clear and to generate discussions, as

intended. The post-intervention interview questions included similar themes to the pre-intervention ones, with more emphasis on the use of OCF, allowing the participating teachers to reflect on the OCF training process. These post interview questions were piloted with two colleagues who were generally familiar with the area of the present research and their feedback indicated that the focus of the questions was clear and that they did raise awareness to the issues under investigation. Piloting of both pre and post interview questions maintained the clarity of wording, which was an extra measure of reliability. Oppenheim (1992, p.147, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.204) argues that the wording of questions is essential and that 'error and bias (in responses) can stem from alterations to wording' (*ibid*).

3.6.2 Questionnaire Exploring Learners' Beliefs Concerning OCF

To explore learner beliefs about CF, a questionnaire adapted from Kartchava (2012) was administered (Appendix G). The original questionnaire was in French and included 40 items. A native speaker of English who had worked as a teacher of French for almost two decades translated the questionnaire. The 40 items were cut down to 26. The main reason was to remove items that did not relate to the focus of the study. Secondly, some items in the original questionnaire were rephrased more than twice; consequently, for the sake of brevity and time constraints, as respondents often fill questionnaires in a hurry (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011), basically two rephrases of an item were included. This was the minimum number possible to demonstrate content validity because 'the instrument must show that it

fairly and comprehensively covers the domain or items that it purports to cover' (Carmines and Zeller, 1979, p.20, cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p.188). The 26 items tackle different features of OCF based on the outcomes of CF literature (e.g., Kartchava, 2012; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Horwitz, 1988). Guided by the five questions formulated by Hendrickson (1978) in relation to how errors should be corrected in a FL teaching context, the questionnaire items refer to 'expectations for feedback and its importance, as well as the timing, amount, mode, and the manner in which CF should be delivered' (Kartchava, 2012, p.151). The questionnaire also examines learners' views concerning two CF techniques (elicitations and recasts), which are of particular interest to this research study. It explores the participants' opinions regarding being corrected by their teachers, as opposed to being encouraged to self-correct. To complete the questionnaire, learners indicated their degree of agreement with each statement on a 1 to 5 scale, '1' indicating strong agreement and '5' strong disagreement. In an attempt to maintain validity and reliability of the research instrument, the entire questionnaire was previously piloted with learners of language levels similar to those participating in the study and proved easy enough to understand without the need for external assistance; consequently, it was accessed online in English, without the inclusion of an Arabic translation, the participants' mother tongue.

All the groups completed the online questionnaire during Weeks 1 and 2 of the semester, before commencing the intervention, and it was reported during the piloting period that it took between 7 to 10 minutes to complete. As the researcher

went into classes explaining to participants how to access the questionnaire online, she included an example on the board and made sure learners understood what was required of them; in addition, there was another example when learners accessed the questionnaire online. At the beginning of the questionnaire there was a space for learners to add their registration numbers¹⁰; these are identification numbers given to learners upon joining the AAST. One reason this item was added was to be able to identify learners who took part in the focus group discussion later on to tally their responses and expressed thoughts to their answers in the questionnaire. Learners were reassured one more time of the anonymity of their answers and that no one would have access to them other than the researcher.

The aim behind designing an online questionnaire was accessibility for learners and ease of data analysis later on for the researcher, since result percentages were generated automatically. The questionnaire was prepared using Google forms and was accessed through a chat room by using a specific URL, which was given to all participating learners. To try and secure a high return rate, which is usually an issue with online questionnaires, the class teachers, some of whom were participants in the study, were instructed by the researcher to allot 10 minutes at the end of two sessions during the first two weeks of the semester for learners to complete the online questionnaire. It was made clear that this should not take from the actual

¹⁰ Registration numbers are given to students upon joining the university. Through those the researcher could access information related to each student's gender, age, entry placement test results and the high school they graduated from. Permission was granted by students to access such information on the AAST online system.

lesson time and should be done after completion of the lesson plan. Learners either used their laptops, tablets or mobile phones. Those who did not have internet access during class time were encouraged to complete it at home. Although learners were asked to complete the questionnaire in class in the presence of the teacher, it was clarified that the process was voluntary, so they would not feel pressured due to their teacher's presence. Teachers, however, reported that when some students showed reluctance they were encouraged by others who had already completed the questionnaire. They explained that it was easy to complete, did not take a long time and actually focused on issues that directly related to their learning situation in the classroom. This suggests that participants are usually more interested and get more involved when the focus of the research has the potential of directly benefiting them.

3.6.3 Focus Groups for Exploring Learners' Beliefs

As part of the triangulation process, and in an attempt to include learners' voice, focus group meetings were conducted with volunteer members from classes taught by the participating teachers. Focus groups are seen as a form of group interviews; however, they rely 'on the interaction within the group who discuss a topic supplied by the researcher' (Morgan, 1988, p.9, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011, p.436). Accordingly, 'diverse and different views may be generated' by the participants (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010, p.194) which can lead to outcomes that were unanticipated. It has been advocated that in focus groups, the interaction

between the participants is what allows the data to emerge (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011, p.436).

The recruiting process for volunteers took place while the researcher went into classes explaining the focus of the research and asking for the completion of the questionnaire. She explained the general aim behind the study and asked for volunteers to join the focus groups. While attempting participant recruitment for the focus groups, the researcher had to tread cautiously bearing in mind the power issues at play. Due to the researchers' occupation as an instructor, a fact which might be easily recognized by many students despite not being taught by the researcher, it was important that they would not feel an obligation to participate. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) explain, 'there is a blurred dividing line between the teacher qua teacher and qua researcher' (p.454); accordingly, we as action researchers need to acknowledge that when approaching our prospective participants. In order not to put any pressure on learners to join, the class teacher circulated a paper at the end of the lesson and those who were interested in taking part wrote their names. They were then asked to meet with the researcher during their break time at a set date and specified room on campus. The turnout for each of the five classes was a minimum of three and a maximum of six learners per group. The reason behind choosing the setting for the focus group meetings was one of mere convenience. The learners had between an hour and an hour and a half break each day, which presented ample time for conducting the focus group; in addition, if the meeting was held somewhere away from campus the turnout would have been

much smaller in number. In addition, the setting of the chosen rooms was 'conducive to discussion' (Newby, 2010, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.437), they were quiet, sound proofed, and the desks and chairs were movable allowing the researcher to prepare the seating arrangements in a way that got the whole group to face each other.

Volunteers were given information sheets (Appendix O) outlining the objectives of the study, highlighting complete anonymity and explaining that they were free to withdraw at any point. They were then given consent forms (Appendix P) to sign and return. The researcher opted to audio record the meetings in order to have a complete record of what was discussed. Two small recording devices were used, which were tested for clarity of sound beforehand. Nevertheless, the researcher was apprehensive during the first focus group meeting that the recording devices would distract the participants and inhibit them from freely expressing their thoughts. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) explain that the presence of mechanical equipment for recording might 'constrain the respondents' (p.424), so doing without it might be less intimidating. In such a case, relying totally on the interviewer's memory might put the validity of the data at risk. Another option would be taking down notes during the interview, which Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) believe might be 'highly off-putting for some respondents' (p.424). On the same issue, Blaxter, Hughes & Tight (2010) believe that 'recording may...make respondents anxious, and less likely to reveal confidential information' (p.196). The initial plan was to test the process of audio-recording interviews once and if it did

not work the plan would be adapted to finding an assistant to take notes. During the first meetings, learners were asked if they minded the presence of the recorders, which was mentioned in the information sheets they had received before, they indicated no reservations and it was observed that once they got involved in the process they hardly noticed the devices and talked freely. In an attempt to ease the way for learners to express their thoughts and get more involved in the discussion, they were encouraged to talk in the language that made them more comfortable, either English their L2, or Arabic their L1. To facilitate the transition between the two languages, whenever the researcher noticed a participant struggling to express their thoughts in English, she would initiate the use of Arabic; this led to a smooth progression of the discussion for an average of 40 minutes per group.

Meetings were held twice with each focus group, once before commencing the intervention and once after its completion (Appendices E & F). The pre-intervention focus group meetings aimed at exploring learners' previous experience at language learning with a focus on classroom interaction with their teachers. The topics tackled were: the importance of OCF provided by the teacher, the different techniques they recall being used for correcting their oral errors and which of those they preferred, the affective aspect of being corrected orally by the teacher, and whether they believed such OCF assisted in the learning process. Following the completion of the intervention each focus group was invited for another meeting to reflect on their experience during the ESP course. Attrition occurred in some groups with a minimum number of two learners turning up per group. The post-

intervention topics revolved around the same concepts as the pre-intervention meetings with a focus on the English language classes and teachers during the semester. The aim was to examine whether the OCF approaches introduced in the training process were reflected in teaching and had a role in reshaping learners' attitudes and beliefs towards the role of OCF in the classroom. Research has shown the importance of gathering data concerning students' beliefs over more than one stage. Ritzua (2013) in her analysis of the development of learning beliefs expressed by university students in Switzerland stated that 'several phases of data collection are necessary to show how beliefs change over time' (p.109).

3.6.4 Classroom Observations and Video Recording of Sessions

Observations are considered a form of data collection that offers the researcher deep insights into the phenomenon being studied. They present an opportunity to directly examine what is taking place through gathering 'live data' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011, p.456) which allows for the possibility of producing more reliable outcomes. Observations, moreover, are a suitable approach for 'getting at 'real life' in the real world' (Robson & McCartan, 2016, p.320) which allows the observer, through a process of triangulation, to juxtapose what the participants actually do in reality with what they report through other data collection methods such as, interviews or reflective diaries. Mills (2014) describes several 'purposes for observation (which) include process and outcomes of interventions' (p.41). Accordingly, it is deemed a suitable data gathering method within the action research methodology applied in the present study.

Several approaches could be used to record data gathered through observations, such as field notes taken during the process, reflections written down by the researcher following the observation sessions, or audio-visual recordings for analysis at a later stage. Two of the previous processes have been reported to be the most efficient. The first is the immediate recording of data, through field notes, during observation sessions, which avoids the resulting pitfalls in case of a gap between the act of observing and that of recording the events, such as 'selective or faulty memory' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.456). The other method, audio-visual recordings, described by Mills (2014, p.40) as a 'rich source of data', allows the observer to take a deeper and more analytical look at the observed event. This serves two purposes, firstly, it allows for rigorous examination of the data which improves internal validity. Secondly, it presents an opportunity for the emergence of other patterns or themes that otherwise would have gone unnoticed because video recordings offer 'a more unfiltered observational record than human observation' (Simpson & Tuson, 2003, p. 51, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.470).

At the beginning of each of the three cycles, prior to the onset of the intervention, each of the participating teachers was observed during one of the grammar lessons, which lasted between 60 and 75 minutes, to get a clear picture of their approach towards classroom interaction and how they deal with learners' oral errors. These observations took place during the fourth English session of each semester, second session of week two, prior to the pre-intervention interviews. Both data collection

procedures helped yield a better picture of the teachers' beliefs and their actual classroom practices before commencing the training process; Robson states that 'observation provides a reality check' (Robson, 2002, p.310, cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.456) which allows for comparing the teachers' behaviour to their stated beliefs. The choice of the grammar session served two purposes, firstly, it allowed the researcher to observe interaction during the process of teaching/learning grammar, and this was important since the training process was mainly focusing on the teachers' provision of OCF in response to grammatical errors. Secondly, the timing of the observation proved suitable as it showed a certain level of familiarity between the teacher and the students, since they had already met during three previous sessions since the beginning of the semester.¹¹ The data from these observations were video-recorded; in addition, field notes were taken by the researcher during the sessions. The observation had a structured focus looking at the instances and the nature of teacher-student interaction throughout different stages of the lesson, as well as the episodes of OCF (refer to Table 2 earlier in this chapter, section 3.4.1.1). Attention was paid to how teachers dealt with students' oral errors, whether or not they provided corrective feedback, and how they provided that feedback in terms of the techniques used.

Following the onset of the intervention and the training process, the participating teachers were observed several times; field notes were taken by the researcher and

¹¹ The preset course schedule for all the observed classes included a grammar session during the second session of week two of the semester. This well served the purpose of the current investigation and prevented any kind of disruption to the course schedule.

sessions were video-recorded to examine whether the training influenced their classroom teaching when compared to the initial observations. The observations and the training process spanned over a period of 8 weeks (Appendix J), during which observations took place according to the set schedule of the taught course at the sessions allocated for teaching grammar. During each of the three cycles, each teacher was observed 3 times with the same group of learners.

The use of video recordings allowed for scrutinizing the data in more detail and presented a chance for thorough analysis that was not dependent on previous interpretation based on field notes. As the use of video cameras for observations can be quite intrusive (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011) the issue had to be handled with care. Learners' consent was taken from the very beginning concerning video recording the observed sessions (Appendices M & N). During the pre-intervention observations, the researcher used a tripod camera centred at the back of the class to be as unobtrusive as possible. However, it was noticed that learners were conscious of its presence and when the researcher talked to a few of them after one session they reported being a bit intimidated because the camera was visible whenever they turned; some suggested it would be better if it was small enough to go unnoticed. Accordingly, the decision was made to switch to a smaller video-recorder that could rest on a small desk centred at the back of the class, in order not to block the view. The camera was focused on the teacher to capture her use of OCF techniques; although the faces of the learners did not all show, their voices and responses were

clear and the researcher made an effort to record in her notes the learners' body language if relevant to the provision of CF and the resulting uptake.

A major focus of the classroom observation sessions that took place during the intervention was examining the relation between the training and the provision of OCF techniques. The observations looked at the types of OCF techniques used by the teachers, mainly focusing on elicitations and recasts, the major focus of the training. Since the focus of the observation was structured and part of the analysis was examining the frequency of the use of each OCF techniques by the teacher, the convention of intra- and inter-rater reliability applied (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011).

3.6.5 Gathering Reflective Data from Teachers during Several Stages of the Intervention

Reflective practice has been one of the methods widely utilized in teacher training and professional development (Klapper, 2006). As mentioned earlier, Schön's (1987) work on reflective practice has been a cornerstone for using the reflective approach in teacher development. He states that the nature of work in the education field warrants 'subjective, qualitative judgments' (Schön, 1987, cited in Klapper, 2006, p.34) and relies heavily on the intrinsic understanding characteristic of regular activities, which makes the educational practitioner constantly modify their actions based on continuous experience. Understandably, this justifies the presence of a reflective model through which the process of teacher development makes use

of the spontaneous modifications done in the teaching process in a more guided manner that can help teachers focus and make more informed adjustments (Klapper 2006). This leads to the two concepts of 'reflection on action' and 'reflection in action'.

'Reflection on action' is an action taken after the event (Klapper, 2006), for example after the completion of a lesson. The concept is also associated with the work of Kolb (1984) focusing on experiential learning. As its name suggests, it depends on learning through experience. Kolb presented an experiential learning cycle (Figure 5) including four stages: experiencing, reflecting, conceptualizing (forming theories/hypothesis), and finally experimenting based on the previously formed theories. According to his learning cycle, Kolb stipulates that 'knowledge results from the combination of grasping experience and transforming it' (Kolb, 1984, p.41). This is seen as reflection on action, or more precisely 'reflection for action' (Schon, 1983, 1987), and is considered a means of creating knowledge. The process starts by the teacher reflecting on a recent experience through analyzing specific actions, which would either be accepted as is or would be open for modification. In the latter case, new conceptualizations could be formed which would lead to further application and experimentation in the classroom.

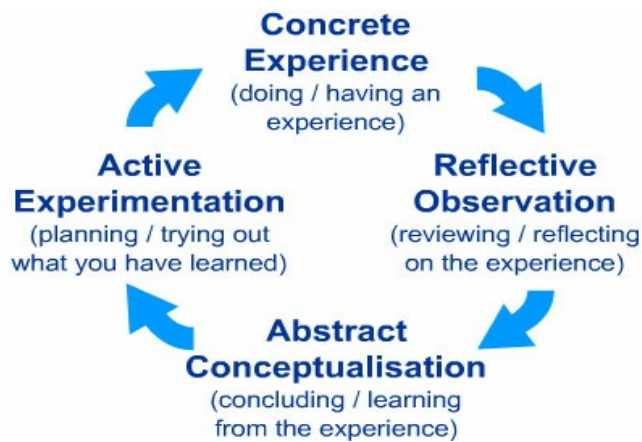


Figure 5: Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle (McLeod, S., 2013)

'Reflection in action', on the other hand, refers to decisions teachers make intuitively (Klapper, 2006) during the teaching process without referring to background theory. In his book *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals think in action*, Schön (1983) refers to 'reflection-in-action' as a phenomenon of everyday life. He states that 'both ordinary people and professional practitioners often think about what they are doing....while doing it' (p.50). He elaborates that professionals can 'make innumerable judgements of quality for which [they] cannot state adequate criteria' (*ibid*, p.51). If we apply this to the teaching practitioner, it is evident that she/he is faced with various classroom issues on daily basis that have to be dealt with on impulse. Such spontaneous decisions usually become easier to make and the transition becomes smoother from one step to the other with repetition and practice. Therefore, in my opinion, teachers should be equipped with the necessary knowledge and enough practice that would allow them to make those spontaneous decisions in an informed manner, i.e. 'they rely on intuition which is based on an

unconscious insight into acquired knowledge' (Atkinson and Claxton 2000, p.5, cited in Klapper, 2006, p.36).

The reflection sought for the purpose of this data collection is 'reflection on action' which would pave the way to informed 'reflection in action'. This was done through three methods, in the hope that they would complement each other: stimulated recall activities, guided electronic journals (e-journals), and a post-observation feedback session.

The first method was two stimulated recall activities which aimed at enabling teachers to reflect on their use of OCF. As mentioned earlier, one stimulated recall activity was conducted using the audio recorded training session at the onset of the training process, and the second activity made use of the video recordings from observation two, the first of the three classroom observations conducted throughout the training process. The use of both audio and video stimuli was important as they are assumed to better enable teachers to access their memory, which enhances the ability to verbalize their thoughts. Gass and Mackey (2000) explain that stimulated recall activities are 'introspective methods that represent a means of eliciting data about thought processes involved in carrying out a task or activity' (p.1).

The second method was the guided e-journals. Initially, the idea was to encourage the participating teachers to keep a reflective journal throughout the whole intervention. However, based on previous experience, which indicated that keeping

regular journals was sometimes too challenging and would place unrealistic demands on teachers, the researcher opted for a guided e-journal. This would be completed by teacher and returned via emails. The researcher decided to send teachers one reflection question every other week throughout the period of the intervention, with the aim of guiding them to reflect on different aspects of the training process and on their provision of OCF during classroom interaction with their students. This allowed time for reflection and gave teachers enough chance to send their feedback at a time suitable to each of them.

Teachers were asked to record their thoughts and suggestions, in as much detail as possible, in response to the emailed questions, as it would enhance both the validity and the reliability of the training process and subsequently the whole study. The emailed questions are (for the timeline of emailing the questions, refer to Appendix J):

Email 1:

What are your thoughts on the training process so far? Do you have any suggestions for modifying the steps?

Email 2:

How do you think the training has affected your provision of oral corrective feedback following your students' spoken errors in the classroom?

Email 3:

Which oral corrective feedback techniques do you think work better with the different group levels that you teach? Why?

The participants were encouraged to send their feedback as soon as they could while the events of the training process and their teaching were still fresh in their minds. The return rate was quite good, 86.7%, and the maximum response time was three days from the time each question was sent.

The third method for getting teachers to reflect on their teaching was a reflective feedback session following observation three. The aim here was to tap into their classroom experience while still clear in their memories with concise, focused questions that would give the researcher an idea of the extent of their awareness to what was going on during the lesson in relation to their use of OCF and the learners' reaction. Another reason was to give teachers an opportunity to reflect and consider, if they were given another chance, whether they would have opted to deal with any of the students' erroneous utterances using a different OCF technique.

3.7 Ethical Considerations

Since the current investigation deals mainly with human participants, the issue of ethical considerations is of the utmost importance throughout the different stages of the research process. The above discussion of research methods clarified several ways through which this issue was considered and the following section will elaborate on it in more detail.

As highlighted so far, the present study relies mainly on qualitative data collection methods. Creswell (2009, p.117, in Koshy, 2010, p.114) explains that qualitative

research is interpretive by nature requiring from the researcher ongoing and in-depth communication with the participants which inevitably ‘introduces a range of strategic, ethical and personal issues into the qualitative research process’ (Locke *et al.*, 2007, cited in Koshy, 2010, p.115). Consequently, it is understood that qualitative data collection procedures might entail paying a closer attention to ethical considerations.

Pring (2015, p.173) mentions that the matter of ethics in educational research ‘refers to the rules or principles which should be adhered to in the conduct of a piece of educational research’. He believes that the researcher has to contemplate several moral issues and realize that ‘moral judgments or decisions require a great deal of deliberation in the light of the many factors which have to be taken into account’ (*ibid*, p.174). Cohen, Manion and Morrison discuss the difficult situation researchers might face when considering the ethical dimension of their research.

They state that:

A major ethical dilemma is that which requires researchers to strike a balance between the demands placed on them [in their] pursuit of truth, and their subjects’ rights and values potentially threatened by the research.

(Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.75)

This means that in our search for truth and knowledge, we need to bear in mind our participants’ best interests and try to the best of our abilities to preserve their rights of confidentiality and freedom of choice.

Ethical procedures to be adhered to in educational research are stated by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) 2011. The guidelines in BERA were of significance to the present investigation as they stated that any research conducted outside of the UK must follow the same ethical procedures of research undertaken within the UK. Some of the main principles included for ethical consideration while conducting research are:

- Voluntary informed consent
- Right to withdraw
- Privacy

Concerning the first point, informed consent, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p.77) believe that 'informed consent arises from the subject's right to freedom and self-determination'. Participants should be free to decide whether or not they want to participate in the study, as well as have the right to evaluate any risks or advantages that might result from taking part in the research. Prior to commencing the research, participants, both teachers and learners, were informed orally of the purpose behind the research and the role their participation played in the different stages of the study. They were then presented with information sheets (Appendices M, O & Q) detailing all they needed to know about the research, as well as consent forms (Appendices N, P & R) to sign in case of their agreement to participate in the various stages of the data gathering process. Brooks *et al.* (2014) (cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p.136) state that 'power relations are immanent in all research setting' (p.106); accordingly, due to the researcher's position as a member

of staff and a language coordinator, she might have 'been seen to be...in an asymmetric position of power with regard to the participants' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018, p. 136). Consequently, there was a risk of the participants feeling pressured to take part in the study. Acknowledging this inevitable power imbalance, the researcher needed to handle the recruitment process with care.

The institution where the present investigation was conducted had no restrictions concerning its staff members undertaking educational research within its premises. The researcher met with the Vice-Dean for Educational Affairs in the College of Management and Technology, where the research was conducted. She explained the data collection methods of observing classes, video-recording sessions, and conducting focus group meetings with some students, and acquired the necessary approval. The same process was followed with the Dean of the Institute for Language Studies, who was responsible for the ESP programme.

The following point in the BERA guidelines, the right to withdraw, was clarified for participants at the onset of the study. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011, p.140) explain that 'participation in the project [includes] rights of withdrawal at any time'. This was made clear in the information sheets and the consent forms. Making a point of this early on enforces the feeling of freedom discussed above; this way participants would not feel coerced to continue taking part in the investigation. If a feeling of enforced obligation overshadows the participants' involvement, it might negatively affect the outcomes of the study. On the other hand, it has to be

acknowledged that this granted freedom to withdraw at any stage might cast some shadows of risk on the research. Consequently, the researcher has to consider carefully what kind of behaviour on his/her part might lead the participants' withdrawal. In addition, the demands on the participants had to be carefully considered in order not to be overwhelming and eventually lead them to leave the study.

The issue of participants' privacy and anonymity is crucial when considering ethical implications. While discussing the ethical dimensions related to educational research, Pring (2015, p.178) states that 'there are duties of respect to those who are being researched'. A main facet of such respect is to ensure the confidentiality of their identities. Participants need to rest assured that any personal data gathered will be stored safely; in addition, they have the right to know how it will be stored and for which purposes it will be used. They need to be informed that no reference will be made to their real identities when reporting on the findings of the research, unless of course this is something they desire; in that case the researcher has to obtain agreement. In certain cases, when participants reflect on sensitive issues that relate to their place of work/study, or to their superiors/professors, they might feel reluctant due to some concern that this information could be shared with those concerned. In such cases researchers need to be quite clear about the means through which the data will be stored and need to assure anonymity to participants, or else the data provided by the participants might be considerably affected by their anxiety.

3.8 Issues of Validity and Reliability

A discussion of the validity and reliability issues is essential to show the measures taken by the researcher to try and ensure the credibility of any research investigation. Several of those measures were examined earlier when discussing the methods used for data collection. Here, a more general approach to such issues is presented.

Validity addresses the notion of suitability of the applied method to gather the required data. In addition, it is concerned with the issue of how far the methods used are appropriate to answer the research questions. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) explain that in quantitative data, issues of validity could be improved through careful sampling of participants and using suitable instruments. They go on to elaborate that in qualitative data validity might be addressed through honest representation of the data, deep analysis, as well as the richness of the data gathered and the scope it covers; this is of importance to the present investigation as it leans more towards qualitative methods. Researchers should be aware of their personal biases while reporting on their findings from qualitative approaches. Bias is also related to participants' subjectivity, their expressed opinions and perspectives (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Consequently, when addressing validity it would be difficult to maintain a level of certainty. All we as researchers can do is strive to achieve the highest degree possible. In qualitative research, the researcher is considered an essential instrument of research. She/he is an important part of the research environment and it would be difficult for them to maintain objectivity;

hence the tendency for bias mentioned above. Therefore, in attempting to achieve a degree of validity researchers should constantly consider participants' perspectives and work on revealing them to present the 'thick description' necessary for qualitative investigations. This would make validity attached to 'accounts, not to data or methods' (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983, in Cohen, Manion & Morisson, 2011, p.181).

Another important aspect to establish credibility in research is reliability. Reliability can be described as 'consistency or stability of a measure' (Robson, 2002, cited in Koshy, 2010, p.98), it is concerned with repeatability of a research instrument. In other words, if the measure is administered several times, to what extent would results be similar? Reliability is often used to refer to 'dependability, consistency and replicability over time' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.199). It focuses on the similarity of results. Some researchers are of the view that reliability can be maintained in quantitative research a lot more easily than in qualitative research, as quantitative research has a positivist, objective approach to data gathering. One form of reliability in quantitative research deals with stability. This views reliability as 'a measure of consistency over time and over samples' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.200). Of relevance to the present investigation is consistency in relation to samples. It assumes that if an instrument, like a questionnaire, is administered to different groups who are similar in major characteristics, such as age and language ability, it would yield comparable results. That could be achieved by careful piloting of an instrument.

Due to the interpretive nature of qualitative research, some researchers do not consider reliability as a suitable term. Lincoln, Lincoln & Guba (1985) suggest such terms as 'consistency', 'trustworthiness', 'transferability' and 'dependability' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.201). Such concepts can be addressed through rigorous measures applied to data gathering and interpretation, producing results that readers can trust and rely on and that other researchers can feel confident to apply in other contexts.

It is the aim of the researcher to further demonstrate through the discussion of data analysis in the following chapter how issues of validity and reliability were approached and maintained.

Chapter Four: Results and Data Analysis

The current chapter presents a detailed analysis of the data gathered to answer each of the four research questions. Analysis of the data and discussion of the results are introduced one question at a time. For each question, the methods of data gathering are highlighted; the means of data analysis are outlined, followed by a focus on the most prominent data and a discussion of the results in an attempt to answer each research question.

4.1 Students' Beliefs Regarding the Provision of OCF

In an attempt to answer the first research question: *What are students' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction?*,

two data collection methods were employed. Firstly, a questionnaire administered to 298, B1 level (Council of Europe, 2011), students over the period of three academic semesters, September 2015, February 2016 and September 2016, was completed during the first two weeks of each semester. The 298 questionnaire responses were divided as follows: 108 in the first data collection cycle, September 2015, 91 in the second cycle, February 2016, and 99 in the third cycle, September 2016. Secondly, focus group meetings were conducted with volunteer students, of B1 level, from the classes taught by the teachers participating in the study. These meetings were held during the first two weeks of the semester prior to commencing the intervention (Appendix J).

Questionnaire results will be discussed first, followed by the themes that emerged from focus group discussions, in an attempt to relate the findings from both data gathering methods.

4.1.1 Questionnaire Results

The Likert scale questionnaire (Appendix G) was completed online for the sake of accessibility for students and for ease of data analysis. The questionnaire targeted students' beliefs regarding the provision of OCF in the language classroom. It mainly focused on the five questions formulated by Hendrickson (1978) in relation to how errors should be corrected in a FL teaching context:

- 1) Should learner errors be corrected?
- 2) When should learner errors be corrected?
- 3) Which learner errors should be corrected?
- 4) How should learner errors be corrected?
- 5) Who should correct learner errors?

Before addressing Hendrickson's questions, it was important to explore students' beliefs in relation to language errors. Concerning how students viewed their errors in English (questionnaire item 7), and whether errors were an indication of what they still do not know in the English language, results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Learners' Views in Response to the Statement 'Errors are an indication of what I still don't know in English.'

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Count	100	95	61	26	16	298
% of Total	33%	31.9%	20.5%	8.7%	5.4%	100%

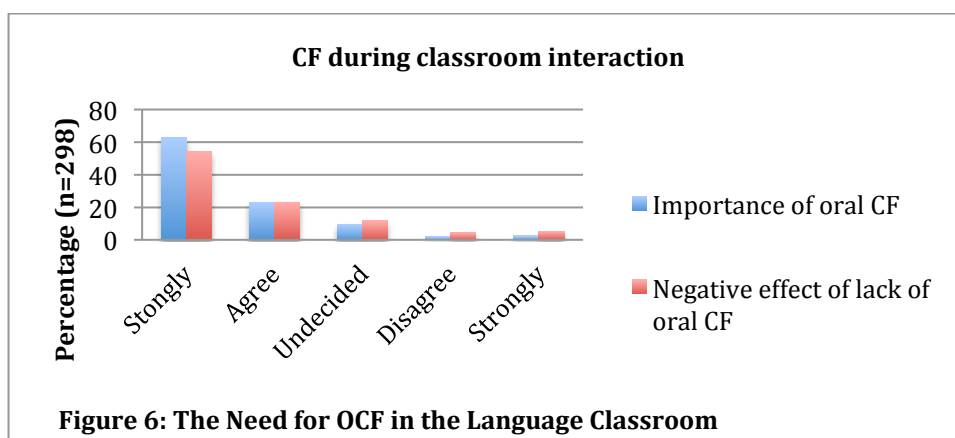
Responses show a 65% combined agreement rate, suggesting a high level of awareness regarding the stages of IL development, with nearly 20% of the respondents being undecided and 14% showing disagreement. Such a level of uncertainty and disagreement could be linked to an issue put forward during focus group discussions regarding errors being a 'slip of a tongue'. It would be plausible to assume that students were referring to 'mistakes', also regarded as 'performance errors' (Brown, 2000). Consequently, they might not present, for some students, an indication of insufficient L2 knowledge.

Moving on to Hendrickson's (1978) five questions, each was addressed through more than one questionnaire item. Regarding the first question, '*Should errors be corrected?*', which focuses on the need for dealing with errors in spoken English, three items were included in the questionnaire (Table 5).

Table 5: Questionnaire Items Focusing Hendrickson's First Question

Item #		SD	A	U	D	SD
10	Errors in spoken language should be corrected.	1	2	3	4	5
12	If the English teacher doesn't correct my mistakes in spoken English, my motivation to learn English will decrease.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I like my teacher to correct me in English lessons.	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 6 below shows responses to items 10 and 12 of the questionnaire. The graph presents high rates of agreement concerning the importance of OCF, 63% 'strongly agree' and 23% 'agree', as well as high rates of agreement, 54% 'strongly agree' and 23% 'agree', concerning the negative effect on student motivation from the lack of OCF in the language classroom. This suggests an understanding on students' part of the role played by OCF. It also presents support for outcomes of previous investigations which suggest that students understand the role of CF in the language classroom, (Schulz, 1996, 2001), where 90% American FL students and 97% Colombian FL students welcomed and agreed on the benefits of CF. In a more recent study (Agudo, 2015), Spanish participants' responses to the statement 'Teachers should not correct students when they make errors in class' showed a disagreement rate of 88.44%. Consequently, results from the current study, set in the Egyptian higher educational context, along with the above percentages from previous research, suggest a cross-cultural agreement concerning students' views on the importance of CF in language learning.



Responses to item 15 (Table 5), tackling the affective aspect of error correction, also demonstrate a high preference towards receiving CF, with a 78% combined rate of agreement. These numbers are in close proximity to Spanish students' responses (n=173) in Agudo (2015) to the statement 'When I make errors in speaking a second language, I like my teacher to correct them', showing a considerably high, 87%, rate of agreement.

Moving to Hendrickson's (1978) second question '*When should errors be corrected?*', students' opinions varied. This question was tackled through three questionnaire items (Table 6).

Table 6: Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Second Question

Item #		SA	A	U	D	SD
14	If the teacher does not correct the students' mistakes in the beginning, it will be difficult to get rid of them later on.	1	2	3	4	5
18	English teachers should deal with students' oral mistakes at the end of lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
21	English teachers should correct oral mistakes immediately after students make them.	1	2	3	4	5

As can be seen in Figure 7, in response to questionnaire items 18 and 21, in the ‘agree’ category responses for both online (immediate) and offline (deferred) correction are at close range, 26.17% and 23.82% consecutively. As for the ‘strongly agree’ category, responses for online correction exceed those for offline correction by almost 14%. When agreement rates are added up, the total for online correction rounds up to 70%, and offline correction 54%, suggesting preferences for instant CF during oral interaction.

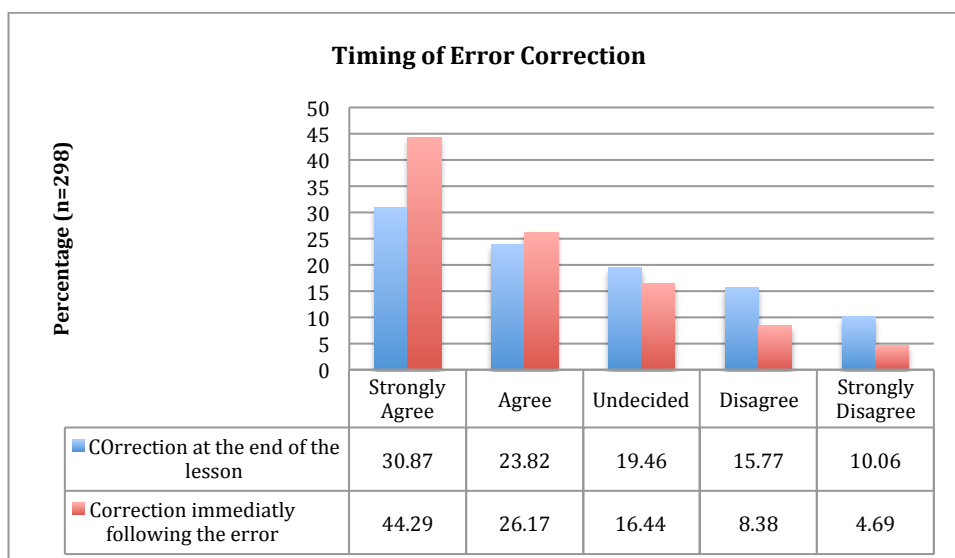


Figure 7: Timing of CF During Oral Interaction

Along the same lines, learners expressed an unfavorable opinion towards deferred error correction in item 14 (Table 6). Responses show a combined agreement rate of around 83%. Such numbers could relate to some of the research results presented earlier. In Davis (2003), language learners at a tertiary institution in Macao responded to the statement ‘Students’ errors should be corrected as soon as they are made in order to prevent the formation of bad habits’ with a high

agreement rate of around 87% (total number of students=97). In Brown (2009), language students in the University of Arizona showed a preference towards immediate error correction when responding to a statement exploring whether good teachers should delay the provision of CF. The calculated mean score of agreement was 2.12 (53%) out of 4 (total number of respondents=1,409). Despite not presenting a high rate of agreement for immediate CF, similar to Davis (2003) and the current investigation, numbers still suggest a degree of preference for immediate correction in the language classroom.

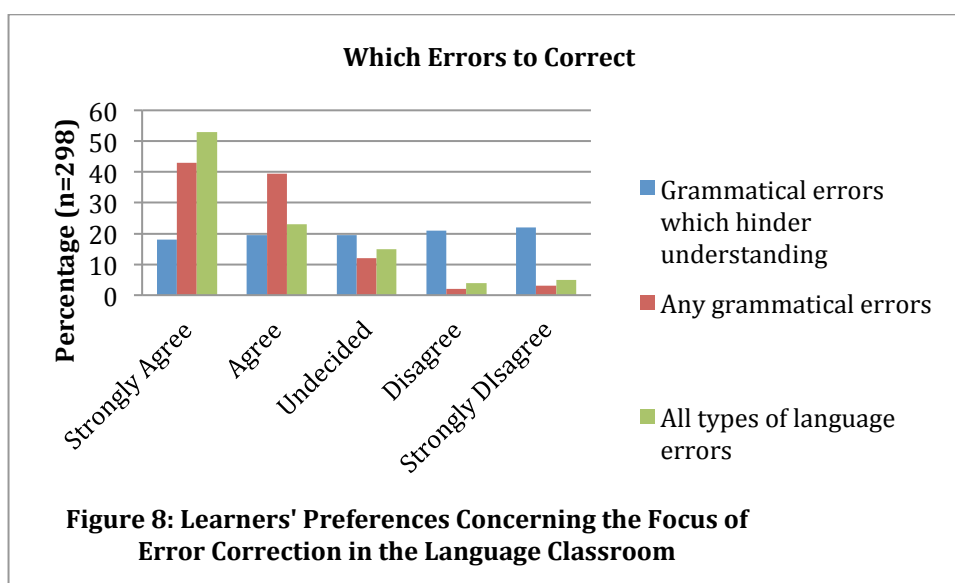
In response to Hendrickson's third question '*Which errors should be corrected?*', four questionnaire items attempt to explore learners' beliefs regarding which errors 'should receive...priority for correction' (Hendrickson 1978, p.390) (Table 7).

Table 7: Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Third Question

Item #		SA	A	U	D	SD
4	The English teacher should only correct grammar mistakes in spoken English if they prevent understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I expect my teacher to correct my mistakes in English grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
20	The teacher should correct all the student's mistakes in spoken English.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Regular correction of oral mistakes in English classes leads to a negative attitude towards learning English.	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 8 demonstrates students' responses to items 4, 16 and 20. A considerably high percentage can be seen in the agreement category, around 75% combined agreement rate, in response to the importance of correcting all errors made during

speaking (item 20), and a much lower percentage of disagreement, 9% collectively. As for restricting correction of grammar errors to instances which hinder understanding (item 4), distribution of responses was quite different with a combined agreement rate of around 38% and a disagreement rate of around 43%. Responses to item 16 which refers to correction of grammar errors in general, not only those which hinder understanding, show a combined agreement rate of 83%, and a disagreement rate of 5%, presenting very different tendencies from those related to restricting correction to grammatical errors which prevent understanding.



Juxtaposing the agreement and disagreement rates above presents further indications of students' need for feedback. It also suggests their awareness of the role CF plays in their language development. Outcomes of previous investigations support the above results to a certain degree and reflect students' need for

feedback. When Ancker (2000) surveyed students' perceptions in 15 countries concerning whether teachers should correct every error made by students while using the English language, the reported agreement rate was 76%, presenting an almost exact percentage to the one reported in the present investigation, 75%. However, the Quebec based study by Jean and Simard (2011) shows different tendencies towards the need for regular correction of grammar errors during oral interaction. Students of FSL (n=990) showed an agreement rate of 30% while those of EFL (n=1,314) had a 54% agreement rate. The researchers attributed such variance to students' L1 learning experience. This is different from the current investigation since students were mostly 75% for the correction of all errors, grammar errors included. This might be related to the examination oriented teaching environment in Egypt which encourages grammar instruction and focuses on accuracy rather than fluency (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017).

Such a need for feedback is also reflected in responses to item 25 (Table 7), which probes students' perceptions regarding the negative attitude they might develop as a result of constant correction of spoken language during the English classroom. The combined rates of disagreement, 42.3%, are relatively higher than those of agreement, 34.9%, with 22.8% undecided, further suggesting a willingness on students' part to regularly receive OCF. However, it could be assumed that students' readiness for CF might be related to the manner through which it is provided, which is the focus of the fourth of Hendrickson's (1978) questions.

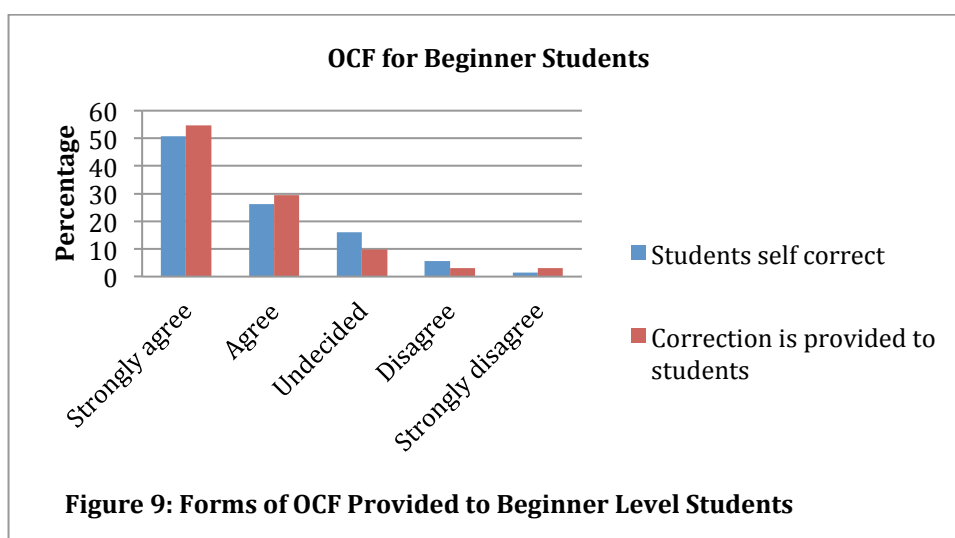
Several questionnaire items address Hendrickson's fourth question *'How should errors be corrected?'*, these focus on a number of issues (Table 8). One is highlighted in Figure 9 below, which demonstrates students' preferences regarding OCF techniques used with beginner level students (items 3 & 6).

Table 8: Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Fourth Question

Item #		SA	A	U	D	SD
2	I feel uncomfortable when my spoken English is corrected in front of the whole class.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Encouraging students to correct themselves during oral classroom interaction benefits beginner level students.	1	2	3	4	5
5	When correcting errors in spoken English, the teacher should avoid using negative language (e.g. "Everything you said was wrong" or "you haven't understood anything" or "you don't know anything").	1	2	3	4	5
6	When the teacher provides the correct form during oral classroom interaction, this is helpful for beginner level students.	1	2	3	4	5
8	The teacher should use more than one technique when correcting students' mistakes in spoken English.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The best way to correct oral grammatical errors in English is when the teacher provides the correct form.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Making students correct their own errors helps them learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
13	My English teacher always repeats my mistakes in spoken English, stressing on the wrong part to attract my attention and help me correct it.	1	2	3	4	5
17	The techniques used to correct my errors in spoken English should depend on my level.	1	2	3	4	5
22	The correction of mistakes in spoken English draws my attention to the correct form provided by my teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Encouraging students to correct themselves benefits advanced level students.	1	2	3	4	5

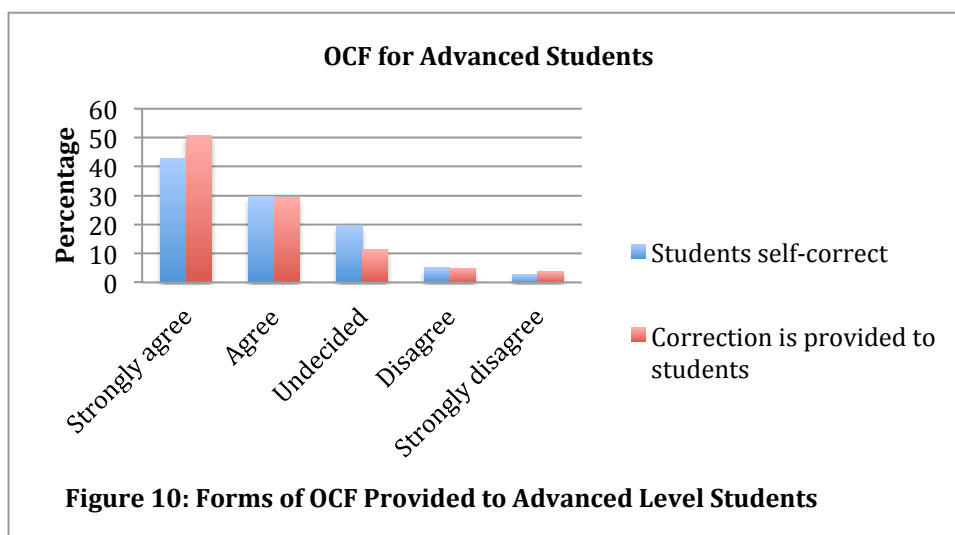
24	I prefer my English teacher to encourage me to correct myself.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Providing the correct form is helpful for advanced level students.	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 9 shows close percentages of agreement in the 'strongly agree' category, 50.7% for self-correction, and 54.7% for correction provided by the teacher; in the 'agree' category rates are 26.2% and 29.5% consecutively. The combined rates of agreement for self-correction are 76.9%, and are slightly higher for teacher provided correction, 84.2%. These numbers suggest a preference for a variety of OCF techniques during classroom interaction, which indicates a need for raising teachers' awareness to the different forms of OCF in an attempt to cater for various students' needs.



Focusing on OCF provided to advanced level students, Figure 10 below shows responses to items 23 and 26 (Table 8). Relatively close percentages of agreement

are presented in the ‘strongly agree’ category, 43% for self-correction and a slightly higher 50.7 % for correction provided by the teacher; the ‘agree’ category shows similar percentages for both forms of correction, 29.5% each. The combined rate of agreement for advanced students’ self-correction is 72.5%, and is slightly higher for teacher provided correction, 80.2%. Such numbers indicate a preference for a variety of OCF techniques during classroom interaction.



Thus, results from Figures 9 and 10, focusing on beginner and advanced level students, present tendencies towards variation when it comes to OCF in the language classroom, with a slightly higher inclination towards teacher provided correction for both levels.

A summary of the results for other questionnaire items which explore students’ beliefs concerning Hendrickson’s fourth question ‘*How should errors be corrected?*’ in the language classroom is highlighted in Table 9.

Table 9: Learners' Preferences Regarding the Use of Various Forms of CF in the Language Classroom

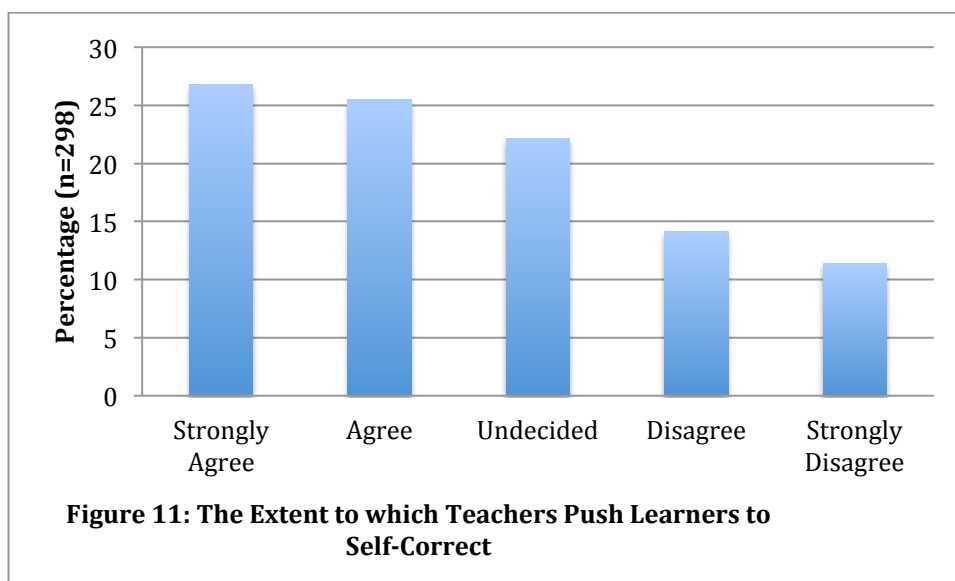
Item #	Focus of questionnaire item	Degree of agreement (Total=100% of 298 responses)				
		SA	A	U	D	SD
2	Negative effect of teacher correction in front of the class	19.5%	21.8%	24.2%	20.1%	14.4%
8	Using various CF techniques for spoken English	58%	24.8%	9.4%	4%	3.8%
9	Teacher providing the correction for oral grammatical errors	45.6%	33.9%	12.1%	5.7%	2.7%
11	Pushing students to correct their errors aids language learning	52.7%	23.2%	12.7%	7%	4.4%
17	OCF techniques used should depend on the language level	47.6%	27.5%	14.8%	5.4%	4.7%
22	Teacher correction of spoken language attracts students' attention to the accurate form	46%	33.2%	13.4%	5.4%	2%
24	Preferences for teacher encouraging self-correction	52%	24.5%	15.5%	5%	3%

Responses to all of the above items, except item two, have a combined rate of agreement, for 'strongly agree' (SA) and 'agree' (A), of not less than 75% each. Despite the different focuses, with some items highlighting self-correction by students and others correction provided by the teacher, results indicate that students prefer being exposed to different forms of CF during the language classroom. As for item two, showing a combined agreement rate of 42%, numbers suggest that students do not hold strong opinions against being corrected by the teacher in front of the whole class. This might also attest for the positive attitude students generally demonstrate in relation to being corrected during classroom interaction. In addition, it can be inferred that other factors might be at play in relation to the degree of students' acceptance of OCF in the classroom, which relates

to item five in the questionnaire (Table 8), focusing on the importance of avoiding negative language when providing CF in the classroom. Student agreement rates are 68% 'strongly agree' and 9.5% 'agree'. This sheds light on the affective aspect of OCF. The manner through which teachers provide OCF while interacting with students plays a major role in students' acceptance of such feedback and the extent to which it could motivate or demotivate them from taking an active part in oral communication during the language classroom.

The last questionnaire item in this category, item 13, focuses on the teacher encouraging students to self-correct, 'My English teacher always repeats my mistakes in spoken English, stressing on the wrong part to attract my attention and help me correct it'. The phrasing of this item apparently sheds light on the students' current classroom learning situation, as opposed to their general beliefs and preferences, which is the focus of other questionnaire items addressing the manner of providing OCF. In addition, it could trigger some reflection on students' past classroom learning experiences; such a point was noted while piloting the questionnaire and discussing with teachers and students their understanding of this item; results are presented in (Figure 11). The numbers presented in Figure 11 are clearly different from the general tendencies demonstrated in students' responses to other questionnaire items focusing on attitudes towards self-correction. The combined agreement rate for item 13 adds up to around 50%, while other items dealing with self-correction have a combined agreement rate of around 75% each. Based on these numbers, it could be argued that what takes place during the actual

language classroom experience does not measure up to students' expectations with regard to the need for feedback from their teachers.

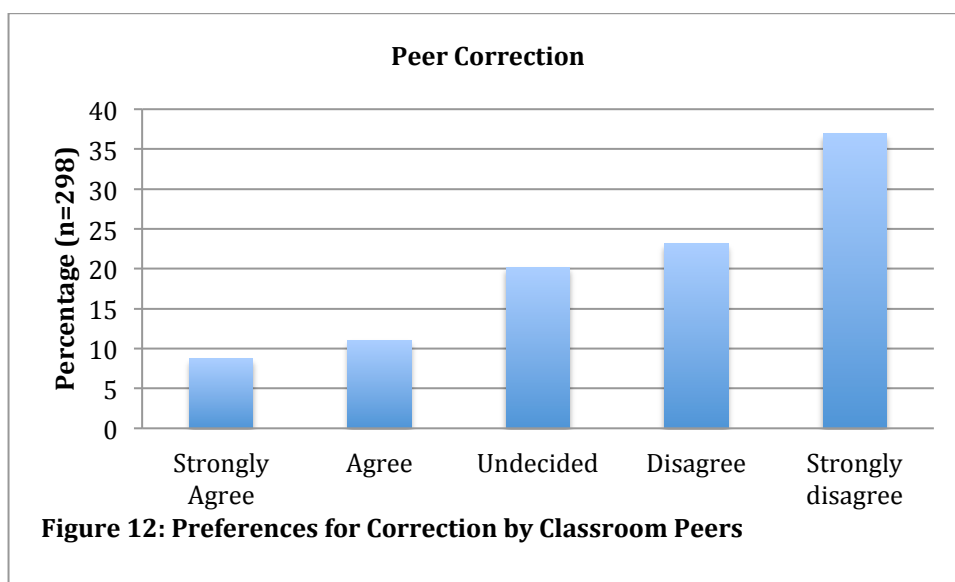


Such a need for CF provided by the teacher leads to the last of Hendrickson's (1978) five questions addressed in the questionnaire, '*Who should correct errors?*' (Table 10). Results for item 19 are presented in Figure 12, showing degrees of learner agreement concerning being corrected by other students in the classroom.

Table 10: Questionnaire Items Focusing on Hendrickson's Fifth Question

Item #		SA	A	U	D	SD
1	When the teacher corrects other students' errors in class, it helps me to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I prefer to be corrected by other students in the class.	1	2	3	4	5

Rates of disagreement are 23% for 'disagree' and 37% for 'strongly disagree', and the total of agreement is around 20%. This high percentage, as much as being an indication of students' reservations concerning peer-correction, suggests an inclination to view the teacher as the main resource when it comes to addressing their errors.



Previous research focusing on the source for providing CF has resulted in a low rate of agreement for peer correction, 15% for Colombian and 13% for U.S. students in Schulz (1996, 2001). In Amador (2008), all 23 beginner-level students agreed that the teacher should be the one providing feedback for their errors, and only 52.2% agreed to peer-correction from their classroom colleagues. Results from Agudo (2015) for the questionnaire item 'I like to be corrected by my classmates in small group work' shows a higher rate of agreement, 42.2%, than disagreement, 24.3%. The two latter studies, Amador (2008) and Agudo (2015), show a higher approval

rate on students' side for peer-correction, when compared to the numbers from Schulz (1996, 2001) and the current investigation. One reason for this might be the nature of the language-learning environment in each setting. If students in Amador and Agudo are used to collaboration and group work in the language classroom, the need to rely on and benefit from interaction with classmates might materialize over time, which could coincide with an evolving role for peer assessment as an important element of assessment for learning in the language classroom (Black & Wiliam, 2006).

Another relevant questionnaire item in relation to the source of CF is item 1 (Table 10). Although it does not directly address students' views concerning teachers as the providers of CF, a combined agreement rate of 89% indicates that students value the feedback their teachers provide, even when directed to their classmates.

4.1.2 Focus Group Meetings

Since some questionnaires, such as those using the Likert scale, are sometimes criticized for including rigid items which strictly follow the researcher's agenda and do not allow participants to reflect and elaborate on their views, it was advisable to add a qualitative data collection method in order to explore students' voice and get a deeper insight into their beliefs regarding classroom interaction in general, and the use of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction in specific.

Focus group meetings were conducted with volunteer students from the classes taught by the teachers participating in the study (*method for recruiting participants*

is discussed in detail in section 3.6.3). These took place during the first two weeks of the September 2015, February 2016, and September 2016 semesters. This time frame had to be followed strictly since the researcher aimed at exploring students' beliefs prior to the intervention and before their teachers commenced the training process.

A pre-planned questioning route was followed (Appendix H). It was guided by the same issues focused on in the questionnaire, with additional focus on classroom oral interaction in general, in an attempt to arrive at the degree of students' awareness of its importance. The focus group questions were piloted by the researcher's director of studies and a number of the researchers' teaching colleagues, who agreed that such a questioning route could give a deep insight into students' beliefs regarding interaction in the classroom, if students felt comfortable enough to express their thoughts, a condition which the researcher tried to promote through repeatedly assuring students that participation was voluntary and that anonymity of their identity was an essential requirement on her side.

Table 11 presents the time each focus group meeting was conducted and the number of students participating in each of the five meetings. While referring to individual responses during the following representation and analysis of data, students are referred to by teacher and number, i.e. **Student A-3** participated in the first meeting of the first cycle (September 2015) and was taught by teacher A.

Table 11: Pre-Intervention Focus Group Meetings

Time of data collection cycle	Focus Group participants taught by:	Number of participants	Date of the five focus group meetings
First Cycle – September 2015	Teacher A	4	Between 18 th and 22 nd September 2015
	Teacher B	6	
Second Cycle – February 2016	Teacher C	3	Between 14 th and 18 th February 2016
	Teacher D	5	
Third Cycle – September 2016	Teacher E	4	Between 20 th and 24 th September 2016

Data were gathered during meetings using an audio-recorder (*refer to section 3.6.3 for details*). Language of the focus group meetings was English; however, students were encouraged to speak in Arabic if they felt more comfortable. All the audio-recordings were transcribed and the Arabic portions were translated by the researcher; a considerable amount of the translation, around 70%, was checked by a colleague of the researcher, whose mother tongue is Arabic and his English is highly proficient. It was reported that the translation was highly accurate. This was followed by a detailed examination of the whole data for purposes of analyses. Following several readings, a frame was established for coding the data in order to determine recurring themes: those which echoed questionnaire outcomes, or showed different tendencies, as well as new emerging themes that resulted from students' reflection on their learning experience and rooted beliefs. As patterns became apparent, further coding was possible which eventually presented material for the following analysis.

The main outcomes of the focus group discussions can be summarized as follows:

1. Classroom interaction during language lessons is essential as it helps students develop their language through communication.
2. Teachers need to exert effort into making classroom interaction a friendly experience during which students in general, and shy ones specifically, trust their teachers and feel motivated to participate and inquire.
3. Students are generally welcoming of the global correction of their spoken errors and are aware of its benefits; however, the teachers' attitudes, the words they use, and tone of their voice, are constant factors in students' acceptance of OCF.
4. Students are divided in their opinions concerning the amount of OCF to be provided during classroom interaction. Some of the more capable students advocate the choice of errors which hinder communication, as well as those related to the focus of the lesson, to focus on; for them, too much correction would lead to demotivation and affect their confidence. As for the apparently weaker students, they favoured the correction of all errors made during the lesson; they regard it as an indispensable means of language development.
5. Students tend to favour being pushed by the teacher to correct their own errors, viewing this as a means of learning from their mistakes, as well as gaining confidence in language use. However, when the issue of

proficiency level and error correction was raised, students were of the opinion that OCF techniques should vary depending on the level, with lower level students needing correction to be provided by the teacher, as they might not have enough knowledge of the language to allow them to self-correct.

6. An issue of 'feedback discrimination' was raised, with students reflecting on past experiences when their teachers would globally correct errors for some students, but not others, which resulted in demotivation on students' part due to a feeling of being 'insignificant' inside the classroom.
7. The affective aspect of OCF showed constant recurrence throughout the discussion due to students' past learning experience. Their teachers' choices of 'harsh words', 'sarcasm' and a 'negative tone of voice' in response to students' errors, or when attempting to correct such errors, usually resulted in demotivating students and having them refrain from participation in classroom interaction.

A deeper analysis of the ***first outcome*** above shows interaction to be important on different levels to different students. In addition to acknowledging its role in aiding language development, it might be also important for some students when it comes to liking or disliking learning a language. One student used the term 'good teacher' when describing a language teacher who encouraged students to participate in the lesson:

Interaction help us understand in class... when I was young I had teachers who didn't interact at all which made me dislike subject... I can remember that didn't like French, but when I had good teacher I started liking it, he spoke with us and want us to answer questions

(Student A-3)

Another student associated interaction with generating 'energy' in the language classroom which, in his opinion, was a catalyst for 'good' explanation on the teacher's side:

Interaction is important because students participate.... When we participate there is energy in class so students be active and teacher active..... Then interaction helps teacher explain good and we understand from her.

(Student E-1)

The comments of a number of students demonstrated their belief in the 'strong version' (Howat, 1984) of CLT, stating that interaction and communication using the L2 was a main source of language development:

Interaction is most important for learning.....go to people in Aswan and Luxor (*two major tourist destinations in Egypt*) who don't learned the language at school.... they can speak it better than us it all come from interaction and practice with tourists... language is interaction and practice.

(Student D-3)

The **second outcome** sheds light on the importance of a 'friendly' attitude projected by the teacher during classroom interaction. It suggests that motivation to learn a language might be a consequence of success in learning, rather than a cause (Klapper, 2006); which is referred to as ' "resultative-orientation", a form of intrinsic motivation' (Klapper, 2006, p.84). This was expressed in a few students' comments, for example:

We had a teacher she was very friendly.... worked with us as a group... she encourage us to answer.... my self-confidence is low and I'm shy to participate..... but with her when she encouraged me and I answer correct I wanted to answer more to learn more.

(Student B-4)

Interaction is important but has to be good interaction... the teacher must friendly to encourage us to answer and ask and learn more.... this help us learn, but if teacher is tough and rude no one wants to participate and all will keep quite.

(Student C-1)

A closer look at students' comments in relation to the ***third outcome*** corroborates questionnaire results highlighting awareness on the students' side of the role OCF plays in the language classroom, for both themselves and their colleagues. One student expressed insight into that area, showing acceptance of being corrected in front of the whole class, and reflected on an episode which took place during the same focus group meeting:

I don't mind because I will learn and someone else will learn... I make a mistake and the teacher corrects it so the whole class will know how to say it..... same for me when the teacher corrects someone else in class..... I'll give you an example, a moment ago you (*the researcher*) explain the word 'feedback' to someone.... I didn't know the word before but now I do... so that's how interaction between teacher and others can help the rest of class

(Student A-3)

Other students further indicated a welcoming attitude to their teachers' global correction of spoken errors but stipulated the importance of providing such correction in a 'positive' manner that 'doesn't make others laugh at [them]':

It's a good thing... we need to know our mistakes and the correction..... I think she should give the correction in a positive way.... not in a way that would embarrass me

(Student C-2)

I feel ok with correction in front of class.... teacher should correct what we say wrong.... If important mistake is not correct by teacher when we say it the whole class might think it is correct but it is important that teacher do it in a way that doesn't make others laugh at me.

(Student D-3)

Another point put forward by students, also supported by questionnaire results, is a less favourable attitude towards 'peer-correction':

We're in class to learn...If teacher corrects me OK, I will remember this moment so I will not make this mistake again.....but I don't like other people in class to correct my mistakes, it makes me feel bad.

(Student A-1)

I agree with X... teacher correction is important, but I not want correction from other students.... their language level is not high.

(Student A-2)

Interestingly, the views of students A-1 and A-2 above go against the advocacy for peer-assessment as an important component in the approach to assessment for learning in the classroom (Black & Wiliam, 2006). The comments of student A-1 contradict Black *et al.*'s (2004) argument that 'Peer assessment is...valuable because students may accept criticisms of their work from one another that they would not take seriously if the remarks were offered by a teacher' (p.14).

The **fourth outcome**, focusing on the amount of error correction to be provided during oral classroom interaction showed a 50/50 division, with eleven of the twenty two participants from the different focus groups supporting the correction of all errors made during classroom interaction, and the remaining eleven advocating the choice of certain errors so as not to negatively influence the teaching-learning

process. It was noticed that the students who projected a weaker level of language¹² were the ones in favour of constant provision of OCF. Some of the reasons provided were related to ‘fossilization’ of errors if not corrected by the teacher, in addition to the global benefit by all students in the class when the teacher corrects any errors:

It’s important to learn my mistakes so that I won’t fall in it again....
but if she (*the teacher*) doesn’t correct it will always stay in your mind wrong
and you will say it wrong because you think it’s right

(Student A-1)

I think if I make mistake and the teacher correct it, the rest of class will learn
and not repeating the same mistake... so it important to correct as many
mistakes possible

(Student B-2)

A disregard to ‘being put off’ by too much correction was also voiced by a number of students in response to their colleagues’ opinions. One such student explained:

Correction is important.... (*in response to another student who was for
choosing certain errors to correct*) even if I feel bad because too much
correction, this is better for me after that... who will correct if teacher doesn’t
correct.

(Student D-4)

Other, more proficient, students were of the view that only some errors should be addressed during oral classroom interaction. Some compared L2 errors to the ones we make in our mother tongue; they could be ‘performance errors...the learner knows the system but fails to use it’ (Brown, 2000, p.227). In addition there was reference to basically focusing on errors related to the objective of the lesson:

¹² I checked the students’ Cambridge Placement test scores based on the CEFR. Although all focus groups participants were a B1 level, whose scores ranged between 40-59 %, those who projected a weaker proficiency level scored between 40-46% and the more competent ones scored higher than 54%.

I have a different opinion (*in response to someone advocating constant correction of errors*)... we all make mistakes all the time, even in our first language we make normal mistakes.... Not all mistakes should be corrected, only the serious ones..... for example like using wrong tenses, these should be corrected..... some mistakes are like slips of tongue, so no need to be correct
(Student A-3)

For example, when I ask the teacher 'Can I go to the toilet?', she corrects me and say 'May I go to the toilet'. I don't think here correction is necessary and it is not the suitable time for it because it is not something we are focusing on in the lesson
(Student B-5)

Some believe that constant correction would demotivate students from participating, affecting their self-confidence. These views were expressed clearly by two students:

That depends on personalities... some would disagree to correction all the time... they would feel that every time I open my mouth is a mistake so they get annoyed and keep quiet.
(Student A-4)

The teacher should put in mind the confidence of students....for example if I make a lot of mistakes and teacher keeps saying 'this is wrong... No, not correct' I will lose my confidence and it will get worse
(Student E-4)

It is important to highlight the difference between the outcomes of the focus group discussions and those of the questionnaire, in relation to the amount of OCF students believe should be provided during classroom interaction. Although questionnaire responses showed a clear tendency to correcting all errors that occur during oral classroom communication, the discussions showed a difference in opinion between the more capable and the less proficient learners. This sheds light

on the importance of combining both qualitative and quantitative data gathering methods when exploring this area. As mentioned in section 2.8.3.3 earlier, most of the studies focusing on the amount of OCF provided in the classroom gathered data using survey questionnaires, not allowing participants to elaborate on their views and perceptions. For the purpose of this investigation, combining a more qualitative data collection method, along with the survey questionnaire, allowed students to reflect on their beliefs, and at certain points revise those beliefs based on the discussion with their peers.

The ***fifth outcome*** of the focus groups discussions highlighted preferences in relation to the techniques used by the teacher for correcting spoken errors. Students' opinions reflected questionnaire results but were developed in a more systematic manner. Questionnaire results in relation to Hendrickson's (1978) question '*How should errors be corrected?*' showed a tendency, through responses to almost all the related items, for using a variety of techniques ranging between being pushed to correct their spoken errors, and having the teacher provide the correction. Focus group discussions initially showed a general preference by students towards being pushed to correct their own mistakes. Comments were along the lines of:

'I think it better to correct my mistake because then I remember' (Student A-3)

'Correcting the mistake ourselves make us think' (Student B-1)

'She (teacher) point out the mistake I make and I try to correct ... it help me later'
(Student B-5)

'Teacher tries to guide me to correct is better... to feel the confidence'

(Student E-1)

'...In future we remember better if we correct for ourselves..'

(Student E-2)

Nevertheless, when the issue of suitability of OCF to the proficiency level was raised, students showed awareness that feedback could vary based on the language level. One student made reference to the placement test they sat for prior to commencing study:

Students come in different levels and each should be corrected in way agree to their level..... I believe that's part of why we did placement test and are divided over group according to level.

(Student B-4)

In addition, some students suggested a relation between language proficiency levels and the ability, or lack of, to self-correct. An example is illustrated in the following quote, also showing an awareness of teacher attitude when providing feedback, an issue which will be elaborated on later:

With weak students teacher needs to be more patient... more tolerant of mistake and doesn't get upset..... because maybe they (*students*) don't correct their mistake because their level is weak so teacher can correct for them.

(Student D-4)

The **sixth outcome** represents a critical issue which emerged during the first focus group meeting conducted as part of the second data collection cycle, in February 2016, that of 'feedback discrimination'; this term was coined by the researcher based on students' comments. The issue put forward initially by the researcher dealt with the language used by the teacher while providing OCF and how it could

motivate or demotivate students from participating in classroom interaction. This was followed by the following exchange between the three participants:

Student C-2: I feel that she prefers others and corrects their mistakes more than my mistakes.... We should all be treated the same way because we there to learn and the teacher should teach us all

Student C-1: Yes, this happens a lot.... We can feel that teacher prefer one student more, and pay attention to some students more than others... This make us feel it is not important to participate

Student C-3: Yes, this discrimination (*the student used the Arabic word for this*) thing always happens in the class and affect our motivation

As a teacher and a researcher, I became curious about this issue and attempted to touch upon it during the other two focus group meetings, the second meeting of February 2016, and the one conducted in September 2016. Some of the responses were as follows:

Correction important.... but teacher should correct all class... Sometimes teacher focus only on the good students and ask them questions and correct their mistake.... the rest of us feel abandoned

(Student D-2)

If my teacher not correct my mistakes and pay attention more to others it makes me not want to answer questions..... what if I say something wrong and she does not correct, then I will think it right and the rest of the class also

(Student D-5)

Yes it happen a lot, some teachers pay attention to successful students who always answer... I feel they encourage them to participate and correct mistakes... if someone is quiet, the teacher don't pay attention

(Student E-4)

Reflecting back on previous classroom observations, both as a coordinator and while conducting my research, I could make the assumption that the more active

classes were those in which teachers attempted to be more inclusive. Such attempts were evident when teachers put effort into encouraging all students to participate in classroom interaction, even resorting to 'cold-calling' sometimes. Such attempts to bring reluctant students into the conversation could be regarded as a potential boost for 'extrinsic motivation' (Klapper, 2006, p.81). In some cases, students who are unenthusiastic about taking part in classroom interaction lack any form of motivation, whether intrinsic or extrinsic. Accordingly, being encouraged by the teacher can eventually develop a form of extrinsic motivation, as students would feel that teachers are paying attention and that they care; one way of showing that would be through attempting a correction of students' errors. Accordingly, while training teachers, I tried to constantly focus on the importance of inclusion while interacting with students in the classroom.

The ***last outcome*** of focus group discussions addressed the affective aspect of OCF and its relation to students' motivation to participate. Students consistently used words like 'harsh', 'making fun', 'sarcastic attitude', when referring to either past experiences of OCF provided in the classroom, or to what they believe 'should not occur'. Views were expressed along the following lines, which corroborated responses to questionnaire items showing students' disagreement of teachers using negative language when correcting their spoken errors:

But we feel no motivation when teacher make fun of a question or a mistake....in school I had a teacher would used to make us feel like making mistake was a crime so we were not encourage to participate

(Student A-3)

It happened a lot that when someone made a mistake the teacher scolded them.... we feel that we committed a crime (*this term was translated as the student used the Arabic form*) simply because of making an error while speaking

(Student C-2)

The teacher should put in her mind the confidence of students....for example if I make a lot of mistakes and teacher keeps saying 'this is wrong... this is wrong' I will lose my confidence and it will get worse and will not want to participate... also sometimes teacher have a sarcastic tone (*translated from Arabic*) and make fun when students say something wrong

(Student E-4)

A shocking term, illustrated in the above examples, used by more than one student is that of 'committing a crime' when making an error. If anything, this reflects a total lack of awareness on some teachers' part of the damage that could be caused if we, as educators, are not attentive and careful when it comes to dealing with learners' errors. I could confidently assume that handling students' errors in the wrong manner could possibly transform an instant of learning and language development into a wrecking ball that has the potential to permanently damage learner motivation and self-confidence.

I believe that outcomes of the focus group discussions have provided a profound insight into students' views and beliefs regarding classroom interaction and correction of oral errors. They have corroborated many of the questionnaire outcomes, challenged others, as well as raised new themes which were not touched upon before. This has helped in shaping different phases of the research study and guiding the training process of the participating teachers.

4.2 Teachers' Stated Beliefs and Classroom Practice

In an attempt to answer the second research question: *What are teachers' beliefs and classroom practices regarding the provision of OCF during teacher-student classroom interaction?*, two data collection methods were employed. Firstly, one classroom observation for each of the participating teachers during the second week of each of the three academic semesters which comprised the three cycles of the data collection process: September 2015 (teachers A & B), February 2016 (teachers C and D), and September 2016 (teacher E). Each of the participating teachers was observed, prior to the onset of the intervention, during a grammar-teaching lesson focusing on the different conditional forms, which lasted between 60 and 70 minutes. The aim was to get a picture of their approach towards classroom interaction and how they dealt with learners' oral errors during classroom interaction. The data from these observations were immediately video-recorded; in addition, field notes were taken during the sessions. Secondly, pre-intervention interviews were conducted during week two, one day following classroom observations. The aim behind the interviews was to get some insight into how teachers regarded the importance of oral classroom interaction with the learners and their approach to the correction of oral errors (Appendix E). Interviews lasted between 25 and 35 minutes, were audio-recorded and fully transcribed by the researcher.

The rationale behind commencing with classroom observations prior to the pre-

intervention interviews is an attempt to have both data collection procedures yield a better picture of teachers' beliefs and their actual classroom practice before beginning the training process. Commencing with the interviews might have attracted teachers' attention to the focus of the study, which could have potentially affected the authenticity of their teaching.

The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed. The procedure followed for coding the data was similar to the one applied for the focus groups. Following several readings of each transcript, key parts were highlighted, summarized, and transferred into a coding frame (Appendix T). This frame was established to determine important themes and was guided by the topics of the interview questions (Appendix E). Such a process allowed for thorough analysis of the views articulated by teachers. The themes which emerged for all five teachers were closely linked to the foci of the interview questions: 1) approach to grammar teaching, 2) importance of error correction, 3) the amount of error correction to be provided, 4) techniques used for correction of oral errors (explicit and implicit), 5) noticing and effectiveness of OCF, 6) the affective dimension of globally correcting students' errors. If any different themes developed through data analysis and coding, they were referred to as 'others' in the coding frame and were highlighted when reporting on the findings. For an example of an interview transcript and an analysis and coding frame refer to Appendix T.

As for classroom observations, video-recordings were examined and data were

analysed and coded through identifying interactional exchanges (IEs) (refer to Example 12 below for a sample IE). 'An IE is a two- or three-part exchange that includes an initiation move by the student, a feedback move by the teacher, and a possible response move by the student' (Nassaji, 2007, p.525). In an attempt to identify interactional exchanges in these classroom observations, a three-move model of conversational discourse was adopted (Nassaji & Wells, 2000; Wells, 1993). This three-move model consisted of: 1) an erroneous initiation utterance produced by the learner and triggered the instructors' feedback, 2) feedback provided by the instructor in response to the learner's erroneous utterance, (3) the learner's (possible) response to the feedback in the form of modified output attempting to repair the original utterance. Further examination of the video-recordings was conducted to highlight any convergence and/or divergence between teachers' stated beliefs, expressed during the interviews, and their actual classroom practice (refer analysis and coding frame Appendix T)

Data will be presented below as an amalgamation of each teacher's beliefs expressed during the interviews, and comments on or examples of related classroom practices

in order to relate stated beliefs and actual practice and examine the degrees of similarities and differences between both.

4.2.1 Teacher A – Yosra (September 2015)

As previously mentioned, upon participating in the current study, Yosra had 4½ years of experience teaching ESP to college students. Her previous training mainly consisted of in-service training which she has received after joining the institute in which the current study is undertaken. Her answers to the interview questions showed awareness of several aspects of OCF during classroom interaction; some classroom practices corroborated such beliefs while others contradicted them. Before focusing on error correction, a couple of interview questions (1(3) and 1(4) Appendix E) probed teachers' beliefs regarding the teaching of grammar. The researcher deemed this an important area to touch upon since the training on providing OCF focused on dealing with oral grammatical errors and an understanding of the participating teachers' approach could inform the training process. Yosra believed in a mix between an inductive and a deductive approach to grammar teaching. She expresses her beliefs as follows:

I like teaching grammar in an inductive way... writing an example on board.. telling students a story or specific situation at the beginning as an attention grabber .. I elicit from them.. write their answers on the board and then help them come up with the rule through their discussion After we establish the rule we go to the application part.

In relation to helping students use the grammatical structures, she explains:

I ask students to write sentences using the grammatical structure taught.... Ask students to use the grammatical structure in certain situation or make up a story.... I believe this will enhance their ability to understand and use the structure..

Both of the above beliefs were reflected in Yosra's classroom practices. An

inductive-deductive mix was manifested when she wrote different forms of conditional sentences on board, elicited some more from students, and then established the use and form with students. Concerning helping students produce the taught grammatical structure, Yosra wrote the first half of the sentences on board and got students to use the 2nd conditional to talk about personal wishes and the 3rd conditional to refer to regrets in their past. Consequently, a belief in the importance of language production was reflected in classroom practices.

With regard to error correction in the language classroom, beliefs and practices converged in certain cases and diverged in others. Concerning focus on error correction during classroom interaction with students, Yosra explained her general focus on fluency rather than accuracy stating:

T: You mean when I correct students' oral mistakes?... I like to focus on fluency rather than accuracy in general... but when it comes to grammar mistakes, I focus more on accuracy than fluency... important in grammar session to check and double check that students understand.... double check accuracy rather than fluency

R: In your opinion, can too much focus on accuracy affect fluency?

T: Yes, that's why I mentioned before that I'd rather focus on fluency not accuracy.. even in grammar I focus on accuracy till we come to oral practice, then I try to correct students in a hidden way.. in an indirect way so I don't stop them from talking.

Classroom practice partly converged with and partly diverged from her beliefs in this area. Most of the errors dealt with during the session were grammar related. Of

the twenty-five interactional exchanges dealing with grammatical errors, the teacher provided CF for twenty-three. Other errors, phonological and lexical, were mostly left unattended throughout the 60 minutes lesson; however, this might be attributed to the grammatical focus of the lesson. Her comment regarding the effect of excess focus on accuracy shows awareness that explicit error correction might disrupt students' oral production; nevertheless, during a semi-controlled production task when students were talking about an imaginary situation, she did resort to direct correction in several cases, diverging from her stated belief:

Example 12 (*metalinguistic feedback*):

S: If I won the lottery, I....I.... helped my father start new business
T: No... do we say helped in second conditional.. I would help my father...
S: OK... (*student kept quiet and did not continue talking about his imaginary situation*)

Concerning the amount of error correction to be provided by the teacher during classroom interaction, Yosra showed a strong conviction that not all errors should be corrected, explaining that:

No, not always... sometimes there are fatal mistakes in pronunciationex. /p/ /b/, if repeated several times I try in 3rd or 4th time to correct it.. otherwise correction is not necessary to provide them with confidence to speak ... Also, the focus of the lesson is important. I need to correct errors related to that.

In relation to the focus of the lesson, as mentioned above, she dealt with most errors, 23 out of 25; nevertheless, as mentioned above, most other errors were not dealt with. Some students had a constant problem with the /p/ and /b/ sounds, as

well as the /ð/ sound, mostly pronounced /z/; those were left unattended.

When asked about her techniques for providing error correction, comments focused on mainly providing recasts and showed an appreciation of the affective aspect accompanying OCF:

Most of the time I repeat ... I mean, I don't like to tell them WRONG or something like that, I can say 'You mean...' and I provide correction... so I prefer to repeat the sentence with the correction.... So my technique here is pretending that I didn't hear them well and I rephrase their mistake... this would be less embarrassing to them

Despite showing an agreement between beliefs and practice in the provision of recasts as a form of CF, of the twenty-three IEs in which CF was provided, nineteen incorporated different forms of recasts, declarative and interrogative, awareness of the affective dimension was not always manifested. Of all the recasts provided, the teacher used the word 'wrong' thirteen times, moreover, when providing other forms of explicit correction, she used 'wrong' and 'no' five times (Example 12 above using metalinguistic feedback).

Example 13 (*recast*):

S: I think if I work hard, I would have study medicine
T: Wrong.... If I had worked hard, I would have STUDIED medicine
S: Mmmm....ok...
T: Try to repeat it
S: mmm... If I studied hard, I.....

The use of 'wrong' in examples 12 and 13 was apparently demotivating for students; they did not demonstrate willingness to carry on with the interaction. Although this is exactly what Yosra articulated when expressing her beliefs, her practice was quite contradictory.

Upon discussing implicit and explicit approaches to error correction, Yosra always referred to the recast example of pretending not to hear and rephrasing the error. She did not demonstrate any realization of the availability of other OCF techniques; when directly asked if she was familiar with any other ways to correct students' oral errors during interaction she replied 'Mmmm..... maybe give them feedback individually sometimes?.... But my approach is usually implicit like the example I mentioned to you earlier'. This directly serves one of the focuses of the current investigation, which aims at raising teachers' awareness to the various techniques of OCF to be used in the language classroom.

In relation to the noticing and effectiveness of implicit OCF techniques in acquiring correct language forms by students, the teacher associates both to students repeating the correct form after she provides it (i.e. uptake). This issue has been debatable for some time, since it has been argued that student uptake following the provision of error correction might not necessarily be proof of language acquisition (Nassaji, 2011b; Nassaji, 2016), nevertheless, this does not underestimate the importance of noticing and uptake in relation to the benefits acquired from providing OCF. Yosra explains:

Sometimes they (*students*) notice..... they repeat the right answer after me... which means they realized the mistake and learned..... if they don't repeat then I could resort to a more direct way to make sure they got that they made a mistake...

An interesting point in the above quotation is the shift to a more explicit form of CF if students do not exhibit signs of noticing the corrective intent. However, this was demonstrated in only two IEs (Example 14), although students did not show any form of uptake in twelve IEs and the teacher did not attempt a second form of OCF.

Example 14 (*recast*):

S: If you buy the car two years ago, you would have paid few money

T: You mean, if I had bought the car two years ago?

S: Cars are now very expensive (*topic continuation*)

While discussing the affective aspect of being corrected in front of the whole class, the teacher agreed it might be embarrassing for some students, and stated that:

Yes, sometimes... I don't use this technique (*explicit*) in all classes ... when the class is homogenous they're friends and love each other.... In other classes I know some students really dislike each other and that's why I try to use the implicit way most of the time...

To sum up, Yosra's beliefs and classroom practices coincide in several aspects such as the mixed approach to grammar teaching, as well as the importance of getting students to orally produce the taught grammatical structure, in an attempt to increase accuracy and fluency. Her belief regarding the importance of focusing on accuracy in the grammar classes was evident in the constant correction of students'

errors throughout the different stages of the lesson. Yosra believes in implicit, rather than explicit, correction of oral errors and highlights that in relation to the affective aspect of error correction. She states that explicit approaches can embarrass some students, and she further adds that she does not use the word 'wrong' in pointing out errors, acknowledging the intricate affective dimension to error correction. Concerning this point, however, her stated beliefs contradict her teaching practice; it was frequently noted that the words 'wrong' and 'no' were used in response to students' errors, and the researcher noticed that some students were embarrassed and refrained from voluntarily participating until the end of the lesson. When asked about the error correction techniques she uses, Yosra mainly referred to one form of rephrasing and was not aware of any others. This aspect of variety in OCF techniques, as well as the previous point concerning the affective side to the provision of OCF, serve the focus of the current study which aims at raising teachers' awareness to the various techniques for correction of oral errors and training them on the use of such techniques, while concurrently attempting to maintain student motivation for participating in classroom interaction.

4.2.2 Teacher B – Sally (September 2015)

Upon joining the study, Sally had two years teaching experience with college students at the institute where the current study was conducted. The only form of training she had undertaken was a mandatory course during her undergraduate studies, during which she taught 7-year-old elementary school students. Analysis of her stated beliefs and classroom practices manifested a number of similarities, as

well as differences between both. In addition, the influence of her experience as a language learner was reflected in her views.

Regarding her approach when introducing a grammatical structure in class, she expressed a belief in getting students to think and figure out the rule and use for themselves, explaining that:

I write sentences on the board I put a lot of examples on the board and try to get them to think out loud asking 'What do you notice... what do these examples have in common?'... in this way I help them bring the rule out.... Like this they have the examples and then the rule on the board and like that it is clear.

This belief was in agreement with her classroom practices. While focusing on conditional sentences, she would write several examples for each type of conditional and guide students by eliciting the use and the grammatical structure for each.

When discussing the importance of error correction during oral interaction with her students in the classroom, Sally expressed that it is quite beneficial, not only for the student who made the error, but for the whole class:

It's very important.... I ask them (the whole class) 'what do you think of what he said?' ... if they say 'That's wrong', I write the sentence on the board and ask them 'ok, how can we correct this?' I ask the person who made the mistake 'Why did you say that?'.....do you have another choice?' ... the aim here is to make him think again.... If they don't get the right answer I can ask someone else to explain or correct This until answer is reached... The whole class will benefit.

It was noted during the session that the teacher tries to include the whole class when correcting an error, not only concentrate on the one student (Example 15).

Example 15:

S1: Ahhh.. yes, yes... if we don't bring the homework next day, we lost a lot

T: Are you sure of that?

S1: yes.... We lost marks

T: (*writes the wrong sentence on the board and addresses the whole class*)
What do you think? Could we say this in another way? Which conditional is this?

S2: Second conditional?

T: (*smiling*) Are you sure? Anyone has another opinion?

Similar scenarios took place in twenty of the twenty-four IEs which included errors related to conditional sentences; Sally projected this attitude of inclusion in all the observed classes throughout the intervention. During the post-intervention focus group meeting with her students they repeatedly expressed that she 'cares', and tries to ensure that 'everyone in the class understands'.

Her views regarding the amount of error correction to be provided during the lesson highlighted the influence of her past learning experience. She stated:

Yes I always correct...I'm always afraid they get it in the exam and repeat the same mistake again.... I repeat again and again 'did you get the message? Did you understand?'... I remember at school I had a teacher who left a lot of our mistakes not corrected, this made me feel very uncomfortable and I was always afraid when I was studying for the exams.

Firstly, this quotation highlights the exam-oriented culture which influences numerous teaching practices. Teachers end up 'teaching to the test' because of a general tendency to view exams as being more important than education itself (McIlwraith & Fortune, 2016). Secondly, it calls attention to the relation between teachers' past learning experience on their beliefs and practice. This coincides with Klapper's (2006) argument that beliefs are shaped over a number of years and

through several sources, among which are past learning experiences. In relation to classroom practice, in addition to correcting all but one of the grammatical errors made by students (n=25), the teacher focused on correcting the lexical errors as well (six out of a total eight errors) using different forms of recasts in all cases (Example 16).

Example 16 (*recast*):

S: I think it not easy... If the teacher learns us well we will be good.

T: If the teacher TEACHES you well?

S: If teaches us well we get good marks.

However, phonological errors were left totally unattended; a phenomenon that could be linked to the emphasis on the importance of written exams. Accordingly, since phonological errors will not be eventually evaluated, the teacher might disregard correcting them.

With relation to the techniques used for correction of oral errors in class and whether she generally resorted to explicit or implicit means of error correction, Sally was adamant about putting the mistakes on the board (Example 15 above). She explains:

If someone mentions something wrong, I can write it as it is on the board ...and I ask the person can you have another look at the sentence and sometimes they figure it out, they realize there's something wrong... even if they don't know the right answer, they recognize some kind of mistake.....Also other students recognize the mistake and start correcting it.... When other students correct it, the student who made the mistake can notice the difference.

When asked whether other means of correction for oral mistakes could be used at different stages of the lesson, she :

I can repeat the mistake out loud.... ask them 'does it make sense'?... If for example there is something in the past and the students say it in the future, I can stress on the part... ... if he realizes mistake I can then put the correction on the board... with grammar it's important to correct on the board, I remember my French teacher used to do that at college, it helped me concentrate on the mistake.. in vocabulary sometimes I write the correct word and others I don't.. it depends.

With a second reference to past language learning experience, the teacher presents further evidence of the influence of such knowledge acquired over years of experience. Moreover, the constant reference to the board as a means of error correction could suggest the limited background the teacher has in the area of OCF. As noticed throughout the different stages of the lesson, Sally resorted to the board for correction of eighteen IEs which included grammatical errors. Such a form of error correction proved to be time consuming and it could have been one of the reasons why the teacher did not have enough time to cover all the tasks included in the session plan for that lesson. Although I had made this point in my notes at an early stage of the data collection process, the teacher raised the issue during the post-intervention interview referring to how continuous use of the board for error correction before taking part in the study, and getting introduced to various techniques of OCF, used to consume too much time and prevent her in certain cases from working on the more communicative tasks in the grammar session.

With relation to students' noticing of the more implicit forms of OCF, Sally referred to 'the look they have on their faces' which might be an indication that they are 'thinking, and double checking the answer in their mind'. However, this was not reflected during the observations because the teacher was using the board for correction the majority of the time. As for the effectiveness of oral error treatment in acquiring the correct form, she explains:

If they mentioned the wrong answer and I correct it right away, saying this is the correct answer, they're just going to memorize it... but if I make them think about it or think why they did it wrong, it will stick in their minds ... so when they come to study for exam they'll remember the mistake and discussion till we got the correction.

This was convergent with classroom practices because while using the board for the treatment of most errors, the teacher tried to push students to recognize the error and arrive at the correct form (Example 15).

Sally showed sensitivity in dealing with students' errors by repeating expressions such as 'I never say 'that's wrong' when they make a mistake', 'it would hurt their feelings if I say 'No, this this is not correct''. Such awareness of the affective aspect of oral error correction was evident when discussing students' level of discomfort if corrected in front of the whole class:

It depends on the way the teacher does this... if a student makes a mistake I don't just say 'this is wrong'... it is also very important not to make fun of them, because this happens from a lot of teachers... I write the mistake on the board and try to smile and look at the whole class asking, 'what do you think?' Or I look at this student and ask, 'are you sure of your answer?' But I never say out loud 'this is wrong?' This can make them not want to answer again.

Such an understanding of the demotivation that might result from the provision of OCF was manifested throughout the lesson, with a noticeable level of tolerance to oral errors (Example 17).

Example 17 (*talking about something negative which happened the previous week*):

S1: I was not lucky on weekend. If I had taken umbrella, I would get wet.

T: (*thumbs up*) Good sentence (*name of student*). But why would get?
(*while writing on the board*) This happened in the past correct, so what should we say?

S1: mmmm (*silence and hesitation*)

T: (*to the rest of the class*) What do you guys think? Help (*name of S1*) out.

Ss: ... would have got wet?

T: (*smiles and gives thumbs up*)

The above discussion mainly highlights similarities in several aspects of Sally's beliefs and classroom practices. She believes that when OCF is provided for one student, the whole class will benefit, and this is constantly demonstrated through inviting all students to spot the error and correct it. In relation to the amount of error correction to be provided during classroom interaction, and contrary to the outcomes of numerous investigations into teachers' beliefs regarding which errors should be corrected (Agudo, 2014; Jean & Simard, 2011; Bell, 2005; Ancker, 2000), Sally was of a firm conviction that all errors need to be addressed, and related that to one of her past classroom experiences as a language learner. Concerning techniques for error correction, she mostly referred to the board as a tool for highlighting errors and guiding students to repair, and did not demonstrate enough familiarity with other OCF techniques, which relates to the significance of the

current investigation in highlighting the various forms that could be employed for oral error correction. Sally also showed awareness of the benefits of encouraging learners to correct their errors, as opposed to having the teacher provide the correct form. This was viewed by me, the researcher, as an advantage which would facilitate her willingness to implement the various forms of OCF, of which several aimed at self-correction. Lastly, her sensitivity to the affective aspect of error correction, and constantly paying attention to that during interaction with her students, projected a positive attitude in the class and no resentment was detected throughout the classroom observation.

4.2.3 Teacher C – Dalila (February 2016)

Dalila was the most experienced of the teachers participating in the current investigation, with six years of teaching experience. The only former training she had undergone was at the onset of her teaching career, a month-long TEFL course. The views and beliefs she presented during the interview concerning her classroom teaching approach were well informed, indicating a level of knowledge acquired from several years of teaching experience. However, her classroom practices in certain cases did not align with her stated beliefs.

When asked about the approach she adopts for teaching grammar, she used the term ‘inductive approach’, although it was actually a mix of both, deductive and inductive:

I don't like what they used to do with us at school, putting the rule on the board and then some application... I try to give my students examples,

especially since they're college students, grown-ups.... I try to relate real life situations, things they see and experience in their real lives... then I try to get them to figure the rule out of it.... I use an inductive approach in my grammar teaching.

Her practices corroborated her beliefs in this area. She started the lesson off by writing the first half of several conditional sentences and asked students to personalize the second half of these sentences by talking about themselves. From what I had observed, the approach worked and students got involved each trying to participate mentioning something individual to them. The influence of past learning experience was reflected in the above comment. However, in Dalila's situation, it was not something that she mimicked but an approach that she opted not to use.

Shifting to a focus on error correction, she attested to the importance of error correction during classroom interaction, stipulating that the teacher should not offend students while correcting, which shows a sensitivity on her side to the affective dimension of CF at an early stage of the interview. She explains:

It's very important as long as I don't embarrass them or directly say this is wrong, or 'You shouldn't say this you should say that'..... I also believe it's very important to correct students because if you correct them early, they are not supposed to do the same mistake again.... I can also rephrase it in my own way so they notice the correct form as opposed to the mistake they made.

In relation to which errors should be corrected, she specified saying:

Actually that (*always correcting errors*) would take too much time.... If the focus of the class is vocabulary, I wouldn't focus that much on grammar... but if the focus is on grammar I listen to the problems and if there's a mistake I correct..... other than that I correct what I consider as fatal mistakes in grammar... But stylistic mistakes I don't pay attention to them... for example

if student says 'I put perfume'.. I can pass... although the correct form is 'I'm wearing perfume'it's not a fatal mistake.

Besides projecting an understanding that too much correction would be time consuming and that a teacher needs to prioritize her choices when providing OCF, she presented an understanding of 'stylistic errors', which, as mentioned above, shows her to be an experienced, well-informed teacher. However, her classroom practices did not align with all of her stated beliefs at this stage. Despite the grammatical focus of the lesson, Dalila left several key errors in her students' oral production unattended (Example 18).

Example 18:

T: Imagine that you had won one million\$ last year, what would you have done with it?

S1: If I win a million last year, I would go to Paris. (*error underlined*)

T: Who else?

S2: Last year? I will buy a Lamborghini. (*error underlined*)

S3: I wish (*laughs*)

S4: If I win a million dollars last year, I would have travel around the world. (*error underlined*)

As is evident from the above example, student 4 made a similar error to student 1 '...win a million\$ last year'. It could be assumed that absence of the teachers' OCF to the error the first time did not attract other students' attention to its inaccuracy, paving the way for the same error to be repeated in such a short interval. Such an episode can be seen as presenting support for the global significance of OCF in the language classroom, which was also touched upon by a number of students during the focus group meetings.

Discussion about the techniques used for correcting oral errors in class, whether implicit or explicit, and the advantages of such techniques showed a level of familiarity on Dalila's side concerning different forms of OCF and their benefits.

If there's a mistake I need to say it out loud again.. this is what I normally do for oral interaction and correction of speaking errors..... mostly I don't provide the correction right away, sometimes I stress on the mistake, for example I say 'Does he GOES?' ... Here they realize there's something wrong... so in this situation I try to guide them more... give them another chance to think about what they have said... I guess if I just correct the mistake directly it wouldn't stick to their minds.

Despite such an inclination towards pushing students to correct their errors by highlighting where they had gone wrong, Dalila's classroom practices did not quite support her stated beliefs. Out of the twenty-nine error related IEs occurring during her class, she used a form of recast in twenty-seven, with several of these recasts followed by metalinguistic feedback (Example 19) at stages of the lesson which focused more on getting students to orally produce the language.

Example 19:

S: Something I regret....mmm... If I have my books this morning, the teacher would not had shouted.

T: No... if I HAD HAD... this is third conditional and we use the past perfect form after 'if' *(recast + metalinguistic feedback)*

S: *(silence)*

Regarding students noticing and recognizing the corrective intent behind her treatment of oral errors, Dalila referred to students' self-correction, which she also related to the effectiveness of the CF technique for acquiring the correct form:

If I repeat the sentence and stress on the mistake, they usually realize it and correct it if they correct themselves this means I have made them notice the mistake and the error correction is effective...this is important so they produce it accurately later.

Such uptake following the provision of OCF occurred only twice throughout the whole session during IEs when the teacher used some form of elicitation, but has not occurred when a recast was used. In the case of recasts, Dalila either followed the recast with metalinguistic feedback, accordingly there was no opportunity for uptake (Example 19), or did not provide enough wait time for students to reformulate their erroneous language production (Example 20). It was also noticed during the observation that the teacher tends to repeat the students' accurate utterances most of the time, this poses the question of whether the corrective intent behind recasts was lost to students because they are used to their teacher echoing their correct utterances throughout the session.

Example 20:

S: Something I would different in the past....well... study hard.. If I have studied hard in high school, I would join the faculty of medicine.

T: You mean if you HAD studied hard, you would HAVE JOINED... (*recast*)

What kind of doctor did you want to be? (*topic continuation*)

S: A doctor for children.

While discussing how students might feel when corrected in front of their colleagues, Dalila restated her understanding of the affective aspect of OCF explaining:

Yes, this (*feeling uncomfortable for being corrected in front of the class*) can happen but I try to avoid making them have that feeling..... they need to understand that it's ok to make mistakes because we're learning and that when they are corrected everyone can benefit because a mistake is repetitive and usually more than one student makes it.

Her classroom practice did project a positive attitude towards students' errors; in addition, she often resorted to positive reinforcement when students gave a correct answer.

As evident from the above, Dalila's beliefs and practices converged in certain aspects and diverged in others. Her belief in an inductive approach to grammar teaching was very well stated and it was reflected in classroom practice. Her reference to past language learning experience and how it guides her approach to teaching grammar is a testament of the role our past experience as learners plays in shaping our beliefs and practices as teachers. Despite stating her belief that not all errors need to be attended to during classroom interaction, unless they were related to the focus of the lesson, she left several errors without attempting any form of correction, which might have led other students to committing similar errors. Notwithstanding her evident awareness of several OCF techniques, both implicit and explicit, and her conviction that pushing students to self-correct is a more beneficial approach to dealing with oral errors, she mainly resorts to limited forms of recasts

and metalinguistic feedback during the different stages of the lesson without an attempt to push students to self-correct. This serves the purpose of the current study; it suggests that even teachers with a considerable amount of teaching experience at their disposal can benefit from exposure to various techniques for OCF and training on their uses at different stages of the lesson.

4.2.4 Teacher D – Sherifa (February 2016)

Upon joining the study, Sherifa had three years of teaching experience without receiving any formal teacher training. Analysis of the beliefs she expressed during the interview and her classroom practices shows some similarities and some contradictions. The first similarity relates to her grammar teaching approach. Contrary to the three previous teachers, she expressed the importance of introducing grammatical rules at an early stage when teaching grammar. She stated:

I start by writing the title of the lesson on board try to make them tell me the rule if it's something they might be familiar with..... for new things I would put the rule on the board then start to explain.... I then introduce the use of this grammatical structure.... I would also try to give as many examples as possible after that.

Such a deductive approach to grammar teaching was mirrored in her classroom teaching when she started off the session about conditionals by writing 'Conditional Sentences' on the board, then, each conditional at a time, she would begin with writing the rule, followed by the use, followed by a couple of examples to highlight rule and use. As a result, this stage of the lesson saw minimal participation from students resulting in very limited interaction between them and the teacher. In

addition, when asked about the means for helping students improve their production of a taught grammatical item, she made reference to the rules on the board, 'I keep the rule on the board so that students see it and I refer to it when they make a mistake'. Such constant reference to rules on the board might have disrupted the flow of language practice at certain stages of the lesson. In the following example (Example 21) students were acting out a role-play to practise the use of different conditional forms:

Example 21:

S1: Can we meet tonight for study?

S2: Ok.... If I was free, we will meet.

(error underlined)

S1: What about

(teacher interrupts)

T: Look at the board (*name of student*), which tense in first conditional?

S1: mmmm... first or second conditional

Sherifa highly emphasized the importance of error correction during classroom interaction with students and made an interesting distinction between the needs of lower level students and those more proficient ones in relation to addressing their errors, as well as the affective dimension of such correction and how it relates to students' motivation. She strongly stated:

I think it's (*error correction*) very important... For the weak students, it's important for me to correct them in a mild way so they wouldn't feel discouraged from venturing an answer again.... because sometimes after making two or three mistakes they're like 'Ok, I'm not going to answer again', I feel they have no motivation.... For the good ones they sometimes don't like when you correct them..... ... so we can't go out right and just say 'No, that's wrong', because they're just not going to accept that ... so you gently try to get them to reconsider their answer..... but you have to correct either way... both the good ones and the bad ones have to be corrected, at least so they wouldn't think you're ignoring them because this will affect their motivation as well.

An important point mentioned by the teacher relates to what I have referred to in the discussion of the previous research question as ‘feedback discrimination’, which was raised by students in the focus group meetings when they noticed their teachers corrected errors for some students but not others.

Sherifa’s keenness to pay equal attention to all students was also reflected in the amount of error correction she provides during oral interaction. When asked which errors she would choose to correct, she stated:

Always.... I correct errors all the time.... Of course I mainly pay attention to the focus of the lesson.... I also try to correct as many other mistakes as I can... This is important, this is how they learn and it can help in their exams.

Sherifa is the second teacher to relate error correction to students’ performance in the exam shedding more light on the exam-oriented culture that affects beliefs and practices of teachers, as well as the classroom expectations of students. Of the twenty-five IEs including grammatical errors she provided OCF for all, in addition to providing OCF for twelve IEs including lexical errors of a total of fourteen. The phonological errors were not addressed, which again could relate to them not being evaluated in written exams, accordingly they are not a priority when it comes to error correction.

When asked whether she used different techniques for error correction during interaction with her students in the classroom she explained:

I think so.... I haven't thought about it this way before, but I think I use different techniques.... sometimes I tell them 'I don't think that is correct', and I ask the person who made the mistake 'what do you think?'... and sometimes I make the class convince them ... I say 'Ok guys, who thinks this is not correct?' if they raise their hands I choose someone and I ask them to explain or correct... sometimes it's me giving the answer and sometimes I try to elicit from the class.

In addition to highlighting several approaches to error correction, her comment presented an interesting insight into the fact that teachers might not consciously think about OCF in the classroom. In a following comment she added 'For me I guess it's trial and error, I correct in different ways to see what will work'.

With relation to using explicit and implicit techniques for correcting students' grammatical errors she commented:

T: 90% of the time I don't say the correct thing right away.. I try to guide them to correct.... 10% of the time I slip and go right ahead and correct it..... In the grammar specifically I let them correct themselves... I would try to remind them with the rule, or I try to get them to remind themselves

R: So is that what you mainly do, you try to refer them to the rule at all stages of the lesson?

T: Yes..... I always remind them of previous explanation in class the rule and the use of the structure.

Sherifa' classroom practice both converged with and diverged from her above stated beliefs. Concerning referring students to the board in relation to error correction, this occurred the majority of the time (Example 21). However, in the issue of getting students to correct their oral errors, classroom practice contradicted what she stated above. The teacher repeatedly attempted a form of elicitation, repeating the

mistake in a rising intonation, (Example 22) but did not wait for any uptake from students and corrected herself. In other cases, she would provide a form of recast without waiting for uptake from the student (Example 23).

Example 22:

- S: My mother always said if I would done better in my exams, she would have buy me a car (*laughs*) (*error underlined*)
T: If you WOULD done? If you HAD done. (*elicitation+recast*)
S: Yes, but I want the car.

Example 23:

- S: If I were President, I will give colleges six month holiday, but I am not (*class laughs*) (*error underlined*)
T: If you were president, you *would* give six months holiday. What about the rest of the class, what would you do? (*recast*)
S2: Give big salaries.

Concerning both noticing of the more implicit forms of OCF and the effectiveness of oral error correction in class, the teacher explained ‘sometimes I realize from their face that they didn’t get the correction so I stop at that point and try to explain it to them’. No reference was made to students’ uptake or their attempts to repair their errors, the concept of reproducing a more target like language form was not present in the teacher’s mind, which could be linked to the observations made above that students were not pushed to modify their erroneous language output at any point throughout the lesson.

Sherifa showed an understanding of the affective dimension to OCF early on during the interview while discussing several aspect of oral error correction. While

discussing the degree of discomfort students might feel when corrected in front of their colleagues, she explained that:

I think it's about the way the teacher would handle it.... You don't look at them as if you're blaming them for making the mistake.... Also, there should be no mockery, because I've heard that some teachers do that I knew of several cases in secondary school that report on teachers making fun of students when they make mistakes, this can result in a feeling of humiliation so students feel bad and they don't like the teacher anymore... after that they feel reluctant to participate in the classroom.

Such a deep awareness of the affective side to OCF was reflected in her classroom teaching, except for four error related IEs when she used 'Why?' and 'Really?' in response to students' errors, which might have been intimidating for a couple of students. It should also be pointed out that the lack of opportunities for uptake on the students' side might have not allowed for a better picture of their emotional response to the provision of OCF; since whether students attempt a form of repair or not could depend on their motivation and willingness to participate which would be greatly affected by the way the teacher delivers the OCF. Also, her reference to 'mockery' and 'making fun' when globally correcting students' errors in front of the whole class echoes several instances when students raised the same issue during focus group meetings, which makes it a key issue to focus on when working on the provision of OCF.

In conclusion, a different tendency seen with Sherifa, in comparison to the other three teachers, is preference for a more deductive approach to language teaching, which inhibits interaction with students inside the classroom at the beginning of the

lesson. This might shed light on the significance of training with relation to classroom practice. If Sherifa is the only teacher among the five participants who has not received any form of in-service or pre-service teacher training, that could be one of the reasons why she is resorting to a grammar teaching approach that relies more on the grammar-translation method, rather than attempting a more communicative approach, which is the general tendency in the institute where the current investigation took place. Another observation is that, similar to Sally, Sherifa projected an exam-oriented approach to teaching, which was reflected through her eagerness to correct most errors made by her students for fear that 'they might come in the exam'. In addition, she conveyed little knowledge of OCF techniques and mentioned that she did not consciously think about them before, thus her approach to the correction of spoken errors was quite limited; this serves the purpose of the current investigation which aims at guiding teachers to knowing and using various forms of OCF techniques. Sherifa also showed awareness of the importance of considering the affective aspect when providing students with OCF. Finally, she made quite an insightful comment about attending to the errors of all students during classroom interaction so none of them would feel ignored, which could possibly lead to demotivation to participate on their side.

4.2.5 Teacher E – Malak (September 2016)

Malak had only eight months experience before participating in the study. These consisted of five months teaching experience, followed by a five-week training

course. Her beliefs and practices reflected her inexperience in certain areas, as well as some of the fresh ideas she had recently acquired from her training course. Concerning her approach to grammar teaching, she referred to a mix between an inductive and a deductive approach, following what was introduced in her recently completed training course. She explained:

In the course I took they gave us ideas like using pictures and trying to elicit sentences or situations using the focus of the grammar lesson. I can also ask one-on-one on the spot question..... I ask questions related to real life situations which require an answer based on the focus of the grammar lesson... this way they become familiar with the concept before we turn to rules.

As for helping students produce a grammatical structure more accurately, she directly referred to error correction in relation to two things, using the board, and motivating students to correct.

When a student makes a mistake I put that on the board hoping students would notice it.... I also try to encourage everyone to correct... This way it sticks in their heads I sometimes give them a bonus if they correct it and this motivates them and makes them focus.

All the points included in the above quotation were observed throughout the session. The teacher resorts to the board for the majority of IEs including errors. She constantly tried to involve the whole class in the correction of errors which helped in keeping students alert throughout the lesson. The issue of student motivation does seem to have an important role in her classroom practices. Other than the

bonus¹³ she offers students, she is always keen on using positive reinforcement and commending students on any form of success they achieve in their L2 production.

These points are illustrated in the following example:

Example 24:

S1: Something imaginary? Ahh.. yes... if Aly is tall, he would have play basketball (*class laughs*) (*error underlined*)

T: (*Teacher writes sentence on board*). What about the rest of the class, what do you think?

S2: Imaginarymmm... If Aly was tall..... (*silence*)

T: (*Teacher gives a thumbs up*). Good (*name of student*) Who can complete the sentence?

S3: If Aly was tall, he would had....mmm.... have played ball.

T: Very good (*smiling*)

With regard to the importance of error correction during classroom interaction, Malak believes in its importance but does not feel comfortable using it as it can be a source of embarrassment for students; it can demotivate them after they attempt to participate.

It's very important to correct during classroom discussions; however, I'm not fond of it because it's embarrassing ... If I'm a student participating and contributing in the class and here you are embarrassing me... I will be intimidated and might not want to participate again.... I wouldn't correct directly, I'd take the error on the board and indirectly correct and repeat it.

Focusing on the amount of error correction to be provided in the classroom, she believes that 'approaching every single error would take too much time, especially with weaker students' so she would mainly correct errors related to the focus of the

¹³ A bonus is extra marks given to students as a reward for participating in class, doing extra work assigned by the teacher....etc.

lesson 'by taking errors on the board and correcting'. This was evident from the observation of her class, out of the twenty-two IEs including grammatical errors related to the focus of the lesson, conditionals, she used the board sixteen times. However, this was still time consuming and might have prevented the teacher from covering all what was included in the session plan.

When asked about other techniques for oral error correction, other than resorting to the board, which she uses during classroom interaction, she commented:

T: Not yet, I mainly resort to the board...this is what I remember worked with me when I was a college student.... but I'm very careful when it comes to correcting because I don't want to embarrass them... I want to encourage them to keep participating and interacting even if they make mistakes.

R: So in the teacher-training course you've completed recently, haven't you been introduced to any techniques for correction of spoken errors?

T: Not really.. The emphasis was on how not to embarrass students through different classroom situations, errors included.... I can also relate to a French class I was taking recently.. in order to help us understand, the teacher used to leave the rule on the board and always refer to it when anyone says something wrong

Such limited knowledge in relation to the correction of spoken errors might be attributed to Malak's short experience, in addition to the lack of focus on this area in the training course. She also referred to use of the board in relation to her previous language learning experience. However, although she stated that using the board was her only primary technique for correcting spoken errors, it was observed during her teaching that she resorted four times to metalinguistic feedback and twice to elicitation followed by a recast, as in the following example:

Example 25:

S: So he is sorry about past... He is saying if he had go to university he would
studied engineering (error underlined)

T: You mean if he had.....? (elicitation)

S: (silence)

T: If he had gone to university? (recast)

S: Yes

Her limited knowledge about OCF techniques seems to be the reason why she unconsciously uses more than one technique but does not realize it. This restricted familiarity with oral error correction techniques was also demonstrated when Malak was asked about her preference in using explicit and implicit techniques for grammatical errors. She was not clear about the terms explicit and implicit and the following conversation took place:

R: When correcting students' oral grammatical errors, would you rather provide the correction right away or guide them to correct themselves?

T: If it's been taught I would guide them, if it hasn't been taught I would correct them...

R: Can you think of an example maybe?

T: For example, teaching the present simple.... if a student tells me a wrong grammatical sentence when we've already talked about it.....(teacher is quiet for some time not knowing what to say next)

R: Ok let me help...If I'm the student and you've already explained the present simple and I say 'I plays tennis everyday'... how would you go about correcting that?

T: (came up with the following scenario) I ask him 'You do it all the time?'...

S: Yes.....

T: so we talked before about something you do routinely, remember...

S: Yes...

T: so when you use 'I', do you give it an 's' or do you not?

S: Oh, it's I play....

T: what about your sister, does she PLAY tennis? ...

S: yes...

T: *She....what?*

S: *she plays tennis...*

R: This would be your choice, to guide at any stage of the lesson?

T: Yes, this way I highlighted the rule and the use. So it makes it clear for them similar to putting the mistake and correcting on the board.

The above exchange shows the teacher's keenness on constantly referring to rules and use of the grammatical structure. Although the error correction scenario she came up with was very much related to the same concept of putting errors on the board to highlight them, it still showed a level of awareness that might help when training on the use of various OCF techniques.

With relation to students' noticing of implicit error correction, she mentioned 'their facial expression'. She stated that a teacher should be able to tell from students' faces whether they understood that she was attempting a correction. Concerning the effectiveness of the error treatment in helping students acquire the correct language, she referred to exam results and 'whether they get it right in the test'. Two important points emerge here. Firstly, Malak made no reference to students' uptake or their attempt to modify their language output following the provision of CF as a sign of noticing or effectiveness of error correction. Secondly, the reference to exams, which has been a recurrent theme in the interviews with most of the participating teachers.

Acknowledging the affective dimension to being corrected in front of the whole class, Malak explains:

Students can easily feel a degree of discomfort, sometimes even humiliation... So the teacher should convert the mistake into a learning tool... I do exactly that... they would give a wrong sentence, I take it and discuss it with the whole class.... I ask them 'Does it make sense?'... some say 'No' and I ask 'Why does it not make sense?'... I give them options to choose from...But I know this takes a lot of time.

Observation of her class presents evidence that she might resort to positive reinforcement in an attempt to provide error correction in a more favourable context that would encourage students to participate (Example 24). However, her reference in the above quotation that her error correction techniques might be time consuming presents an opportunity for introducing her to other OCF techniques which would not cause 'humiliation' nor would be too time consuming.

To sum up, Malak, the least experienced of all the participating teachers, mainly showed similarities between her beliefs and classroom practices. A mix of an inductive-deductive approach to grammar teaching was reflected in her classroom practice as a fresh outcome of the training course she had recently taken. Her approach to grammar correction depended primarily on using the board for highlighting errors, a technique which she related to her past learning experience. She viewed this technique as a means of not embarrassing students, acknowledging the affective dimension of oral error correction. She expressed awareness of her lack of familiarity with other CF techniques and that use of the board is time consuming,

suggesting a need on her side to be introduced to other techniques which can save time and aid in the flow of communication throughout the lesson, an issue feeding into the focus of the current investigation. According to her views, error correction is considered effective when it positively influences students' performance in exams, which highlights the exam-oriented culture which dominates several teaching practices.

4.2.6 Discussion

To sum up, the participating teachers exhibited some similarities and some differences among each other. Some discrepancies have also been observed between the beliefs and practices of each individual. They projected varying degrees of awareness regarding oral error correction in the classroom, an issue that could be linked to their different levels of experience as language teachers. Despite such variation, the above analysis suggests a potential benefit for the participating teachers from a broader exposure to the diverse techniques available for the provision of OCF, as well as practice of and reflection on the use of these techniques during interaction with their students in the language classroom. These issues will be addressed in the following research question.

4.3 The Relation between Training and Teachers' Classroom Practice

In an attempt to answer the third research question: *To what extent does training teachers on providing OCF affect their classroom teaching?*, several data collection methods were employed:

- 1) two stimulated recall activities, the first utilizing the audio-recording from the practice session with a small number of volunteer students, the second making use of the video recording from observation two;
- 2) three classroom observations following commencement of the training process;
- 3) reflective guided electronic journals (e-journals);
- 4) a reflective feedback meeting following observation three;
- 5) a post-intervention interview

(For a detailed timeline of the data collection methods and teacher training schedule refer to Appendix J).

Each of the two stimulated recall activities aimed at giving teachers a chance to reflect on their use of OCF. The first was conducted immediately following the audio recorded practice session with the volunteer students; the second took place right after observation two (the first observation was conducted following commencement of the training), which was video recorded. This is in line with Gass and Mackey's (2000) argument that the stimulated recall should take place immediately following the event in order to minimize the effect of memory decay. The instructions given to the teachers prior to commencing the activity clarified that

they could stop the recording following any interactional exchange (IE) they wanted to comment on and reflect on their thoughts; in addition, if the researcher deemed it necessary, she could stop the recording and ask the teacher to reflect on a specific IE. Discussions during each activity were audio recorded and later transcribed by the researcher. If more than one IE discussed during the stimulated recall activities had the same focus, for example reflecting on the salience of a specific sub-type of elicitation, only one IE was included in the analysis to represent the teachers' stream of thought in that area. The IEs for each stimulated recall activity are presented separately.

Analysis of the video recordings from the three observed classes for each teacher followed the pattern presented in the analysis of question two by identifying three-move-models of IEs. Once the IEs had been identified, they were further examined and coded for the general categories of feedback they fit in; these categories were classified as *recast*: a form of CF provided in response to the learner's non-target like utterance, which offered a correct form of that utterance, *elicitation*: corrective feedback which does not provide the target-like form for learners, but pushes them to self-correct, and *others*: mainly explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback (Appendix A). Following that, the various subtypes within both recasts and elicitations were identified, these subtypes were utilized when training teachers on the provision of OCF (refer to Appendix B for examples from Nassaji, 2007). Finally, since student uptake following the provision of OCF could be viewed as evidence of noticing the corrective intent, such uptake was examined and the learners'

responses were categorized according to the degree of repair they manifested; whether successful repair, partial repair, or no repair (refer to Appendix K for clarification of the different degrees of repair).

The third method of data collection, reflective e-journals, aimed mainly at keeping the participants involved in the process by making a written medium available for expressing their thoughts. Accordingly, these e-journals presented teachers with the opportunity to reflect on the training process, as well as their classroom practices, throughout different intervals of the intervention. Such ongoing reflections would also allow the researcher to modify the steps of the training process if necessary. Each of the three following questions was emailed to teachers separately (refer to Appendix J for the timeline):

Email 1:

What are your thoughts on the training process so far? Do you have any suggestions for modifying the steps?

Email 2:

How do you think the training has affected your provision of oral corrective feedback following your students' spoken errors in the classroom?

Email 3:

Which oral corrective feedback techniques do you think work better with the different group levels that you teach? Why?

The response rate was quite good, four of the five teachers responded to all three emails and one teacher responded to only the first email. Given the power dynamics imbalance, and in order not to put pressure on the latter teacher, there was no

follow up regarding her not responding to emails two and three. This brought to the forefront of my reflections as a researcher the issue of ethical considerations in action research, as well as power dynamics between researcher and participants. Viewing this situation from a researcher's perspective, my first instinct was to contact the teacher in an attempt to encourage and urge her to email the remaining reflection tasks. However, deeper consideration of the situation brought me to the realization that by doing so my demands might conflict with the teacher's needs. This resonated with Thompson's observation that 'negotiation and assertiveness skills involved in conflict management can amount to skills in the sensitive and appropriate use of power' (Thompson, 2007, p.18, cited in Llewelyn-Williams, 2009, p.189). There was a possibility that the teacher did not manage to accomplish the task due to the increased workload that usually accompanies action research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018). Accordingly, if I were to urge her to pursue the task, it might have been viewed as an insensitive exercise of power.

Each teacher's answers were included in a separate document. The researcher opted for dealing with each teacher's responses individually in order to associate those at a later stage with results from other data collection methods for the same teacher. As regards data analysis, following detailed readings of the responses, themes were identified and codified based on the focus of each question. If any new themes occurred, they were codified as 'others' during the primary analysis and if further analysis showed those themes to be significant to the development of each teacher's beliefs and/practices, they were included when reporting on the findings.

With the aim of allowing teachers an opportunity to continuously reflect on their teaching practice, the fourth method employed was a reflective feedback session following observation three (the second of the three observed sessions following commencement of the training). This meeting was conducted directly following the lesson in order to minimize impact of memory loss; the aim was to tap into each teacher's classroom experience while still fresh in her mind focusing on two main issues: 1) the teacher's choice of OCF techniques and whether she thinks they worked for her students, and 2) students' attitudes regarding being corrected in front of the whole class. I opted for not recording the session and made notes instead. This decision originated from awareness on my side of the overload I was already facing with transcribing an abundance of recorded data.

It was also my conviction at this stage that this feedback session was quite focused and that I would be able to manage with note taking. However, one of the challenges with regards field notes is that 'you are stuck with the form in which you made them at the time and that your readers will only have access to how you recorded the events' (Silverman, 2013, p.220). I partly attempted to overcome this by showing the relevant notes to each teacher and inviting corrections; however, none were made. The notes taken for each teacher were analyzed to determine significant themes linked to the two main issues mentioned above. Similar to the e-journals, if new themes emerged, they were codified and eventually reported in the findings if deemed significant.

The final reflective data collection method for research question three was the post-intervention one-on-one interviews (Appendix F). Those aimed at encouraging teachers to reflect on the training process and on their beliefs and practices regarding the provision of OCF, giving the researcher the opportunity to examine any changes which might have occurred over the course of the intervention. The interviews were fully transcribed by myself; despite being a lengthy process, it allowed for the whole data provided by teachers to be accessible for coding and analysis. A coding frame was established to determine important themes, allowing for an in-depth examination of the views put forward during each interview. Since this was a 'standardized open-ended interview', all teachers were asked the same questions; however, due to individual differences and varying backgrounds, some of the views expressed might have differed from one teacher to the other, prompting unplanned questions on my side. As a result, some of the emerging themes were similar among all teachers, while others were more specific to each individual participant.

The analyzed data from each of the above methods will be presented separately for each individual teacher. This will be followed by a discussion section for each participant which sums up the views and beliefs expressed through the various reflective methods, as well as the teaching practices observed during observations two, three and four. In addition, any changes that have occurred over the course of the training process will be highlighted in comparison to the pre-intervention data gathered through observation one and the pre-intervention interview.

Since the data collection was an ongoing process aiming at gathering reflective data from the participating teachers through various reflective methods, analysis showed that some themes occurred repetitively through more than one data collection method; accordingly, I opted for presenting the most relevant data in relation to that theme.

4.3.1 Teacher A – Yosra (September 2015)

4.3.1.1 Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students

The interactional exchanges highlighted below, chosen from ten IEs discussed during this stimulated recall activity, summarize the main issues addressed. While listening to the recording, some were paused by the researcher and others by the teacher.

Example 26:

S: Buses is more cheaper than taxis.
T: mmm.. Buses is more cheaper than taxis?
 Ok... Are you sure that's correct? *(marked elicitation + enhanced prompt)*
S: *(silent)*.... *(no uptake)*
T: Is that correct? *(enhanced prompt)*
S: ... *(silent)*... *(no uptake)*
T: Ok.. Buses are cheaper than taxis. *(embedded recast – prompt)*

The IE in example 26 was paused by the researcher inquiring about how functional the teacher thought her treatment of the error was. Yosra commented that 'Maybe the correction was ambiguous'. She related this to her use of 'Ok' following the student's repetition of the error. She commented 'It's like I was sending mixed

messages to the student, I said 'ok' then asked if he was sure it was correct'. She expressed a belief that error correction should be focused, highlighting the error as succinctly as possible. Yosra added that the student's silence showed confusion and that she 'maybe should use another form of correction that can help the student focus'.

The teacher paused the recording following the IE in example 27 and presented what I consider an insightful reflection on her use of non-corrective repetition, stating 'I guess if I keep repeating what they say when it's correct they will not realize when I use a recast that it is for correction'. Such non-corrective repetition occurred five times in the recording and Yosra commented on each incident.

Example 27:

S: Travelling to Cairo by train is faster than going by bus.

T: So travelling by train is faster than by bus... good. (*non-corrective-repetition*)

S: Yes, and more comfort too.

Yosra paused the recording following example 28 stating that her use of the correction technique 'was maybe not right for this error'. She elaborated that stopping before the error (*elliptical elicitation*) might not have attracted the student's attention because his utterance contained 'more than one mistake'. She added that she should have changed the corrective technique for her second attempt at correction.

Example 28:

S: My father think that motorways is much safe as country roads.

T: Your father thinks that motorways.....? (*elliptical elicitation*)

S: mmmm.....is more safe.	(uptake: no repair)
T: He thinks that motorways.....?	(elliptical elicitation)
S: No, more safer.	(uptake: partial repair)
T: Motorways are safer than country roads.	(embedded recast – prompt)

Example 29 was also paused by Yosra who reflected on her use of 'No', making reference to the practice sessions conducted between her, myself and the other participating teacher, Sally. She explained 'I shouldn't use 'no' here... I feel it embarrassed the student... we discussed during practice that we have to take care of the words we use and of the tone of our voice when we correct.....mmm.... I also remember we discussed that I used 'No' and 'Wrong' a lot in class and that wasn't a good choice'.

Example 29:

S: Maybe the bed and breakfast is slight more cheap than hotel.	
T: No... we don't say slight more cheap. It's slightly cheaper.	(explicit correction)
S:..... (silent).....	(no uptake)

While reflecting on the above IEs, Yosra showed an awareness that certain corrective techniques might be more suitable than others, depending on the error being addressed. In addition, she demonstrated an understanding of the importance of shifting from one corrective technique to another when necessary. Yosra also stated that the corrective intent of recasts might be missed by students due to her regular use of non-corrective repetition. Finally, she reflected on the practice which had taken place earlier, as part of the training process, with relation to the affective dimension of providing OCF and how it can discourage students from participating in classroom discussions.

4.3.1.2 Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation

Of the twenty-three IEs occurring in the video recording of Yosra's second observation, the lesson focusing on comparative and superlative forms, twelve were discussed during the stimulated recall activity. Of those, the three that summarize the main points discussed are presented below.

Example 30:

S1: Well, Fiat less expensive BMW, so I can buy.

T: Fiat less expensive BMW?

(marked elicitation)

S1: *(silence)*.....

(no uptake)

T: *(looks towards the rest of the class)*

S2: No, Fiat is less expensive than BMW.

(uptake: repair)

T: Yes, less expensive than... thank you so much.

The teacher paused the recording following example 30 and reflected on her thoughts that 'while teaching I felt this error could be addressed using some form of elicitation'. She elaborated 'When they correct themselves, they can remember later'. She carried on to explain how she was tempted when the student did not attempt repair to provide the correction herself, however, 'it was like something kept me quite....I looked towards the rest of the class because I knew others can correct and they did'. She commented on the whole class benefit of providing OCF, especially elicitation, interestingly referring to it as a 'form of class activity'.

Example 31:

S: Yes but the older we get more weaker our body is.

T: So the older you get the weaker your body is.

(embedded recast – prompt)

S: Yes, so we have to be careful.

(Uptake: no repair)

The researcher paused the recording following the IE in example 31 inquiring whether the student got the intent behind the corrective recast. Yosra reflected on previous practice with the researcher and the other participating teacher, as well as the discussion that took place during the previous stimulated recall activity. She commented on her use of a recast saying, 'One of the recast forms we practiced was providing the correction in the form of a question to help students notice the correction... I didn't do that here and probably they didn't notice'. Yosra further elaborated that the student could have regarded it as 'simply a repetition of what he said', especially since he carried on with the interaction with no reference to the modified form. She also made reference to the previous stimulated recall activity explaining '...like what I said when we listened to the recorded practice.... When I repeat what the student says even if it is correct he can get confused when I use a recast'. At this stage Yosra made reference to the non-corrective repetition incidents which she had observed in her video, a total of seven, stating that 'I should pay more attention not to keep repeating everything'.

Yosra commented on example 32, concerning how she was 'clearly focusing on the error'. She suggested that since this form of elicitation is 'short and stresses the mistake as if asking a question', it presents the learner with a form of OCF that can be easily noticed and addressed.

Example 32:

S: Well I hope college is not as hard school.. School was difficult.

T: Not as hard school?

(marked elicitation)

S: ...mmm..... Not as hard as school?

(uptake: repair)

T: Yes, thank you.

Discussion of the above IEs, among other similar ones not included at this analysis, draws attention to two main points. The first is an awareness on Yosra's side of the potential benefit of using elicitation, since it promotes noticing of the error and encourages the whole class to correct. The second is a potential benefit of the different stages of the training process, both practice and reflection, which were referred to by the teacher during more than one occasion.

4.3.1.3 Reflective Feedback Meeting following Observation Three

Following the third observation session focusing on active and passive forms, a short feedback session was conducted with Yosra. The notes taken were grouped into the following themes:

- An inclination towards using elicitation as a form of error correction;
- The importance of paying close attention to the affective dimension of error correction.

A tendency towards the use of elicitation was manifested through Yosra's comments and through observation of her class. When discussing her general approach to error correction she expressed a preference towards elicitation, admitting that she originally had doubts concerning its suitability for lower and intermediate proficiency levels. However, with implementation in the class she noticed that 'focused elicitation which highlights the error' (*marked elicitation*) is frequently

noticed by different proficiency level students, pushing them to modify their language output. She still voiced a concern that elicitation might sometimes be time consuming with lower level students because 'they take time to correct'. She added that she would probably not resort to it if she were short on time because the items in the session plans 'might come in the test'.

When focusing on how students feel about being corrected in front of the whole class, the affective aspect was raised for a second time, the first was during the first stimulated recall activity. Yosra expressed a degree of satisfaction concerning how her provision of OCF was 'sensitive to students' feelings'. She made reference to discussions during earlier practice, and the reflection during the first stimulated recall activity, stating that she now tries hard not to use words like 'No' and 'Wrong' in response to errors. In addition, Yosra made reference to the second stimulated recall activity explaining that she noticed her use of 'no' was very limited. Examination of the video recording for her second and third observations showed the use of 'no' only twice during her second observed class, and showed no use of 'no' or 'wrong' during her third observed class.

4.3.1.4 Guided Electronic Journals

Of the three questions sent over the eight weeks of the data collection cycle, Yosra replied to only the first question, the one focusing on the significance of the training and inquiring about any suggestions for its improvement. She had expressed before her concern about not being able to respond to these questions due to her busy

teaching schedule and postgraduate studies. I did not pressure her by any means and stated my full understanding of her situation.

Her response was sent by the end of week four, following observation two. Concerning the training process, she highlighted the benefits of being introduced to new techniques, which was not a focus of the training course she had taken some time ago:

I think being introduced to these techniques opened my eyes to new possibilities of error correction in class. I do not remember knowing about all these forms from previous training. I think it helps a lot in class.

Yosra made reference to the stimulated recall activities as a useful means of reflecting on her classroom practice and guiding her towards better classroom performance:

Two things I benefited from is listening to the recorded practice and watching the video of my teaching. It helped me focus and realize that some techniques can work better than others... it also attracted my attention not to use certain words that might embarrass students. Although we discussed this while practicing, listening and watching helped me focus more on what not to do.

4.3.1.5 OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons

As can be seen in Table 12, Yosra provided elicitation more than double the amount of other forms of OCF throughout the three observed lessons. She used elicitation 67.2% of the time, while recasts and other forms, namely metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction, occurred 23.8% and 9% consecutively. Such a higher use of elicitation might be seen as echoing her statements, in the various reflective

activities, regarding the benefits of elicitation for the whole class, as well as its salience which attracts learners' attention to the error in their language production.

Table 12: Total OCF Techniques Provided during Yosra's Three Observed Lessons

Type of CF	Number	%
Elicitation	45	67.2
Recasts	16	23.8
Others	6	9
Total	67	100

Table 13 presents a more detailed presentation of the distribution of elicitation and recasts for each of the observed sessions. The numbers show elicitation moves to be the most frequently used form of OCF, rising from 52.2% in observation two to 75% in observations three and four. As for recasts, numbers decreased from observation two up till observation four (34.8%, 20.8% and 15% consecutively).

Table13: Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Yosra in Each Observed Lesson

Obser- vations	Type of OCF			
	Elicitation	Recasts	Other	Total
2	12 (52.2%)	8 (34.8%)	3 (13%)	23 (100%)
3	18 (75%)	5 (20.8%)	1 (4.2%)	24 (100%)
4	15 (75%)	3 (15%)	2 (10%)	20 (100%)

As the training process introduced the teachers to several subtypes of elicitation and recasts (Appendix B), it was of interest to examine the use of each subtype within the scope of the broader categories of recasts and elicitation. Appendix L

shows the total frequencies and percentages of the subtypes of elicitation and recasts for the three observed lessons. The numbers presented show that marked elicitation (refer to Appendix B for definition) is the most frequent subtype (57.8%, n=26). Such recurrent use is reflected in Yosra's repeated statements that elicitation should be short, focused, and mainly aim at highlighting the error so that students can notice and attempt a correction.

The students' uptake following the provision of OCF by the teacher during the three observed lessons was categorized according to the degree of repair manifested (Appendix K). Table 14 presents high degrees of successful repair and partial repair (64.4%, n=29 and 22.2%, n=10) following elicitation moves, attesting to the salience of elicitation moves suggested by Yosra and their potential to push learners to attempt error correction. On the other hand, all recast moves resulted in a lower degree of repair (successful repair 18.7%, n=3 and partial repair 25%, n=4), suggesting either lack of noticing on students' part, or a missing urge to modify the original erroneous utterance since a correction to the error was already provided by the teacher.

Table 14: Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Yosra's Classes

	Successful repair	Partial repair	No repair
Elicitation (n=45)	29 (64.4%)	10 (22.2%)	6 (13.4%)
Recasts (n=16)	3 (18.7%)	4(25%)	9 (56.3%)

4.3.1.6 Post-Intervention Interview

Analysis of Yosra's post-intervention interview resulted in the following points:

- How the training influenced her classroom practice;
- A shift in her view regarding the use of elicitation;
- Recognition of the corrective intent behind OCF.

Commenting on the training, Yosra discussed more than one aspect. She talked about the stages of the training process and how each played a role in raising her awareness, explaining:

I think each part of the training helped in a specific area. At first when we discussed the techniques together and role-played using the practice sheets... I think it helped me realize that each technique could be used.... When we practiced with the students and recorded the practice it was a different feeling because these were real students.

She further elaborated on the stimulated recall activities as important in raising her awareness, despite not welcoming the idea at first:

To be totally honest, I wasn't very comfortable about watching my teaching videos because I have never done that before.... I thought it would be embarrassing... However, I realized that it really helps when I watch what I do so I can evaluate my teaching and see if anything should be changed.

Yosra made a recommendation concerning the practice and suggested:

If we did one more practice sheet before another grammar lesson I think it would have helped me because the discussion of the correction techniques during practice with you (*the researcher*) and the other teacher was useful.

Based on her recommendation another practice sheet (Appendix D) was included starting the second cycle of data collection, and was used for practice prior to observation three.

Yosra elaborated on a shift in her view regarding the use of elicitation as a form of OCF. In addition, she referred to how learners would benefit from the use of elicitation during oral interaction, making a second reference to the importance of covering all items which could 'come in the test', she stated:

For a while I thought recasts are easier and I would use elicitation if I have time... I felt elicitation is time consuming because students will take time to correct and I will have to skip things that would come in the test... by time I realized elicitation does not really take long for students to correct... I also noticed when watching my video that if the student does not correct his colleagues can so it is useful for the whole class

When discussing students' noticing and recognition of the corrective intent behind OCF, Yosra highlighted the importance of salience. She made reference to putting emphasis on the error, when using elicitation, or stressing on the correction, when providing recasts:

I think students notice that I try to correct them when I add a prompt to recasts, for example stress on the correction... with elicitation I usually highlight the mistake itself and make it sound like a question... so they understand something is wrong and try to correct this part.

This is partly reflected in her use of the subtypes of recasts and elicitation (Appendix L). She frequently uses marked elicitation (57.8%), which mainly highlights the error in a rising intonation. However, when it comes to recasts, which occur at a much lower frequency than elicitation (n=16, n=45 consecutively), only 50% of the recasts include a prompt which highlights the correction.

4.3.1.7 Discussion

The above analysis suggests a relation between training and the development of Yosra's teaching beliefs and classroom practices. The teacher herself attested to the benefit from various stages of the training: 1) the introduction to new techniques she was not familiar with, 2) the role-play practice with the other participating teacher and the researcher, 3) the recorded practice with the volunteer students, and 4) the various reflective activities which allowed her to contemplate her treatment of errors and use of OCF techniques.

In addition, Yosra's own reflections, as well as observations of her classes, showed a shift in her use of OCF during the training process, as opposed to the pre-intervention observation and interview. During the pre-intervention interview she demonstrated very little knowledge of OCF techniques, and observation of her class showed her repeatedly resorting to a more implicit form of oral error correction, mainly embedded recast + prompt (refer to Appendix B for definition). Such limited knowledge about and use of OCF suggested a possible benefit from her participation in the training, as James 2001 argues, 'The learning needs for teacher training are typically defined by a recognizable deficit in the participating teachers' knowledge or skills' James (2001, cited in Coburn, 2016, p.13). Yosra also stated that her preference for using implicit OCF techniques stemmed considerably from an awareness that she should not embarrass students when attempting oral correction.

Throughout the training process her preference for elicitation, a more explicit form of OCF, developed gradually as she perceived its suitability for all proficiency levels, as well as its prospective benefit for learners' language development. As for the affective dimension linked to the provision of OCF, Yosra made several references to how discussions while conducting the practice and while reflecting on her teaching, during the stimulated recall activities, helped her focus on the importance of not using negative language while providing OCF in order not to discourage students from participating in classroom interaction. Yosra's pre-intervention observation included several IEs where she used words such as 'no' and 'wrong' in reaction to learners' erroneous utterances. Examination of her video recorded observations throughout the training process showed considerable development in that area.

Of interest to the current investigation is the relation between the reflective activities, especially the stimulated recall activities, as a main component of the training process, and Yosra's beliefs and performance. She made more than one reference in the above data to certain realizations, which have resulted from her reflections during the stimulated recall activities. In addition, she stated their benefit as a teacher development tool, despite having earlier concerns about watching her teaching videos.

Finally, the exam-oriented culture that very much affects the teaching environment in the Egyptian educational context was highlighted twice in the above analysis with regard to the teacher's choice of OCF. Yosra made reference to the importance of

covering items which ‘can come in the test’ during the feedback session following observation three, and during the post-intervention interview. She related this issue to the choice of OCF techniques used by her in class, which should not be ‘time consuming’. As discussed in research question two, this issue of teaching to the test surfaced with more than one of the participating teachers during the pre-intervention interviews. Such recurrent reference to tests and exams could be associated with a tendency on some teachers’ side to teach to the test. It is suggested that such tendencies are fostered by students’ expectations, educational institutions, and teachers’ past learning and teaching experiences (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; McIlwraith & Fortune, 2016; Abdel Latif, 2012).

4.3.2 Teacher B – Sally (September 2015)

4.3.2.1 Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students

In this section, three of the IEs discussed during the stimulated recall activity, a total of seven, will be focused on. The three IEs shed light on some insightful reflections on the teacher’s part. The following example was paused by the researcher:

Example 33:

S: Scheduled flights is twice as reliable as charter

T: You said scheduled flights are what? (*embedded recast + prompt*)

S: Twice as reliable as charter. (*uptake: no repair*)

The researcher inquired about the error the teacher had identified during this IE and how she attempted to correct it. The following interaction took place:

T: The error was in the subject-verb agreement. That's why I repeated the error so they would correct (*teacher paused thinking*).....Well, no I actually provided the correction and the student just repeated the part which was originally correct... So I didn't help him correct.

R: Coming across the same error again, what would you do?

T: As I said, I should have repeated 'is' as if I'm asking a question and given the student a chance to correct, this way they can benefit more.

The above exchange presents awareness on the teacher's side regarding the importance of pushing learners to correct their errors, which will be manifested later through other reflective activities as well as classroom observations.

Example 34:

S: Buses are definitely more cheaper than taxis.

T: No, use uncomfortable for the description.

S: mmm..... I don't know

T: Just use uncomfortable not cheap.

S:...(silence).....

Example 34 was paused by Sally and she commented on two points regarding this IE, firstly, the use of 'No'. She mentioned this could embarrass students and inhibit them from participating. Secondly, she acknowledged that the student was confused when she asked him to use another adjective without correcting his erroneous utterance, 'I remember I could see it in his eyes that he's confused..... also I wasted a chance of correcting an important mistake related to the focus of the lesson'. Her comments express an awareness of the affective aspect of error correction, which will be further demonstrated later on.

Example 35:

S: Motorways 10 times as fast country roads.

T: Motorways are 10 times as fast AS country roads? (*embedded recast+prompt*)

Motorways ARE because it is plural. (*metalinguistic feedback*)

S: Ok (*uptake: no repair*)

Example 35 was also paused by the teacher. She commented on the presence of two errors in the student's sentence and that her providing correction for both might not have been the best choice. She explains 'This way the student didn't correct either mistake and if they don't correct they won't learn', reiterating the importance of getting students to modify their language production for the purpose of language development.

The outcome of this stimulated recall activity presents considerable awareness on Sally's side. It demonstrates her belief that getting students to correct their errors is a beneficial approach; in addition, it shows an understanding of the negative impact CF can have on students' motivation and willingness to participate if not handled with care.

4.3.2.2 Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation

During the stimulated recall session following observation two, Sally paused the recording following eleven of the twenty-three IEs in which OCF was provided. I did not feel the need to stop the video-recording at any point because the teacher's choice of OCF episodes covered the majority of the CF moves she used, and any of the ones which were not commented on were similar to others which had been

already reflected on by the teacher. Of the eleven IEs discussed, I chose to include four examples which, from my point of view, summarize her approach to error correction and resonate with her feedback in other reflective activities throughout the training process.

Example 36:

S1: I like to travel by buses because buses are cheap than taxis.
T: Buses are CHEAP than? *(marked elicitation)*
S1: Yes, buses are cheap from taxis. *(uptake: no repair)*
T: *(addressing the rest of the class)* Yes, anyone?
S2: Buses better because they are cheaper than taxis. *(uptake: repair)*
T: Very good... So buses are CHEAPER THAN taxis. *(positive reinforcement)*

Sally commented on example 36 saying, 'this is why I like elicitation, others also benefit... even if the student who made the error didn't correct....sometimes other students are eager to correct'. This comment was reflected in several IEs, when she provided OCF Sally usually encouraged the whole class to correct and provided positive reinforcement when they attempted a correction.

Example 37:

S1: When travel, bicycle is good for health, but is slightly dangerous than the car.
T: Is what? *(unmarked elicitation)*
S1: Slightly dangerous. *(uptake: no repair)*
T: Slightly dangerous? *(marked elicitation)*
S1:....*(silence)*.... *(no uptake)*
T: Slightly dangerous? Or.....? *(marked elicitation)*
S2: Slightly more dangerous? *(uptake: repair)*
T: Yes, very good... slightly more dangerous. *(positive reinforcement)*

Sally paused the recording following the above IE (example 37) and commented on two issues, firstly, that although the learner made several errors in her first sentence, she (*the teacher*) decided to address the error related to the focus of the lesson, the use of comparative and superlative adjectives. She stated 'I realized that there were major errors, like the use of the definite article before bicycle, but if I focus on all errors I might distract and frustrate the student'. Secondly, Sally commented that her use of 'What?' in her first attempt at correcting the error might not have been the best choice. She explained 'I believe the student thought I did not hear what she said'. She elaborated that using 'What?' did not attract the student's attention to the error she had made. Noteworthy is that similar IEs occurred three more times throughout the video recording and Sally gave the same comment each time. In the two following classroom observations, I noted that Sally did not once use 'what?' following a student's oral error.

Example 38:

S: I also like bicycles because when we travel, the bicycle are better for health.

T: The bicycle.....?

(elliptical elicitation)

S: Bicycle are better for health.

(uptake: no repair)

T: The bicycle.....?

(elliptical elicitation)

S: mmmmm.... Ah yes, the bicycle is better

(uptake: repair)

T: Thank you

Sally paused the recording following example 38 and reflected saying:

I remember with this error, and another similar error with another weaker student... when they don't understand that I am trying to correct them I feel like using a recast... with the other student I used a recast right away.... here I remember I decided to give him a second chance to correct and now when I watch it makes me feel good that I waited.

This corresponds with what Sally reported on later in the post intervention interview that she prefers to push her students as much as possible to self-correct, she mentioned that she hardly uses recasts after the training. In addition, the two following observations included more than one IE when she mostly resorted to elicitation more than once in the same interactional exchange, in an attempt to push learners to modify their language production.

Example 39:

- T: What do you like to travel with (*name of student*)?
S: Well the car... I know the car isn't more healthier than bicycle, but faster.
T: The car isn't healthier than the bicycle? (*embedded recast + prompt*)
S: Yes, but faster and more comfortable. (*uptake: no repair*)

Sally expressed a sort of dissatisfaction with her use of a type of recast in example 39, 'I don't know why I corrected right away here... I should have tried to help the student correct herself.... this way I can't know whether she recognized her error or not'. This converges with Sally's constant affirmation in the belief that elicitation works better with students because it makes them think.

The issues raised by Sally during the stimulated recall session mainly focused on her preference for the use of elicitation due to its potential for pushing learners to self-correct and getting the whole class involved in the correction process.

4.3.2.3 Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three

The notes taken during the feedback session were grouped into the following:

- The OCF techniques used during the lesson;
- Whether students understood the intent behind the CF used;
- What the teacher does when students do not understand the intent behind the CF, or are unable to repair;
- Students' attitudes concerning being corrected.

Concerning the techniques used, Sally, similar to the stimulated recall video session, highlighted her tendency to use elicitation. Examination of the video recording of this session showed that she had used subtypes of elicitation, 21 of the 24 times OCF was provided.

With regard to students getting the intent behind OCF, Sally mentioned that with elicitation they usually do because they attempt a correction. Further examination of the video recording for that session showed that students attempted repair following eighteen of the IEs during which elicitation was provided. As for the IEs including a recast ($n=2$), no repair occurred. The same was also true for the previous recorded session, focusing on the comparative and superlative forms. All four IEs exhibiting a subtype of recast included no attempts at repair by the students.

As for the third point, students not understanding the intent behind the CF, Sally referred to either using another form of elicitation or reverting to a recast when students are unable to correct, example 40 demonstrates such an interaction:

Example 40:

S1: This process hasn't been monitored at the moment.	
T: Hasn't been at the moment?	<i>(marked elicitation)</i>
S1:(silence).....	<i>(no uptake)</i>
T: Hasn't been?	<i>(marked elicitation)</i>
S1: ...(silence)....	<i>(no uptake)</i>
T: Hasn't been? Is that correct?	<i>(marked elicitation + enhanced prompt)</i>
S2: No, it is being monitored.	<i>(uptake: repair)</i>
T: Perfect.	<i>(positive reinforcement)</i>

Regarding students' attitude towards being corrected, Sally stressed the affective aspect. She explained that if teachers correct in an encouraging manner, students will not mind, on the contrary, they are usually welcoming of error correction. Observations of the three sessions showed the teacher using positive reinforcement regularly when students are pushed to correct their errors, expressions like 'very good', 'perfect', or a simple acknowledgment like 'thank you'.

4.3.2.4 Guided Electronic Journals

Analysis and coding of Sally's e-journals resulted in the following themes:

- Training helped in gaining more knowledge about the different forms of OCF;
- Benefit of practicing before applying OCF techniques in class;
- Benefit of stimulated recall activities;
- Suitability of elicitation for all proficiency levels.

Sally highlighted the benefits of the training process on two levels. The first is gaining new knowledge, which aided her classroom teaching. She wrote:

One thing I liked is getting introduced to different forms of corrective feedback which I wasn't really aware of. This presents us with a variety of techniques to use in class... This knowledge allowed me to reflect on what I am actually doing in class and by time helped me shift from one corrective technique to another if necessary.

The second level focused on some of the actual practice activities that were conducted following the introduction and discussion of the various forms of OCF techniques. Her comment also sheds light on the difference between being introduced to theory and doing actual practice. She explained:

I liked the idea that we didn't only read about and discuss the different types of corrective feedback, we also practiced providing different forms with each other and with the two students before we applied them in class. I remember back at college we sometimes read about interesting theories related to teaching but did not do any practice.

Sally further highlighted how the stimulated recall part of the practice was of help. Her suggestion for watching the teaching video instigated the inclusion of the second stimulated recall activity following observation two. She stated:

I believe it was really useful when I listened to the recording of my practice with the two students .. The discussion I had with (*name of the researcher*) was helpful.....I also believe if I watch a recorded video of my teaching in class, the discussion with (*name of the researcher*) will help me learn a lot I believe that one of the best ways to improve ourselves is actually to watch our teaching in order to work on our weak points.

Another interesting point indicated in her comments is a firm conviction in the effectiveness of elicitation as a form of OCF, which was constantly reflected throughout observations of her class:

I think elicitation should always be the first choice. I resort to it in all my classes, regardless of the proficiency level of my students. It's important to encourage students to correct their mistakes. I try it first and if it does not work I can try another type of elicitation and eventually maybe try recasts.

4.3.2.5 OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons

As can be seen in Table 15, Sally used elicitation during the majority of IEs exhibiting error correction throughout the three observed lessons. She used elicitation 82.6% of the time, while recasts and other forms, namely metalinguistic feedback, occurred at a much lower rate (13.1% and 4.3% consecutively). Such a high frequency of elicitation echoes what she has expressed throughout all of the previously discussed reflective activities in relation to the benefits of using elicitation.

Table 15: Total OCF Techniques Provided During Sally's Three Observed Lessons

Type of CF	Number	%
Elicitation	57	82.6
Recasts	9	13.1
Others	3	4.3
Total	69	100

Table 16 shows that the total number of OCF techniques used in each observed lesson is roughly the same, with elicitation repeatedly being the most frequently used form, the lowest percentage being 77.3% in observation four.

Appendix L presents the total frequencies and percentages of the subtypes of elicitation and recasts for the three observed lessons. The numbers presented show that marked elicitations and elliptical elicitations (refer to Appendix B for definition of each) are the most frequent types (38.6% and 35.1 % consecutively). This reflects Sally's preference for these two subtypes which she has referred to more than once, for example, during the second stimulated recall activity she expressed that 'With elicitation, when you stress on the exact error (*marked elicitation*) for example, or you repeat the sentence and stop just before the error (*elliptical elicitation*), it makes it clear for students...they realize something is wrong with what they said'.

Table 16: Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Sally in Each Observed Lesson

Observations	Type of OCF			
	Elicitation	Recasts	Other	Total
2	19 (82.6%)	4 (17.4%)	None (0%)	23 (100%)
3	21 (87.5%)	2 (9.5%)	1 (3%)	24 (100%)
4	17 (77.3%)	3 (13.6%)	2 (9.1%)	22 (100%)

The students' uptake following the teacher's provision of OCF during the three observed lessons was categorized according to the degree of repair manifested.

Table 17 presents high degrees of repair (40.4%) and partial repair (42.1%) following elicitation moves. This suggests, as Sally has expressed more than once, the salience of various elicitation subtypes which aids students in noticing the corrective intent and attempting a form of repair. On the other hand, all recast moves resulted in no repair which also relates to Sally's repeated claim that with

recasts students usually do not react; consequently, she does not know whether they recognized her corrective intent or not.

Table 17: Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Sally's Classes

	Successful repair	Partial repair	No repair
Elicitation (n=57)	23 (40.4%)	24 (42.1%)	10 (17.5%)
Recasts (n=9)	0 (0%)	0(0%)	9 (100%)

4.3.2.6 Post-Intervention Interview

Coding and analysis of Sally's post-intervention interview resulted in the following themes:

- An evident preference for the use of elicitation;
- The influence of training on classroom practice;
- Factors affecting the noticing of the corrective intent behind feedback;
- Potential long-term effects of using elicitation;
- Consideration of the affective aspect of OCF.

During the interview, Sally expressed a distinct preference for the use of elicitation, which was reflected in her use of various forms of elicitation 82.6% (n=57) of the total instances of OCF recorded during the three observations which took place during the intervention. She attributed her inclination to using elicitation to its potential for pushing learners to modify their language output, 'when I use elicitation, I give them a chance to correct themselves, to think about the mistake, to

think about the correction'. She also highlighted what she regards as the interactive component of using elicitation, as opposed to recasts, 'And also it's a good form of interaction... when I try to elicit correction they usually respond in some way.. instead of me simply providing a one sided correction and usually no reaction on their side'. In addition, she referred to a sense of personal satisfaction when using elicitation, ' when I notice the student is correcting or even trying to figure out the correction I feel good that they are trying... makes me feel like I'm doing a good job'. Sally argued that elicitation as a form of OCF could be of more benefit as it has the potential to bring the whole class into the process of error correction:

Other students paid attention and some were eager to provide the correction... sometimes they look at their colleague to help him trying to provide the answer in a low voice sometimes I find a couple of students trying to figure out the correction for the mistake together...So not only the student who made the mistake can benefit, but the whole class.

With regard to OCF training, Sally stated, 'If I were introduced to these techniques from the beginning I was going to help myself and I believe help students'. She elaborated by discussing two positive outcomes on her teaching. The first is of relevance to time management inside the classroom. She stated:

Before the training when a student made an oral mistake at any part of the lesson..... I used to re-explain and repeat and write on the board and waste a lot of time... after the training I realized that I don't have to repeatwhen they make an error I can guide them to correct... The training helped me save time, energy, effort.

The second outcome relates to an increased learning benefit for students, she explained:

When I always corrected on the board before I sometimes could not really tell if students got what I explained.. I didn't give them the chance to show that they understood or to try and correct for themselves.

Sally attributed the noticing of the corrective intent behind OCF to highlighting the error. She expressed that stressing on the error using an elicitation form makes it salient enough and accordingly results in student uptake:

With elicitation when I stress on the mistake, or pause before the mistake or use another form of elicitation...this attracts their attention that there is something wrong with their oral language..... it grabs their attention to the problem and they probably try to correct.

Her belief in the benefit of pushing learners to modify their language output was recurrent throughout the interview. Sally repeatedly put forward an argument that modified language output following OCF might aid future language development:

With elicitation when I try to get students to figure out the correction ...it can help them remember this thing when they produce it later on because they were able to correct for themselves Maybe when they produce it again they're going to have it right.

Finally, the affective aspect of OCF was an issue which the teacher seemed quite aware of from an early stage of the training process (see above the stimulated recall activity for the audio-recorded training session). Observation of her classes showed regular provision of positive reinforcement during IEs (e.g. Examples 36, 37, 40

above). When discussing students' level of discomfort about being corrected she explained:

Correction in front of the whole class is very sensitive... It depends on the way you are providing the oral correction... when I use a form of elicitation, I try to smile to show students it's ok... that errors are part of learning...I try to encourage them to get it right ...I also try to say something nice when they try to correct themselves.. I think this gives them a feeling that they have achieved something.

4.3.2.7 Discussion

The outcomes presented above indicate a relation between training and the development of Sally's beliefs and teaching practices. Other than what she has expressed through the different reflective activities, the influence of the training was observable in her classroom performance. One major difference, and essential to the aim of the current investigation, is the evident shift in her approach to error correction. As reported in the discussion of research question two, prior to commencing the training process she had resorted to the board for correcting the majority of learners' oral errors, since she believed it was 'the right thing to do'. This proved to be quite time consuming and at times prevented her from achieving the aims set in her session plans. Observation of her classes during the intervention, as well as examining her own reflections, projected a shift in her performance and her beliefs through frequent use of OCF during interaction with her students and her claim at the end of the intervention that early introduction to such techniques 'was going to help [her] and [she] believe[d] help [her] students'.

Her classroom observations and personal reflection clearly indicate a preference for elicitation as a form of OCF, due to its potential for pushing learners to modify their language production. Table 15 shows that various degrees of repair occurred in 82.5% (n=47) of the IEs exhibiting the use of elicitation. This is contrary to the outcomes of various investigations of teachers' use of OCF in the language classroom, which have shown recasts to be the most commonly used form (e.g. Loewen & Philp, 2004; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1987) as a more implicit, less intimidating means of error correction. In addition, more recent studies (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Agudo, 2014) have either shown a preference for recasts or at best an inclination to a more balanced approach to the provision of OCF. One suggested reason for the different outcome with Sally might be a newly raised awareness to the potential benefits of pushing learners to correct their errors, and the less threatening nature of more explicit means of error correction, through practice and repeated reflection-on-action.

Two points raised by Sally regarding the training process suggest potential benefit. The first sheds light on the importance of practice as opposed to merely being introduced to various forms of knowledge; in addition, she made reference to past learning experiences as a student teacher when theory was the core of her studies. She asserts that teaching is a hands-on profession where practice plays a major part. The second focuses on the two stimulated recall activities which were used as introspective methods that would allow teachers to verbalize their thoughts and reflect on their performance. Sally's comments on the use of such reflective

activities attest to the role they could play in teacher development. When she expressed her opinion early on, through the reflective e-journal, regarding the stages of the training process, she distinctively pointed out the benefit from the stimulated recall activity, which used the audio-recorded practice with the volunteer student. This supports one of the advantages identified by Wang and Seth (1998) for using stimulated recall as a tool for teacher development, which presents teachers with insights into their classroom experience and practice. Moreover, Sally suggested that watching a recorded video of her teaching would also be an asset. This fitted right into the action-reflection cycle of the current investigation and gave the researcher the idea to engage teachers in another stimulated recall activity as part of the training process, using parts of the video recording from observation two. The outcome of these two activities were quite encouraging as Sally made some insightful comments about her use of OCF techniques which were apparently reflected in her ensuing classroom practice. A case in point, while watching her teaching video in the second stimulated recall activity, she commented four times on the use of 'what' as an ambiguous form of elicitation which might be misleading to the students. Observations three and four showed no use of 'what' in any of the IEs. In conclusion, such benefit of teaching practice and reflective practice highlighted by Sally iterates what Crandall (2000) states in relation to the importance of 'practical experiences and conscious reflection upon those experiences' (p.35) for the development of teaching practices and beliefs.

4.3.3 Teacher C – Dalila (February 2016)

4.3.3.1 Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students

In this section, four of the eight IEs discussed during the stimulated recall activity are included. The researcher paused the recording following the IE in example 23:

Example 41:

S: Buses is cheaper than taxis, but very crowded.

T: So you mean buses are cheaper than taxis.

(embedded recast)

S: Yes, because you not ride alone.

(uptake: no repair)

When asked about her use of a recast and whether the student got the corrective intent Dalila stated, 'He said 'yes' so probably he did.... mmm... but when I think about it I realize that 'yes' can only be a confirmation of the meaning'.

Interestingly, Dalila paused after the IE highlighted in example 42, which was 3 minutes following example 41 in the recording, and highlighted a potential relevance between the two. She acknowledged that echoing students' correct language production (example 42), which occurred regularly as part of her interaction with the students (it was noted five times throughout the training recording), and providing recasts as a form of OCF (example 41) might prevent learners from identifying the corrective intent behind a recast.

Example 42:

S: I also think the bus is not as expensive as the train.

T: The bus isn't as expensive as..

(repetition of correct utterance)

S: Yes, but the train is faster.

Commenting on the IE in example 43, Dalila expressed her belief in the importance of varying the forms of OCF provided by the teacher, also suggesting a potential long-term benefit of such feedback. She stated ‘I believe the elicitation worked here because the student was able to correct for himself.... I think something that helped is the recast I provided him earlier during practice, maybe it stuck in his mind... This is why correcting in different ways is good’.

Example 43:

S: I like Cairo, but Alexandria is more quiet than Cairo,
so live here is better.

T: Alexandria is....? Can you say that again? *(marked elicitation + prompt)*

S: Alexandria is quitter than Cairo, so it better. *(uptake: repair)*

Example 44, among other IEs which took place during the recorded training session, highlight Dalila’s tendency to use metalinguistic feedback recurrently, which was also evident in her pre-intervention observation at the onset of the intervention. Because the IE exhibited several T-S exchanges the researcher decided to pause the recording in order to get Dalila’s reflection on her use of CF. She explained ‘Well, this is why I sometimes don’t prefer to use elicitation, because it can drag and take too long for the student to correct.’ However, when I attracted her attention to her use of metalinguistic feedback following elicitation, she reflected saying ‘well, maybe there was no need for that, I could simply use elicitation for the other error (*more faster*) or a recast, especially since the aim here was more communicative than just practicing the structure’.

Example 44:

S: Motorways is definitely more faster than country roads if we want to drive quickly.

T: So, motorways IS? *(marked elicitation)*

S: No no, motorways are more faster. *(uptake: partial repair)*

T: Are MORE faster? Is fast a long or a short adjective? *(elicitation + metalinguistic feedback)*

S: ...mmm....short? *(uptake: repair)*

T: So is it correct to say MORE faster? *(marked elicitation + enhanced prompt)*

S: They are faster?

This stimulated recall activity highlighted Dalila's insights regarding the noticing of the corrective intent behind recasts. She also expressed a belief in the importance of varying the OCF used and its potential long-term benefit for language learning. Finally, the discussion raised Dalila's awareness to the suitability of the OCF used in relation to the purpose behind the classroom activity.

4.3.3.2 Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation

In the examples included below, four IEs are highlighted, some of which were paused by the researcher and some by the participating teacher. Of the eighteen IEs targeting erroneous utterances, those four summarize her approach to error correction during the session focusing on comparative and superlative forms, which broadly entail using some form of reformulation as an OCF technique.

Dalila paused the recording following example 45 and made reference to the discussion which took place during the previous stimulated recall activity, regarding

example 41 above. She explained 'We talked about this last time when listening to the recording.. Saying 'yes' does not necessarily mean the student understood he made an error... I think I should encourage them more to correct for themselves.'

Example 45:

S: I would ride buses...Buses is more cheaper than taxis but comfortable than taxis

T: But less comfortable. *(isolated recast – prompt)*

S: Yes... ok *(uptake: no repair)*

T: And cheaper. *(isolated recast – prompt)*

S: Yes.. cheap *(uptake: no repair)*

The researcher paused the recording following example 46 asking Dalila to reflect on her use of OCF and the student's repair. She commented 'I think because I said 'yes' this gave the student a feeling that what she said is correct. Also, when I used elicitation I didn't use a rising intonation like we've practiced. I believe that would attract their attention more to the mistake'. The comment demonstrates a level of awareness regarding teacher talk inside the classroom, in addition to indicating Dalila's ability to link previous discussions which took place during the training process while reflecting on her current practice.

Example 46:

S: I like use my bicycle.... But bicycles is more danger than car

T: Yes... but we say bicycles..... *(elliptical elicitation)*

S2: Is more healthier *(uptake: no repair)*

T: But bicycles.... *(elliptical elicitation)*

Ss:...(silence)..... *(no uptake)*

T: We say bicycles ARE not IS. *(explicit correction)*

Ss: OK. *(uptake: no repair)*

I will group discussion of examples 47 (paused by the researcher) and 48 (paused by the teacher) together since both have the same focus. In both IEs Dalila commented that when providing CF she thought she was stopping before the error and allowing the student to correct (*an elliptical elicitation*) but watching the video she commented, 'Now I realize I actually provided a recast because I corrected the error and wanted them to complete the rest of the sentence... which means there was no self-correction.. I provided a recast again, like most of the rest of the session'. She made reference to the previous stimulated recall activity explaining 'As I told you when we discussed the recorded practice, I think it is better to use several correction techniques during the lesson but it seems I do it unconsciously'. Of the twenty IEs including OCF, Dalila used recasts fifteen times (75%) and elicitation three times (15%) and other forms, namely metalinguistic feedback, twice (5%).

Example 47:

S: Well, the charter flights were suitable than the schedule flights for our trip
T: The charter flight were more? (*embedded recast*)
S: Suitable than the schedule flights. (*continuation*)

Example 48:

S: When I graduate, the good the job, more money I earn.
T: Great...You mean the BETTER the job? (*embedded recast*)
S: Yes (*uptake: no repair*)
T: So the better the job, the....? (*embedded recast*)
S: The more money I earn.

The above discussions show Dalila's consciousness regarding the training process. At one point she made reference to using 'a rising intonation like we've practiced',

and twice she alluded to discussions during the previous stimulated recall activity. In addition, she reiterated, similar to the first stimulated recall activity, the importance of attracting students' attention to self-correct, and the need for varying the OCF techniques used in class, despite acknowledging not quite paying attention to either in class.

4.3.3.3 Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three

Following the third observation session focusing on active and passive forms, a short feedback session was conducted with Dalila. The notes taken during were grouped under the following headings:

- Variety in the provision OCF to cater for different students;
- Noticing the corrective intent behind OCF;
- Paralinguistic signals and their role as non-verbal feedback;
- Affective aspect concerning OCF.

Concerning the variety in the provision of OCF techniques, this was the third time for the issue to be highlighted by Dalila, and the first time it is reflected in her teaching practice. Of the twenty-three IEs containing a form of OCF, recasts were used eleven times (50%), elicitation eight times (36.4%) times, and others, namely explicit correction, three times (13.6%); showing a shift from the previous lesson during which recasts and elicitation were used 75% and 15% consecutively.

Similar to previous reflective activities, the importance of noticing the corrective intent behind the feedback was also highlighted during the discussion. However, different from the previous observation, analysis of the video recording for observation three exhibited an increase in the use of elicitation as a form of OCF, in addition to the rising intonation/stress the teacher employed repeatedly when using a recast (Example 49).

Example 49:

S: Well, my car was be service yesterday.. I take the bus.

T: You mean your care was BEING SERVICED yesterday? (*recast + enhanced prompt*)

S: Yes... was being service. (*uptake: partial repair*)

Another point raised by Dalila in relation to getting the intent behind CF is ‘paralinguistic signals’ (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013) which aim at eliciting a modified output from the learner using non-verbal techniques, i.e. facial expressions, hand gestures. Dalila pointed that such non-verbal techniques could be used either consciously or unconsciously by the teacher and attract the learners’ attention to the need for correcting their language production. Examination of the video recording of her observed sessions showed fifteen incidents when the teacher reacted with an inquiring look to students’ erroneous utterances and all of these instances resulted in attempts to repair on the learners’ part.

The affective side to OCF was constantly emerging throughout the feedback session. Dalila repeatedly used the phrase ‘I don’t embarrass’ with relation to using OCF. She

expressed what seemed to be a genuine concern regarding dealing with oral errors in a manner that would not discourage her students from participating in classroom interaction. Examination of the video recording of this session alone showed some form of positive reinforcement (e.g. 'very good', 'great', 'thank you') every time a student attempted to modify their language production.

4.3.3.4 Guided Electronic Journals

Analysis and coding of Dalila's e-journals resulted in the following themes:

- Training provided a rich source for OCF affecting classroom practice;
- Benefits of stimulated recall activities;
- Recasts and elicitations are each suited for a different proficiency levels.

Concerning the role the training played in affecting her classroom practice, Dalila commented on two points, the first related to being introduced to a variety of techniques which better equipped her to address oral errors during her classroom practice. She explained:

[The training] has also familiarized me with more strategies to follow while correcting students in classes... like using a rising intonation while correcting, and stressing on the correction which helps students to notice the error quicker... it also gave me the chance to try more strategies which help in checking students' understanding.

The second related to the suitability of the various OCF techniques to specific stages of the lesson:

The training has deeply drawn my attention to certain points I did not pay attention to before; for instance, giving metalinguistic guidance while

practicing communicative activities would distract students or prolong the timing of the activity which can consequently cause distraction or boredom.

Benefits of the stimulated recall activity were specifically noted in relation to raising her awareness to the continuous use of non-corrective repetition, which she regarded as an ineffective classroom practice:

Listening to the audio-recorded practice activity I realized that repeating the students' answers all the time would confuse them when it comes to noticing recasts and they might not realize that I am correcting an error.

With regard to the suitability of OCF to different proficiency levels, she stated that elicitation works better with lower level students due to the potential possibility for modified output and, consequently, language development:

I think there are some techniques that highlight the mistakes more than others ...I believe these techniques might work better with lower level students. Using elicitation is better than the teacher just correcting the mistake ... it is like giving them another chance to think...Recasts might work better with students of higher levels...The feedback is faster, and goes smoother. Their language level allows them to notice the correction

However, observation of her class, which included learners of low language proficiency levels, showed a general inclination towards using recasts, as was noted earlier for observations two and three of her class.

4.3.3.5 OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons

As can be seen in Table 18, in total Dalila resorted to recasts around twice as much as elicitation throughout the three observed lessons. She used recasts 60.3% of the

time, elicitation 31.7%, and other forms, namely metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction 8%.

Table 18: Total OCF Techniques Provided During Dalila's Three Observed Lessons

Type of CF	Number	%
Elicitation	20	31.7
Recasts	38	60.3
Others	5	8
Total	63	100

Table 19 presents the distribution of elicitation and recasts over each of the observed sessions. The total number of OCF techniques used in each observed lesson is roughly the same, with recasts repeatedly being the most frequently used form in each of the three observation (75%, 50% and 57.2% consecutively). However, it is worth noting the increase in the use of elicitation over the three sessions, 15% (n=3), 36.4%(n=8), and 42.8% (n=9), consecutively. Such a relative increase might be linked to some of Dalila's reflections on the limited variety of OCF techniques used in her teaching (e.g. discussion of Examples 47 & 48 above).

Table 19: Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Dalila in Each Observed Lesson

Obser- vations	Type of OCF			
	Elicitation	Recasts	Other	Total
2	3 (15%)	15(75%)	2 (10%)	20 (100%)
3	8 (36.4%)	11 (50%)	3 (13.6%)	22 (100%)
4	9 (42.8%)	12 (57.2%)	0 (0%)	21 (100%)

Examination of Dalila's use of the various subtypes of elicitation and recasts are presented in Appendix L. The numbers show that marked elicitation and elliptical

elicitation are the most frequent elicitation subtypes used (45% and 25 % consecutively), which is echoed in her post-intervention interview comments when she says ‘I repeat part of the sentence containing the error so they would... try to correct (*marked elicitation*)...I also like to repeat the sentence and stop before the error (*elliptical elicitation*) to attract their attention to correct’. For recasts, the most types used are isolated recast + prompt, embedded recast + prompt, and recast + enhanced prompt (34.2%, 18.1%, and 21% consecutively). This reflects her belief in the importance of ‘using a rising intonation while correcting, and stressing on the correction which helps students to notice the error quicker’ which was stated in the e-journals.

Table 20 presents the students’ uptake following the provision of OCF during the three observed lessons. The numbers highlight relatively high degrees of repair (50%) and partial repair (25%) following elicitation moves, and lower degrees of both following recasts (21.1% and 15.8% consecutively). Despite pointing out through several reflective activities the importance of ‘pushing students to self-correct’, and highlighting the benefit of the training in giving her ‘the chance to try more strategies which help in checking students’ understanding’, she still opted for using more recasts which, as reflected from the numbers, yielded a lower degree of repair.

Table 20: Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Dalila's Classes

	Successful repair	Partial repair	No repair
Elicitation (n=20)	10 (50%)	5 (25%)	5 (25%)
Recasts (n=38)	8 (21.1%)	6 (15.8%)	24 (63.1%)

4.3.3.6 Post-Intervention Interview

Analysis and coding of Dalila's interview responses resulted in the following themes:

- Benefits of stimulated recall activities;
- Importance of OCF training;
- Recasts are better for student learning as they put less pressure on students;
- Effects of past learning experience on error correction.

With regard to stimulated recall activities, Dalila made a second reference to its benefit, the first was through the e-journals. She highlighted how both activities attracted her attention to the regular provision of positive feedback regardless of learners' accuracy, a practice which she might attempt to alter, she explained:

Giving positive reinforcement should be more carefully used in my classes.. I discovered through audio and video recordings of my teaching, and to my surprise that I had been subconsciously using the word "Great!" for all answers whether correct or incorrect, and this is confusing because they might not realize when I actually want to correct wrong language.

Concerning the significance of OCF training, Dalila restated the role it played in introducing her to a variety of OCF techniques, which was previously highlighted in her e-journals. However, this time she commented on her instinctive tendency to resort to recasts, which was the dominant form used in her pre-intervention observation:

The training showed me several techniques to use.. before I generally used to just correct their mistake with a normal tone and they might not notice... Now I use both elicitation and recasts.. but honestly I find myself shifted towards using recasts a bit more spontaneously...now I use different techniques of recasts to attract their attention....

She made a second reference to the suitability of OCF techniques for the various stages of lesson; a similar reference was also made in her e-journals. The previous reference was related to using metalinguistic feedback, this one related to board correction:

I used to resort to the board a lot for correction no matter which stage of the lesson I was in.... so training helped me focus and opened my eyes to various techniques to be used at various stages of the lesson which would not affect the ongoing interaction in a negative way.

Regarding how recasts can influence student learning, Dalila made reference to the affective aspect of the provision of OCF and explained:

For lower levels, recasts might work better because it presents the correction.... Sometimes when I use elicitation, they might not be able to spot the mistake and correct it and it can disappoint them..... for higher level students elicitation would work fine I guess, because their level allows them to spot and correct...I guess both recasts and elicitation can work for them.

However, she contradicted this line of thought later on in the interview when she stressed the affective aspect of pushing learners to modify their language output through providing an elicitation form. She commented 'With lower level students if they correct themselves following elicitation it would seem like an achievement, it encourages them to participate'

Further reference was made to the training and how it helped her tackle the affective aspect of OCF in the classroom when Dalila mentioned her past experience as a learner and how it affected her current practice:

I try my best not to hurt students' feelings because I experienced that as a student... when a teacher would attack me or be aggressive when I made a mistake it embarrassed me and I didn't want to participate anymore.. My mind froze... so I try to put myself in the students' shoes and pay attention to how they feel about being corrected... the training opened my eyes to various techniques that would help correct students conveying the message that we're learning and there's nothing wrong with errors.

4.3.3.7 Discussion

Examination of the above analyzed data highlights how the training process influenced Dalila's beliefs and practices in certain areas. Observation of her classes showed a shift in the use of OCF from one session to the other, in addition, the reflective activities manifested her awareness to the benefit of being introduced to a variety of OCF techniques throughout the training process. The pre-intervention observation mainly showed her using recasts and metalinguistic feedback as forms of OCF, in addition to the use of the board for correction. The following three

observations taking place during the intervention showed a gradual shift in the use of OCF techniques, with observation two mainly including several sub-types of recasts, and a decreased number of metalinguistic feedback provided during communicative activities. Observations three and four exhibited more balance between the use of elicitation and recasts as shown in table 17 above.

The above development in Dalila's use of OCF could be associated with a raised awareness which in part evolved during the stimulated recall activities, especially the video-recorded one. Those activities allowed Dalila to reflect on her teaching and comment on the limited use of elicitation, a form she believed could push learners to correct their errors. In addition, Dalila distinctively emphasized the benefit of the stimulated recall activities with relation to attracting her attention to two teaching practices which she believed might not be favourable in the context of student-teacher interaction. Similar to Lyster's (1998a) conclusion, she argues that her regular use of non-corrective repetition and constant provision of positive feedback, regardless of the well-formedness of the learners' language production, might override the corrective intent behind the provision of recasts.

Dalila's comments further corroborated the importance of the training with regard to her teaching, and related it to her past learning experience. Suggesting that 'the time we spend in the classroom as learners' greatly affects our approach to correction of spoken errors (Klapper, 2006, p.304), Dalila alluded to the affective aspect of error correction and stated that being introduced to various OCF

techniques helped her monitor students' reactions and employ a more tolerant, sympathetic approach while addressing their oral errors, different from some of the discouraging corrective methods she experienced as a young learner. Her approach is in line with R. Ellis' (2009) guidelines for the correction of learners' errors which in part state that 'Teachers should monitor the extent to which corrective feedback causes anxiety in learners and should adapt the strategies they use' (p.14).

The data show Dalila repeatedly emphasizing the importance of pushing learners to repair their erroneous language production, using verbal elicitation techniques and paralinguistic signals. However, table 16 shows that her use of recasts was almost twice as much as elicitation, with 63% of the former resulting in no repair and 37% resulting in either partial or successful repair. Thus her stated beliefs contradicted her practice to some extent. It is also worth noting that such a low level of repair following recasts conflicts with the suggestions put forward that 'in form-oriented classrooms...the emphasis on accuracy primes learners to notice the corrective function of recasts' (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p.10).

Dalila's comments regarding the uses and the benefits of elicitation and recasts were contradictory at different stages of the training process. At one stage she highlighted elicitation as being more suitable for lower level students, while at another she argued that recasts lower the affective filter for beginner students so it would be the more appropriate technique to use. At the final stage, during the post intervention interview, Dalila acknowledged the role the training played in familiarizing her with

different techniques; however, she stated that she resorts to recasts ‘spontaneously’, which could be associated with her general tendencies for oral correction before taking part in the training. Despite such discrepancies, she does attempt to strike a balance between the two forms of OCF as the training progresses. This suggests that her teaching practices, which have developed over years of experience, are deeply rooted; nevertheless, the training might have noticeably played a role in affecting her current beliefs and approaches to error correction.

4.3.4 Teacher D – Sherifa (February 2016)

4.3.4.1 Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students

Of the ten IEs discussed during this stimulated recall activity, the following four examples summarize the main points reflected on. One of the points highlighted is students’ recognition of the corrective intent behind the OCF technique used, illustrated through reflection on examples 50 and 51.

Example 50:

S: Taxis I think it's more faster than the buses.	
T: Ok... So it's more faster?	<i>(marked elicitation)</i>
S: Yes.	<i>(uptake: no repair)</i>
T: Ok.. More faster? Why more faster?	<i>(marked elicitation + prompt)</i>
S: Because buses have to stop in many stations	<i>(uptake: no repair)</i>
T: So do we say MORE FASTER?	<i>(marked elicitation+ enhanced prompt)</i>
S: Faster than?	<i>(uptake: repair)</i>
T: Exactly.. very good.	

Sherifa paused the audio recording following example 50 and commented that ‘the error correction went for too long’. She further elaborated that the student probably

did not recognize that she was trying to correct his error (*more faster*) due to her use of 'Ok' more than once. The teacher suggested that the sequence of the IE shows that the corrective intent became clear after she stressed on 'MORE FASTER' when using a form of elicitation for the third time.

Example 51 also highlights the extent of noticing the corrective intent behind using a form of recast. This IE was paused by the researcher and the teacher was asked to comment on her use of OCF. She acknowledged the possibility of the student not realizing that there was an error in her language production because she carried on with the interaction to convey further meaning. She commented 'I think recasts sometimes don't make it clear that I'm trying to correct an error'. The same comment was repeated with several IEs which exhibited no form of repair following the provision of recasts.

Example 51:

S: If we compare Alexandria and Cairo, Alexandria is not more crowded as Cairo.

T: Alexandria is not as crowded as Cairo? (*embedded recast + prompt*)

S: Yes...but more nice things to do there. (*uptake: no repair*)

Another point discussed during the stimulated recall activity is the salience of elicitation as a form of OCF, highlighted three times during the activity. The researcher paused the recording following the IE in example 52 and asked the teacher to compare it with example 51. Sherifa commented on her use of an elicitation form and how it pushed the learner to modify his language output. She

stated, 'It was good here that I used elicitation... obviously the student recognized the mistake and tried to correct.. I think elicitation can be more useful for students'.

Example 52:

S: For transportation I think bicycle is more healthier

T: The bicycle is....?

(elliptical elicitation)

S: Is healthier.

(uptake: repair)

T: Yes, exactly.. excellent.

The last point highlighted during the stimulated recall discussion is the potential long-term benefits of using OCF in the language classroom. Sherifa paused the recording three times, one is included in example 53, to comment on the effect of previous correction during the recorded practice. She referred to the exchange in example 50 above arguing that pushing the student to correct his error enabled him to self-correct in example 53 without the teacher pointing out the error, 'I think because he thought about his mistake before and corrected it, he realized it right after he made the mistake this time and was able to correct it alone.'

Example 53:

S: For travelling motorways are too much fast... mmm... motorways are faster than country roads.

T: Exactly very good.

The above reflections highlight Sherifa's awareness of the salience of elicitation as a form of OCF, which would lead to students noticing the corrective intent, as opposed to the possible ambiguity of using recasts. In addition, she suggests a possible long-term benefit for using OCF and pushing learners to self-correct.

4.3.4.2 Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation

The stimulated recall activity using the video recordings from observation two focused on a number of IEs, of which three are discussed below. These three examples shed light on Sherifa's general approach to error correction and highlight some of the effects of the training process.

Example 54:

S: Last summer I travel with college and it was the most nice trip ever.

T: Is nice a long or short adjective? How do we put it in the superlative form?

(metalinguistic feedback)

S: ...(silence)...

(no uptake)

T: The nicest.

(isolated recast)

The teacher stopped the recording following the IE highlighted in example 54 and commented on her use of metalinguistic feedback as probably not the most suitable OCF technique for this stage of the lesson, since students were engaged in a communicative activity focusing on their personal experience. She commented:

We had done a lot of explanation and drilling before and I could simply use elicitation or a recast at this point.. As we discussed during the training some techniques don't interrupt the communication... But here as you notice from the video the student did not continue what she was saying.

The following point highlighted through reflection on example 55 is noticing the corrective intent behind recasts. Sherifa paused the recording stating that the student probably did not realize the error at this point. She also made reference to the discussion during the previous stimulated recall activity, similar to example 51 above. She said, 'I remember there were similar examples when we were discussing

the practice recording last time... With recasts I don't know if they understood the correction or not... they sometimes just say yes and continue speaking'.

Example 55:

S: My choice is planes.. Planes are more faster and take time less.

T: You mean plans are faster?

(recast + enhanced prompt)

S: Yes, of course... I reach there quickly.

(uptake: no repair)

Discussion of various IEs in the video recording focused attention on Sherifa's preference for elicitation as the more salient, potentially more beneficial form of OCF. She paused following the IE in example 56 and argued the advantage of the technique for the whole class:

In this example even when the student did not correct his mistake and kept quiet another student jumped in and corrected. ...mmm... so elicitation can help all the class to pay attention... Which means more people can learn from the correction

Example 56:

S1: The harder I work, the much money I can get.

T: Much? The much?

(marked elicitation)

S1: ... *(silence)* ...

(no uptake)

S2: The more money I get.

(uptake: repair)

T: Excellent

4.3.4.3 Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three

The notes taken during the feedback session following Sherifa's third classroom observation were grouped into the following:

- Inclination towards elicitation as a form of OCF;
- Importance of paying attention to the affective aspect of error correction;
- Paralinguistic signals as a form of non-verbal feedback.

Similar to the two the previous stimulated recall activities, Sherifa iterated her primary focus on the use of elicitation, especially during the more communicative activities, in order to allow students to ‘use their brain’ rather than simply provide them with the correction. According to her, the provision of recasts was mostly limited to incidents when students did not repair following an elicitation move.

Examination of the three video recorded lessons showed such incidents occurring in seven IEs. Example 57 illustrates one such example from observation three.

Example 57:

S: Well at my home decisions are take by mother and father.	
T: Decision are take?	<i>(marked elicitation)</i>
S: Yes, both father and mother take decision.	<i>(uptake: no repair)</i>
T: We say decisions are take? Is that correct?	<i>(marked elicitation+ enhanced prompt)</i>
S:.... <i>(silence)</i>	<i>(no uptake)</i>
T: Decisions are taken.	<i>(isolated recast)</i>

Concerning the affective aspect of error correction, Sherifa highlighted the importance of encouraging students to ‘take the plunge and correct’. She stressed the importance of the teacher fostering a positive environment, conveying the message that error correction is a means of helping students develop and is not provided with the aim of ‘judging or criticizing their language use’. In addition, examination of the observation videos showed positive reinforcement regularly provided by the teacher when students repair their errors using words like ‘excellent’, ‘very good’ and ‘well done’.

With regard to 'paralinguistic signals', Sherifa referred to body language and facial expressions as important indicators for attracting learners' attention to the errors they make. Moreover, she made an interesting reference to 'familiarity between the students and teachers' with relation to non-verbal feedback, indicating that as teachers 'build rapport' they get to use certain funny non-verbal gestures in response to learners' errors, which might otherwise be reluctantly accepted by the learners.

4.3.4.4 Guided Electronic Journals

Analysis of Sherifa's e-journals revolved around the following:

- Influence of the training process;
- Benefits of the stimulated recall activities;
- Suitability of elicitation for all proficiency levels.

With regard to the influence of the training process, Sherifa highlighted several issues of relevance; the first is raising her awareness to the use of various OCF techniques she might not have been familiar with. She stated:

Knowing the division of the corrective forms seemed reasonable to me, the categorization according to recasts and elicitation... also being introduced to the subtypes of each category was enriching and gave me a variety to choose from in class.

Secondly, she made reference to the benefit from the one-on-one practice which was conducted with volunteer students:

When we practiced with real students it added much to my understanding of the techniques before using them in class. It gave me a chance to see how the student would react to the oral correction....and allowed me also to understand that not all students respond to the same techniques of oral correction, even if they are approximately of the same level.

Thirdly, Sherifa commented on how the training raised her awareness to the suitability of certain OCF techniques to different stages of the lesson:

I realized that during the communicative tasks where the main focus is to let students communicate and interact with one another, it would be best not to use the meta-linguistic technique.. various recast and elicitation techniques would be a better option since they least disrupt the flow of the activity.

She also alluded to a certain degree of reflection-in-action (Schön, 1987) that she attempts to implement during her classroom practice which was triggered by the training process:

Before when in class I was not too conscious of the techniques I use, but now I have become aware. I monitor how students respond to different sorts of techniques I have become faster in shifting between different kinds of feedback if I feel one is more suitable than the other.

Regarding the benefit of the stimulated recall activities, they played a role in raising Sherifa's awareness to what worked better with students in class:

Listening to the recorded practice between myself and the students, and then watching the video of my teaching, helped in shedding light on what techniques succeeded more than others in getting students to correct their errors.

Sherifa highlighted motivation, whether intrinsic or extrinsic (Klapper, 2006), as an important factor in students' attempts to correct their errors following an elicitation form, regardless of their language level. She stated:

I noticed that students' attempts to repair following elicitation were directly proportional to their willingness to participate in class, whether they do that because they want better marks or simply because they like learning the language. Whether weak or strong, students who don't want to participate in class, usually give up on correcting themselves, whereas ones who are more keen, tend to try.

4.3.4.5 OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons

As can be seen in Table 21, in total Sherifa resorted to elicitation three times as much as recasts throughout the three observed lessons. She used elicitation 68.8%, recasts 18.1%, and other forms, namely metalinguistic feedback 13.1%. Such a high frequency of using elicitation echoes what she has expressed throughout the previously discussed reflective activities in relation to the salience of elicitation as a form of OCF and the ensuing potential benefit for learners.

Table 21: Total OCF Techniques Provided During Sherifa's Three Observed Lessons

Type of CF	Number	%
Elicitation	42	68.8
Recasts	11	18.1
Others	8	13.1
Total	61	100

Table 22 shows that elicitation is the most frequently used form in each of the three observations with the numbers increasing from one observation to the other (52.6%, 72% and 82.4% consecutively). Notable also is the relative decrease in the use of recasts and metalinguistic feedback from observation two until observation four as highlighted in Table 20.

Table 22: Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Sherifa in Each Observed Lesson

Observations	Type of OCF			
	Elicitation	Recasts	Other	Total
2	10(52.6%)	5(26.3%)	4 (21.1%)	19(100%)
3	18 (72%)	4 (16%)	3 (12%)	25 (100%)
4	14(82.4%)	2 (11.8%)	1 (5.8%)	17 (100%)

Examination of Sherifa's use of the various subtypes of elicitation and recasts is presented in Appendix L. The numbers show that marked elicitation is the most frequent type of elicitation (78.6%, n=33). As for recasts, the total eleven instances are divided almost evenly among four types.

Table 23: Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Sherifa's Classes

	Successful repair	Partial repair	No repair
Elicitation (n=42)	25 (59.5%)	10(23.8%)	7(16.7%)
Recasts (n=11)	3 (27.3%)	2 (18.2%)	6 (54.5%)

Concerning the degree of repair in students' uptake which resulted from Sherifa's provision of OCF, Table 23 presents relatively high degrees of repair (59.5%, n=25) and partial repair (23.8%, n=10) following elicitation moves, and lower degrees of both following recasts (27.3%, n=3 and 18.2%, n=2, consecutively). These numbers reflect Sherifa's belief in the salience of elicitation and in its benefit for learners' language development through being pushed to modify their language output.

4.3.4.6 Post-Intervention Interview

Analysis of Sherifa's interview responses resulted in the following:

- Addressing students' expectations regarding error correction;
- Diverse effects of the training process on teachers' practice;
- Inclination towards using elicitation in class;
- Importance of being aware of the affective aspect of error correction.

With regard to addressing students' expectations to error correction, Sherifa acknowledged its importance; however, contrary to her previously stated belief in the pre-intervention interview, she argued that correction should mainly be directed towards the focus of the lesson:

Students expect language teachers to correct whatever is wrong... So I believe correction is very important. However, I prefer now to focus on the content of the lesson, and maybe some other very serious mistakes. I think that if I keep correcting everything it distracts students.

Sherifa highlighted the relation between training and her teaching practice through a number of points. Similar to her e-journal reflections presented above, she reiterated the benefit of being introduced to various techniques she was not aware of, commenting that 'With the training I started feeling comfortable with some of the new techniques and confident I could use them in class'. In addition, she expressed a newly developed awareness regarding which OCF techniques are more suitable at different stages of the lesson, 'Before I used different techniques anywhere and everywhere..... During and after the training, I started implementing the techniques

in class and started noticing some differences, improvements actually in my use of oral correction’.

She made further reference to her benefit from the training process with regard to using the practice sheets (Appendices C & D) with the other teacher and reflecting on each other’s use of OCF:

The fact that we were two teachers with you (*the researcher*) helped when doing the practice sheets ... Sometimes the technique I use would be very different from her and at others it would be exactly the same.. When she used another it was more intriguing and we reflected on why we used different techniques....The discussion was enriching and eye opening, each gave his take and presented a different view

Sherifa expressed an inclination towards using more elicitation forms while interacting with her students due its potential benefit for language development. Such an approach to correction was fostered, contrary to her expectations, by her weak students’ ability to attempt repair following the provision of an elicitation form:

When I used elicitation with the weaker class, I thought it wouldn’t work... to my surprise it worked..... Eventually, I resorted to elicitations more than recasts in all my classes... I felt more comfortable with that because it helped students learn from their mistakes for the future.

The affective dimension of error correction was restated by Sherifa with several repetitions of the phrase ‘I don’t like embarrassing students’. She also made several references to ‘the teacher’s tone of voice’ when correcting students’ errors and highlighted how discussions during the practice sessions and stimulated recall

activities helped raise her awareness to appropriate and inappropriate approaches to oral error correction:

I recall we discussed the tone of voice and words used when correcting.... Some forms of elicitation like using 'What' with a high intonation might intimidate students and discourage them from attempting a correction. We also stressed intonation in general and how it could be condescending sometimes. I remember noticing that while watching my teaching video.

4.3.4.7 Discussion

The above data feature a relation between training and the development of Sherifa's beliefs and classroom performance. She acknowledged the importance of attending to students' expectations regarding error correction. Such expectations proved to be considerably high in various previous investigations as learners projected positive attitudes towards the importance of error correction (e.g. Agudo, 2015; Davis 2003; Schulz, 1996, 2001; Oladejo, 1993), and showed they do not like teachers to ignore errors (Tyler, 2003, cited in Klapper, 2006, p.305). However, contrary to her stated beliefs during the pre-intervention interview, she expressed that error correction should mainly address the focus of the lesson because in her view 'Focused CF is potentially more effective than unfocused CF' (R. Ellis, 2009, p.14).

Sherifa shed light on the training process on two levels, practice and reflection. She indicated increased knowledge and understanding, concerning the use of OCF techniques, from both the role-play activity with the other participating teacher and the one-to-one recorded practice with the volunteer students. In addition, she

highlighted the benefit of reflecting on practice through the stimulated recall activities which raised her awareness concerning what could be a better approach to oral error correction, thus echoing Crandal (2000) in stating the importance of conscious reflection on practice.

Through several of the above reflective activities, Sherifa referred to the training in relation to a newly developed consciousness regarding the use of suitable oral corrective techniques for certain stages of the lesson. She made reference to previously using 'different techniques anywhere and everywhere' regardless of the focus of the task, which might have led to the disruption of the flow of communication.

The above data, from both reflective activities and classroom observations, present a considerable change in Sherifa's approach to oral error correction. There is an evident tendency on her side to resort to elicitation. The total use of elicitation for addressing oral errors during the three classroom observations amounts to around 70% (n=42), with the use increasing from observation two until observation four as seen in table 20 above. This presents a shift from her approach in the pre-intervention observation during which she resorted to the board for a big portion of her attempts at correcting students' errors. Another alteration evident in table 21 above is the frequency of learners' attempts to repair following the majority of elicitation moves (59.5% successful repair, 23,8% partial repair). This is contrary to the pre-intervention observation outcomes where her attempts to elicit or recast

following learners' spoken errors resulted in no form of repair, as she did not 'create space following the corrective move for learners to uptake the correction' (R. Ellis, 2009, p.14) and either provided the correction herself, following elicitation moves, or simply carried on with the oral interaction, following recasts. During the reflective activities she made reference to elicitation as a form which: 1) pushes the learners to self-correct due to its apparent salience, 2) presents a potential for whole class benefit when other students attempt a correction, 3) can lead to long-term language development, and 4) is suitable for different proficiency levels.

Finally, Sherifa, similar to the pre-intervention observation, referred to the necessity of paying close attention to the affective aspect of error correction in order not to 'embarrass' students or discourage them from participating. Klapper (2006) made reference to this sensitive issue, viewing it from the learners' perspective, indicating that 'students think feedback should be 'friendly' and 'professional' with attendant praise for the things they got right' (p.305). As mentioned earlier, such praise was a constant occurrence following learners' attempts at a successful repair. In addition to this previously rooted conception, Sherifa referred to an added awareness regarding this affective dimension, which has resulted from the training discussions and the reflection on her recorded teaching video.

4.3.5 Teacher E – Malak (September 2016)

4.3.5.1 Stimulated Recall Activity for Audio-Recorded Training Session with Volunteer Students

The three examples included below highlight the main points discussed in the eight IEs reflected on during the activity. The researcher paused the recorder following example 58 inquiring from Malak about how useful she thought the use of both the elicitation and the recast were at this IE. The teacher commented that the ‘student probably thought I didn’t hear when I said ‘say that again’’, elaborating that this ‘was not the best option of feedback maybe’. She added that use of a recast technique as a second form of OCF might not have attracted his attention to the error because the student ‘just said yes and carried on, so I am not sure if he got the mistake’.

Example 58:

S: We buy from Carrefour.. It is the most biggest market here.
T: Say that again? *(unmarked elicitation)*
S: Carrefour is the most biggest market in Alexandria. *(uptake: no repair)*
T: Carrefour is the biggest market in Alexandria. *(embedded recast – prompt)*
S: Yes, I go every week.

Example 59 was paused by Malak, she drew a comparison between her use of marked elicitation at this IE and the use of unmarked elicitation in example 58, commenting that the use of marked elicitation here attracted the student’s attention to the error and he attempted a correction. She stated, ‘Even if correction was not 100% correct, at least he understood something was wrong and tried. In the other example he didn’t even try’. She also commented on her use of metalinguistic feedback stating ‘I imagine if I were in class I would turn to the board and write the

correct answer and underline the adjective... I don't think this is needed here, the student corrected part of the error and then I recasted the correct form'. Observation one of her class, prior to commencing the training, did show repeated use of the board for a lot of errors which proved to be time consuming. An increase in awareness can be detected at this stage of the training.

Example 59:

S: I realize that travel by bus is not comfortable as the train.

T: Travel by bus is not COMFORTABLE as the train? *(marked elicitation)*

S: It is not as comfortable the train. *(uptake: partial repair)*

T: It is not AS comfortable AS the train. We put as before and after the adjective
(Embedded recast - prompt + metalinguistic feedback)

S: Ok.

Malak also paused the recorder following example 60 and made a second reference to the discussion in example 58 above. She explained 'Same as the previous example, when I tell them 'say that again', they probably understand that I didn't hear.... When I try to have them correct I should use a clearer technique like when I stopped before the mistake'. Her reference to the elliptical elicitation following the repetition of the students' error presents a developing awareness on her side to what can help learners notice the error and push them to correct.

Example 60:

S: Well, I went Spain. It is the most nicest country I visit.

T: Sorry, say that again? *(unmarked elicitation)*

S: Spain... Spain is most nicest country. *(uptake: no repair)*

T: Spain is....? *(elliptical elicitation)*

S: Spain is most nice? *(uptake: partial repair)*

T: It is the nicest country. *(embedded recast - prompt)*

The above reflections on Malak's use of OCF during the training session sheds light on a developing awareness on her side regarding the importance of salience in relation to the OCF techniques used in the classroom in order to attract learners' attention to their errors and push them to modify their output.

4.3.5.2 Stimulated Recall Activity for Video-Recorded Classroom Observation

While watching the video recording of observation two, Malak stopped the recording more than once commenting on her body language as a means of providing CF. She presented her classroom performance in the following terms 'I feel teaching is a form of acting... this is good when students make mistakes I can attract their attention using my face or hands that something is wrong... as you can see from the recording it works a lot and they try to correct'. The use of paralinguistic non-verbal signals as a form of CF was detected seven times throughout this video recorded observation, all of which were followed by either partial or successful repair.

As for the provision of OCF, Malak paused the recording following example 61 and commented on her use of elicitation, making reference to her reflections during the previous stimulated recall activity with the audio-recorded practice. She explained 'Because I used 'can you repeat that?' he thought what he said was not clear'. Referring to the audio-recorded practice she said 'when we were listening I remember I said that using this expression does not make the error clear for them'.

Malak further highlighted her use of a recast and commented on its salience for the learner 'Probably because I stressed on the correction he realized the mistake and repeated the correct form'.

Example 61:

S: I think my car is as better as my brother car.

T: Your car as better as your brother, can you repeat that?

(marked elicit.+ prompt)

S: My car as better as my brother.

(uptake: no repair)

T: You mean your car is AS GOOD AS your brothers? *(recast + enhanced prompt)*

S: Ohh yes, that correct, it is as good as his car. But I like more colour of my car

(uptake: repair)

Malak's reflection on the above IE suggests her awareness of the importance of highlighting the error/the correction for students to notice. Examination of the video recording for observations three and four show no occurrence of phrases such as 'can you repeat that again?' or 'say that again?' following any of the students' erroneous utterances.

Example 62:

S: In summer I go to gym a lot. Now I carry more weight
and feel twice as power since before.

T: Twice as power since before?

(marked elicitation)

S: Yes, I carry heavy weight now.

(uptake: no repair)

T: You need to use the verb not the noun, so what is the adjective of
power?

(metalinguistic feedback)

S: ... *(silence)*....

(no uptake)

T: Powerful, you feel twice as powerful as.

(embedded recast – prompt)

The researcher paused the recording following example 62 and asked the teacher to reflect on her use of both elicitation and metalinguistic feedback. Malak voiced her

reservation concerning shifting to metalinguistic feedback during a communicative task. She explained:

Now when I watch I think that when the student did not understand that I was trying to correct him when I used elicitation, I should use maybe another form of elicitation or a recast that makes the correction clear. When I asked about the adjective form and used metalinguistic correction he is confused because maybe he does not know what I mean when I ask for an adjective, because of his weak level.... in a communicative activity like this as you notice in the video he was interested talking about his summer, after the metalinguistic correction he stopped talking.

She further elaborated that maybe with more practice she would be able to 'think on the spot' and make quick decisions while teaching. Malak also added that 'watching this video and discussing what I do in class can help me do better later when I'm teaching and I want to correct their errors'. At this point, Malak was referring to how 'reflection-on-action' can eventually aid with 'reflection-in-action' (Schön, 1987).

The above discussion highlights Malak's realization of the role played by paralinguistic non-verbal signals in guiding students to self-correction. It also suggests a benefit of the stimulated recall activities in raising the teacher's awareness, which could eventually lead to teacher development. Finally, while reflecting on a number of IEs, in addition to the ones included above, Malak indicated an understanding that some OCF techniques are more suitable than others for certain stages of the lesson.

4.3.5.3 Reflective Feedback Meeting Following Observation Three

The notes taken during the feedback session following Malak's third classroom observation revolved around the following themes:

- A preference for using elicitation;
- Paying attention to the affective dimension of OCF;
- The role of paralinguistic non-verbal signals in correction of oral errors.

Malak expressed an inclination towards using elicitation during her teaching practice. She stressed its role in language development as it was 'clear enough' for learners to notice and attempt self-correction. According to her, the preferred elicitation techniques she provided in class were elliptical elicitation and marked elicitation (refer to Appendix B for definitions). Analysis of her three classroom observations did show an overall preference for elicitation as seen in table 22, with marked elicitation used almost twice as much as elliptical elicitation (Appendix L). She claimed that her provision of recasts was mainly limited to exchanges when students did not repair their utterances following an elicitation technique. Examination of the recorded videos of observations two, three and four showed a shift between the provision of a second form of elicitation or a recast (Examples 63 & 64, from observation three) when students did not repair following an initial elicitation form; this could be viewed as further support for her general tendency to use elicitation.

Example 63:

S: My car was take to the garage on weekend.

T: Your car was take?

(marked elicitation)

S: Yes.

(uptake: no repair)

T: You mean your car was.....?

(elliptical elicitation)

S: Was taking... taken, was taken.

(uptake: repair)

T: Very good.

Example 64:

S: I think much money is wasted last summer on new buildings.

T: Money IS wasted last summer? Is that correct?

(marked elicitation

+enhanced prompt)

S: *(silent)*....

(no uptake)

T: A lot of money WAS wasted last summer.

(embedded recast - prompt)

S: OK.

(uptake: no repair)

Concerning the affective dimension and students' attitudes towards being corrected in front of the whole class, Malak referred to the significance of positive reinforcement when students attempt correction. She explained that her use of praise words like 'great' and 'good job', could give students a sense of achievement when they modify their non-target like production. She elaborated that doing this, in addition to refraining from the use of an 'antagonizing tone or mean language' when correcting are main factors in students' acceptance of OCF. Analysis of the IEs in observation three showed that Malak used positive reinforcement following all IEs which exhibited a form of repair.

Regarding non-verbal paralinguistic signals as a form of CF, Malak expressed several ideas. She views the success of using body language as a form of CF to be contingent on the level of familiarity between teacher and students. Over time, students get to

know what the teacher's gestures and facial expressions mean, whether a funny face, bewildered expression, or any other paralinguistic signals. She adds that this familiarity would restrict any misinterpretation on the students' side of a teachers' non-verbal feedback. However, she continues to shed light on the importance of paying close attention when using such a form of feedback because no matter how familiar teachers are with their students, one wrong gesture can easily offend them and discourage them from participating.

4.3.5.4 Guided Electronic Journals

Analysis of Malak's e-journals revolved around the following points:

- How the training process influenced her awareness and classroom practice;
- A general preference towards using elicitation during classroom interaction.

She highlighted the significance of the training on more than one level. She first referred to the recorded practice with the volunteer students at an early stage stating its importance in raising her awareness to varying the use of OCF based on the proficiency level of the students. She explained:

The practice exercise was quite useful. I believe as teachers the most important thing is practice because being introduced to the technique without practice is not enough..... Practice has shown that every student might require a different corrective approach which was indicated by their understanding of the grammatical structure.

Further highlighting the importance of practice, she made reference to a recent training course she had taken:

During the course, we did mini-teaching practice in some areas and those are the ones that stick in my mind till now. For other areas we were only presented with the knowledge and I feel like it's fading. I believe both are important, the best combination would be to give us the information necessary and allow us to practice using that information and knowledge.

The second point Malak alluded to in relation to training is a raised awareness regarding some OCF techniques being more appropriate for certain stages of the lesson than others. She stated:

The various recast and elicitation methods I got to know and practice established a foundation for me as an English instructor to differentiate between them and when to use them. For example if students are doing an exercise with the purpose of using the structure for communication, recasts or elicitation are a better choice because they usually do not interrupt the interaction.

In her response to the third e-journal question, emailed during week eight of the intervention, Malak restated her preference for using elicitation, indicating a firm belief that this form of OCF is suitable for various proficiency levels:

At first I had the opinion that recasts were more suitable for lower levels and elicitation for the better students. But with continuous application in the classroom I realize that elicitation works for both. When an elicitation form is noticed by the students, they usually try to correct no matter what their language level.

4.3.5.5 OCF Provided During the Three Observed Lessons

Table 24 demonstrates that Malak provided elicitation more than twice as much as recasts and other forms combined. Elicitation was used 67.6%, recasts 18.9%, and other forms, namely metalinguistic feedback, 13.5%. Such a high frequency of using elicitation echoes her previous reflections in relation to students' benefit when

pushed to modify their language, as well as the satisfaction she noticed when students are able to self-correct.

Table 24: Total OCF Techniques Provided During Malak's Three Observed Lessons

Type of CF	Number	%
Elicitation	50	67.6
Recasts	14	18.9
Others	10	13.5
Total	74	100

The numbers presented in table 25 show that elicitation is the most recurring form in each of the three observations (61.5%, 73.1% and 68.2% consecutively). As for recasts and metalinguistic feedback table 23 highlights an almost constant use in each observed session.

Table 25: Frequencies of OCF Techniques Provided by Malak in Each Observed Lesson

Obser- vations	Type of OCF			
	Elicitation	Recasts	Other	Total
2	16(61.5%)	6(23.1%)	4 (15.4%)	26(100%)
3	19 (73.1%)	4(15.4%)	3 (11.5%)	26 (100%)
4	15(68.2%)	4(18.2%)	3 (13.6%)	22 (100%)

Examination of the various subtypes of elicitation and recasts is presented in Appendix L. The numbers show that marked elicitation is the most frequently used subtype of elicitation (50%, n=25), followed by elliptical elicitation (28%, n=14). This reflects what Malak said in the feedback session following observation three when she referred to repeating the error for students to notice (*marked elicitation*),

or repeating the sentence and stopping before the error to get students to attempt a correction (*elliptical elicitation*). As for recasts, the fourteen occurrences are almost divided evenly among three different subtypes (Appendix L).

The degrees of student repair following both elicitation and recast forms are presented in table 26. Both successful and partial repair occur at a high percentage following elicitation techniques (38%, n=19 and 42%, n=21 consecutively), while repair following recasts was less (28.6%, n=4 and 21.4%, n=3, consecutively). These numbers could attest for the benefit of elicitation in pushing learners to self-correct, which is one of reasons Malak put forward why elicitation is mainly her ‘first choice’ for oral correction.

Table 26: Degrees of Repair Following the Two Broad Categories of Recasts and Elicitation in Malak’s Classes

	Successful repair	Partial repair	No repair
Elicitation (n=50)	19 (38%)	21(42%)	10(20%)
Recasts (n=14)	4 (28.6%)	3 (21.4%)	7 (50%)

4.3.5.6 Post-Intervention Interview

Analysis of Malak’s interview data was focused on the following points:

- Effects of the training;
- Benefits if using elicitation during classroom interaction;
- The significance of training teachers on the provision of OCF.

Malak further commented on the effects of the training, which she had highlighted earlier through the e-journals. She made what could be viewed as an enlightened reference regarding the OCF techniques introduced through the training process:

When I think about it, we use these techniques in our everyday communication with different people...as teachers we just need someone to attract our attention to how to use them successfully in class while teaching.

Having stated her general preference for using elicitation before, she elaborated in more detail on its benefit for learners. Firstly, she expressed the potential for language development as a result of exposure to elicitation in the language classroom stating that, 'I see that errors are good... I want them to make mistakes so I can draw their attention... when they correct they remember the correction later and maybe won't do the mistake again'. Secondly, she made an interesting reference to how the provision of elicitation can challenge students and develop an environment of healthy competition in the classroom:

When I provide the answer they're not challenged... with time they expect you to always provide the correction..... when I elicit it's some kind of competition..... they try to figure it out and sometimes they shout out the answer.... sometimes they whisper the answer trying to help each other..... I see this competition mode gives students satisfaction when they correct.

On a final note at the end of the interview, Malak voiced her opinion regarding the importance of training teachers on the provision of OCF; an opinion she put forward without a direct question on the researcher's side:

This is quite important because there are a lot of teachers out there who just don't bother... I believe it's not only beneficial for novice teachers.... I have observed classes of experienced teachers where minimal or no focus is put on correcting students' oral errors I also believe this needs to be part of classroom management

courses..... students learn from their mistakes so teachers need to be introduced to various ways of dealing with such mistakes to enrich our classroom experience.

4.3.5.7 Discussion

The above analysis highlights four main themes: 1) the significance of the training process, 2) a preference for the use of elicitation, 3) the use of paralinguistic non-verbal signals as a form of CF, and 4) sensitivity to the affective dimension to OCF. First, the significance of the training was manifested through Malak's reference to her benefit from the practice session with the two volunteer students, and how it helped her focus her provision of OCF. She drew a comparison with a training course she had completed recently during which practice was not always a priority. She interestingly argued that both, acquisition of knowledge and teaching practice, complement each other. Another component of the training process, the stimulated recall activities, was also mentioned more than once by the teacher indicating clearly at one point that 'watching this video and discussing what I do in class can help me do better later when I want to correct their errors', which echoes R. Ellis's (2009) statement that 'reflecting on CF serves as a basis both for evaluating and perhaps changing existing CF practices' (p.15). Malak also pointed how being introduced to a variety of OCF techniques helped her pay more attention to which techniques are more suitable at the different stages of the lesson, an aspect raised by more than one of the other participating teachers. This could also be related to a lack of familiarity with OCF techniques which she had expressed during the pre-intervention interview. Furthermore, she expressed a conviction concerning the

importance of training teachers on the provision of OCF, falling back on recent classroom observations she had conducted as a novice teacher, as well as the recent training courses she had completed which did not include a direct component focusing on error correction.

Secondly, Malak stated at different stages her preference for the provision of elicitation during oral interaction with her students in the class. The reasons she put forward were the potential benefit for learners when they are pushed to self-correct, accompanied by a sense of satisfaction when they succeed, which could evidently promote further motivation to participate in classroom interaction. Table 22 shows elicitation to be the main form of OCF used during the three observed lessons (67.6%, n=50), as well as the most frequently used during each individual lesson (Table 23). This presents a shift from the pre-intervention observation during which Malak resorted to the board for the correction of most oral errors during the different stages of the lesson.

Thirdly, Malak is the third of the participating teachers to underline the importance of body language as a means of attracting learners' attention to their non-target like production. She presents a firm conviction regarding the use of paralinguistic non-verbal signals for error correction explaining that 'teaching is a form of acting... I can attract their attention using my face or hands that something is wrong'. Such a recurrent reference to the role played by non-verbal behaviour echoes Puccinelli's (2008) argument that 'research suggests that nonverbal behavior communicates

more information about what one is thinking or feeling than words... estimates of the role of nonverbal behavior suggest that 60% of what is communicated is done so nonverbally' (p.257).

Finally, Malak further elaborates on her belief of the significance of the affective dimension of OCF, which she had addressed during the pre-intervention interview stating that students could 'feel a degree of discomfort, sometimes even humiliation' when corrected in front of their colleagues. Her reflections during the feedback session following observation three and the post-intervention interview, as well as observation of her classes, provide evidence for how keen she is on 'not embarrassing students' and regularly providing positive reinforcement with the aim of boosting learners' sense of accomplishment and motivating them to participate.

4.4 Training Teachers on the Provision of OCF and its Influence on Students' Beliefs

In an attempt to answer the fourth research question: *To what extent does training teachers on providing OCF affect their students' beliefs?*, data were gathered using post intervention focus group meetings with students from each of the five observed classes. The students participating in these meeting were the same ones recruited for the pre-intervention focus groups. Attrition occurred in four of the five groups, with a maximum of two participants decreasing per group; Table 27 presents the exact numbers.

Table 27: Post-Intervention Focus Group Meetings

Time of data collection cycle	Focus Group participants taught by:	Number of participants (numbers attending pre-intervention focus group shown in brackets)	Date of the five focus group meetings
First Cycle – September 2015	Teacher A	3 (4)	Between 15 th and 21 st November 2015
	Teacher B	5 (6)	
Second Cycle – February 2016	Teacher C	2 (3)	Between 7 th and 15 th April 2016
	Teacher D	3 (5)	
Third Cycle – September 2016	Teacher E	4 (4)	Between 15 th and 21 st November 2016

The meetings took place following the completion of the intervention for each of the three cycles; September 2015, February 2016, and September 2016 semesters (refer to Appendix J for the data collection timeline). The aim was to explore students' beliefs following the intervention and the teacher training process in order to examine any changes which might have occurred since the pre-intervention focus group meetings.

A pre-planned questioning route was followed (Appendix I), which went along the same lines as the pre-intervention focus group questions in order to allow for making comparisons when necessary. The questions were piloted by a number of the researchers' teaching colleagues who affirmed that such a questioning route could give a deep insight into students' beliefs regarding interaction and the provision of OCF in the classroom throughout the course of the intervention. Similar to the pre-intervention meetings, the researcher repeatedly assured students that

participation is voluntary and that anonymity of their identity is essential on her part.

The meetings were audio-recorded (refer to section 3.6.3 for details). Students were encouraged to speak in Arabic, their mother tongue, if they felt the need for it. Similar to the pre-intervention focus groups, the Arabic portions were translated by the researcher, and a considerable amount, around 70% of the translation, was checked by a colleague of the researcher, whose mother tongue is Arabic and his English is highly proficient. The discussions for each question were then compiled in one file. For the purpose of data analysis, several detailed readings took place for each question and themes were identified and codified based on the focus of the questions. Analysis resulted in the following themes:

1. The importance of teacher-student interaction for language learning and the teacher's role in promoting such interaction;
2. An overall preference for elicitation as a form of OCF;
3. The affective dimension associated with the provision of OCF;
4. Teachers should be generally focused with regard to correction of oral errors.

Analysis of the post-intervention focus group discussions will be presented along the lines of the above themes. When quoting individual responses, similar to the pre-intervention focus groups analysis in research question one, students will be referred to by teacher and number, i.e. ***Student A-1*** participated in the first meeting

of the first cycle (September 2015) and was taught by teacher A (Yosra). Despite the occurrence of attrition, students will have the same numbers as the pre-intervention focus groups for ease of cross-referencing when necessary.

Such analysis allows for: 1) Highlighting common beliefs expressed throughout the different focus group meetings, 2) drawing comparisons with the outcomes of the pre-intervention meetings when necessary, and 3) associating learners' perceptions with their teachers' classroom practices and stated beliefs throughout the course of the training process if possible.

4.4.1 The Importance of Teacher-Student Interaction for Language Learning and the Teacher's Role in Promoting such Interaction

Similar to the pre-intervention focus group discussions, students voiced their belief in the importance of interaction for language development. Furthermore, some students, who previously stated their reservation regarding the role of interaction in the classroom, shifted their attitude and expressed a strong conviction regarding the role played by interaction throughout the course of the intervention. One of those students was taught by Sherifa (teacher D). In the pre-intervention focus group meeting he stated that:

It's different styles.... Some people like interaction and others want to work and learn alone...for me interaction with teacher in the classroom isn't that important.

(Student D-1)

During the post-intervention meeting he made reference to the pre-intervention discussion and argued the following:

Interaction with the teacher in English lesson helped....On a scale from 1 – 10, I would say 9. I remember saying when we talk before that I prefer working alone, but Ms Sherifa encourage us to say what we think. Also she helped us correct our mistakes when we talked in class so we did learn something.

(Student D-1)

The above quotation calls attention to the role played by the teacher in fostering learner participation in classroom interaction, an issue raised by several students in all five focus group meetings. Concerning Sherifa (teacher D) students agreed that she was 'really keen' on encouraging them to participate in the ongoing classroom interaction. One student explained that 'We can feel she want us to learn ... she really want us to learn.... she encourage interaction and we want to participate' (Student D-5). This was the view of all three of her students who took part in the post-intervention meeting. What was intriguing is the shift in their attitude as opposed to the pre-intervention meetings during which all participants expressed a degree of reluctance to speak in class because their teachers used to 'embarrass them' or accuse them of asking 'silly questions'.

Another point raised by several students regarding the role of the teacher in promoting interaction in the classroom is that of including all students in the process, during the discussion a comparison was made between the English language class and other more content-based courses where several students felt they were 'neglected'. One student explained the importance of inclusion:

Sometimes the teacher chooses one or two specific people all the time because the teacher know they are good.... So the rest of us don't participate.... This affect our self confidence because we have no chance to interact or benefit.....

In English class it was better because Ms Sally pay attention to both good and weak students and give us confidence to speak and make us correct mistakes.
(Student B-4)

This issue of inclusion was raised in the pre-intervention focus group meetings by another group of students in relation to the teachers' provision of OCF; I referred to it as 'feedback discrimination', which results in students feeling uncomfortable and demotivated because the teacher attempts to correct some students' errors and ignores others. That same group of students commented that their teacher, Dalila, 'paid attention to all students and wanted us to correct our English' (Student C-1). It could be assumed from the recurrent occurrence of that issue that it strikes a chord with students in relation to the degree of their classroom benefit.

One more issue put forward, during three of the post-intervention meetings, regarding the importance of teacher-student interaction sheds light on students' awareness of the necessity of taking responsibility for their own learning. During one of the meetings a student stressed that 'interaction is a two-way thing', and that if 'students aren't active and the teacher do all the action there will be no interaction' (Student C-1), thus suggesting that the success of the learning process is the responsibility of all parties involved. In another meeting one student raised the issue of motivation and students' willingness to learn, arguing that 'Interaction in class depend on whether the students want to learn, if yes, there will be such interaction because they will be motivated', which further suggests that students shoulder part of the responsibility for their learning.

4.4.2 Preference for Elicitation as a Form of OCF

Except for two relatively more capable students, the majority who took part in the post-intervention focus groups favoured being pushed to self-correct; the two remaining students were open to both forms of OCF, recasts and elicitation. While discussions throughout the meetings mostly corresponded with the beliefs stated during the pre-intervention focus groups, students unmistakably exhibited more awareness and a deeper understanding of the various forms of OCF used by their teachers and the benefits associated with some of these forms as opposed to others.

When asked about the techniques used during the English language classroom for correction of their oral errors, students could make direct references to what actually took place during the English lessons. These were cross-referenced with the video-recorded classroom observations of the participating teachers and reflected an acute awareness on the students' part, as their interpretations were accurate to a great extent. Students' comments regarding their teachers' provision of OCF ranged between 'she helped us correct ourselves', 'the teacher repeated the mistake but with the correct form', and 'she repeated the mistake like asking a question so we could correct', all indicating a noticeable level of consciousness as regards their teachers' use of OCF. One group, taught by Malak (teacher E), exhibited an evident change between the pre- and post-intervention focus group meetings concerning their ability to identify and recall the OCF techniques used in their classrooms. Throughout the pre-intervention meeting, their comments were along the lines of 'I don't remember how the teacher corrects' and 'we didn't speak in class so no one

correct our mistakes'. During the second meeting, all four students were able to articulate Malak's frequent attempts to push them to self-correct, as well as the less recurrent instances of providing the correction herself; this might suggest a degree of salience in the teacher's provision of OCF. One student thoroughly explained her use of marked elicitation:

She gives us a clue for correction... She gives a sign so we can correct... For example if the correct form is 'Studying' and I say 'study', she repeat and say 'Study?' like she's asking a question..... so she would give us a hint.

(Student E-4)

When indicating preference for the use of elicitation during classroom interaction, as a means of guiding them to correct their errors, students mostly made that reference with a belief in the benefit of self-correction as a means of language development, and as an approach which would boost their self-confidence. Similar to what was reported in the results of research question three, students from classes taught by teachers A, B, D and E all indicated their teachers' frequent use of OCF forms which pushed students to self correct. They expressed satisfaction with such forms of error correction stating that:

I prefer when she guided me to correct.... This way I will learn and remember correction.... If she corrects it might not stick.... As they say 'Easy come easy go'

(Student D-5)

When we correct was better because I feel confidence that I can correct myself.

(Student E-1)

Concerning the fifth teacher, Dalila (teacher C), it was highlighted in research question three that she was the only one of the five participating teachers to use recasts twice as much as elicitation throughout the course of the intervention. This was pointed out by her students during the post-intervention focus group meeting, they indicated that the ‘teacher mostly provided us with the correction, not guide us to correct our mistakes’ (Student E-2). Both students participating in the meeting voiced their preference for an approach which was more geared towards helping them to correct their errors. Moreover, one student exhibited a shift from his previous conviction. In the pre-intervention interview he stated that:

I’m ok if the teacher corrects my mistake or I correct, no difference for me.
(Student E-1)

During the second focus group meeting the discussion manifested a change in his belief:

I agree with X, better that we correct for ourselves..... because we participate in class now and I make mistakes ...I feel that when the teacher lets me correct it will help me later to remember.
(Student E-1)

4.4.3 The Affective Dimension Associated with the Provision of OCF

The affective aspect associated with the teachers’ global provision of OCF in the language classroom was a common topic throughout the five post-intervention focus group discussions. Similar to the analysis of the teachers’ reflective data and classroom observations in research question three, which signify a considerable degree of awareness for the importance of being tactful when correcting oral errors

in order to avoid embarrassing and demotivating students, analysis of the data generated from post-intervention meetings presents a unanimous agreement that teachers' attitudes played a major role in students' acceptance of and benefit from the provision of OCF during interaction in their language classroom.

Firstly, students pointed out the friendly, non-judgmental, and encouraging approach their teachers adopted when addressing errors:

What I care about is what the teacher say when she correct my mistake... her face expression, her tone of voice...is she aggressive or not..... If she's doing it in a nice friendly way I don't mind...Ms Dalila is so kind... when she corrects us we feel good about it because she wants us to learn.

(Student D-1)

In addition, when students referred to the motivating, friendly approach their teachers adopted, some drew comparisons with previous classes they had attended or with current ones they were registered in. One student explained:

We need to feel that it ok to make errors.... We shouldn't be attack or humiliate for it.... We're here to learn... when Ms Sally correct she makes us feel it's ok... some other teachers don't... they make us feel stupid when we say something wrong.

(Student B-3)

Secondly, discussions in three focus group meetings highlighted how their teachers paid attention to errors made by all students, making them feel encouraged to participate. One student in Dalila's (teacher C) class, who had made reference to what I referred to as 'feedback discrimination' in the analysis of the first focus group meetings, commented on his teacher's performance as living up to his expectations:

And as I told you in the other meeting if teacher corrects only some students the rest will feel not important and neglect by the teacher... Ms Dalila didn't do that she focus on all students which encouraged us and help us learn.

(Student C-2)

Thirdly, the teachers' use of humour when correcting oral errors was raised during the post-intervention meeting with the first focus group, a point which I made sure to raise with the other four focus groups. Interestingly, all five groups acknowledged the importance of humor in the classroom as a means of creating a friendly, stress free environment when it comes to correcting their errors:

The teacher sometimes joked when we made a mistake... she said something funny or acted using her face and hands to make us notice that we say something wrong... this made us feel it's ok to make mistakes and that it was not end of the world.

(Student E-2)

Focusing on the same concept of humour and jokes when correcting errors, one student made an insightful comment concerning the need for a certain level of familiarity to be acquired between teachers and students for the humour and jokes to work:

I think jokes are important but sometimes the student feel that the teacher is making fun... even if the teacher not mean to some students who don't know the teacher well can misunderstand and this could affect motivation for students.

(Student A-3)

4.4.4 A Focused Approach to Correction of Oral Errors

The beliefs expressed by students during the meetings regarding the amount of error correction provided during classroom interaction were generally geared

towards the need for being more focused with the choice of errors to correct, with many students holding the same beliefs expressed during the pre-intervention meetings and others exhibiting a shift as to 'which errors worth correction and which should be ignore' (Student A-3).

Whether holding the same beliefs towards error correction or demonstrating a shift in attitude, students advocating selectivity when it comes to correcting their errors during oral interaction highlighted three main reasons: 1) too much correction can impact confidence, 2) the teacher should be able to differentiate between 'performance errors' (Brown, 2000), and errors related to the process of interlanguage development, and 3) correction should focus on possible exam items.

The first two reasons highlighted above were discussed during the pre-intervention focus groups as well. The intriguing thing at this stage was that some of the students who brought these issues up were previously for correction of all errors made in class because it was 'the teacher's job to correct' (Student D-4). Some of the reasons stated for the change in attitude were:

Before I feel the teacher should correct everything.... Now if she corrects everything that will affect our confidence.... I will feel bad because everything I'm saying is wrong... I notice Ms Malak corrects topic of the lesson and this is good because it helps me learn.

(Student E-1)

Sometimes the mistake is a slip of my tongue, I already know the correct form... I prefer now that Ms Sherifa gives correction for the things she is explaining in the lesson... I think that's enough ...if she corrects everything it will make me look bad in front of the class.

(Student D-4)

In the above quotations, a common point mentioned by both students is their teachers' emphasis on correcting errors related to the focus of the lesson. It could be assumed that such selectivity helped learners notice that focused error correction might aid both self-confidence and language development.

The third reason, focusing error correction on exam related items, was brought up during the post-intervention meetings. It reflects the exam-oriented culture of the educational system, an issue brought up several times during the current investigation. Some students related it to what was actually taking place in class:

She should pick things that will be in exam and stress on them... Our teacher does this because she mainly corrects what she explains in the lesson which comes in the exam later.

(Student B-2)

The most important is that she corrects the grammar and vocab that come in exam.. I don't want to lose mark because the teacher did not show me what is correct.

(Student A-2)

Another point raised with relation to the amount of correction of oral errors is the usefulness of peer-correction. Some students expressed the opinion that:

We help each other correct... the teacher doesn't have to do all the work... sometimes when I say something wrong and the teacher gives me a look like she does not understand another student can correct.

(Student C-2)

When we work in groups we help each other and correct each other's mistakes.... This also helps us learn and the teacher not necessary corrects everything.

(Student A-1)

This presents a shift from beliefs expressed during the pre-intervention focus groups when some students were opposed to being corrected by their colleagues. This is evident with student A-1, among others, who stated in the pre-intervention meetings that she 'do[esn't] like other people in class to correct [her] mistakes'; it could be assumed that her classroom experience throughout the course of the intervention has swayed her belief. This awareness of the potential benefit for peer-correction is in line with the support for peer-assessment which is praised as a way forward in Assessment for Learning in the language classroom. It has the potential of encouraging student collaboration and it allows the teacher to observe, reflect and intervene when support is needed (Black *et al.*, 2004).

In conclusion, discussion of the above themes, which have resulted from analyzing the post-intervention focus group meetings, presents both an affirmation of some of the beliefs expressed by students prior to the commencement of the intervention, as well as a shift in a few others. Students asserted their belief in the importance of participation in classroom interaction as a tool for language development. They restated their conviction that the teachers' attitude plays a major role in encouraging them to learn and motivating them to be active participants in class. Students also expressed their previously stated beliefs concerning the importance of providing OCF during classroom interaction, as well as exhibited a few changes in beliefs regarding the techniques used for OCF and the amount of oral error correction that would aid their language development.

Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusion

This final chapter discusses the main aspects of the investigation, which were the focus of the four research questions, 1) students' beliefs in relation to the use of OCF in the language classroom, 2) teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the provision of OCF, 3) the influence of training on teachers' beliefs and provision of OFC, and finally 4) whether students' beliefs regarding OCF changed following their teachers' training. This is followed by outlining the general conclusions, in addition to the limitations and recommendations of the current study.

5.1 Students' Beliefs Regarding the Teachers' Use of OCF in the Classroom

Findings from the questionnaire and focus group meetings suggest that the two data collection methods complemented each; on the one hand, questionnaire results present an extensive picture of students' beliefs due to accessibility to a sizeable sample; on the other hand, focus group discussions allow for more insight through enabling students to elaborate on their views and reflect on their beliefs.

Questionnaire results set the scene regarding students' awareness of the role errors play in IL development, with the majority agreeing that errors are an indication of what they still do not know in the L2. Consequently, it is hardly surprising that, similar to previous investigations (Kartchava, 2016; Agudo, 2015; Lee, 2013; Jean & Simard, 2011; Davis, 2003; Oladejo, 1993; Schulz, 1996, 2001), the majority of respondents (65%) agreed on the importance of OCF for spoken errors in the

language classroom. In addition, there was a consensus concerning the importance of immediate OCF (around 71%), as opposed to delaying the correction to a later stage of the lesson; a finding which was reported by Lee (2013), Brown (2009), Harmer (2007) and Davis (2003). Such outcomes advocate a cross-cultural notion concerning the importance of attending to spoken errors, which suggests that 'perhaps there is a world culture of language learning and teaching which encourages learners of many cultural backgrounds to perceive language learning very similarly' (Horwitz, 1999, p.575).

Concerning the amount of error correction to be provided by teachers during classroom interaction, similar to previous investigations (e.g: Lee, 2013; Ancker, 2000; Oladejo, 1993), questionnaire results depicted a high demand from students for constant correction of their spoken errors. Being in the field of EFL teaching in Egypt for nearly two decades, a primary analysis of the results suggests that Egyptian EFL learners developed such beliefs as a result of a general tendency towards grammar instruction, a disposition which favours accuracy over fluency, focusing on drilling and language exercises rather than communicative activities, and fostering an examination oriented teaching environment in the EFL language classroom (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017). Such a context, which favoured sustained provision of OCF, was also highlighted by Loewen *et al.* (2009) who suggest that FL learners of various languages in the US showed a positive attitude towards CF due to their learning environment which fostered accuracy and grammar learning, further indicating a 'world culture of language learning'. On the other hand, the focus group

discussions allowed for a more analytical presentation of students' views. Some maintained their belief in a sustained provision of OCF, while others, more proficient learners, expressed awareness that too much correction might demotivate and discourage them from participating; an outcome different from that of Kartchava (2016) who found that participants in her study, from both ESL and EFL contexts, related higher proficiency and language experience to appreciation of and an increased demand for feedback on language production. Such varied outcomes could be viewed as a challenge for the language teacher with regard to catering for various learners' needs in the same teaching context.

With regard to how errors should be corrected, questionnaire results exhibited an inclination towards varying the techniques used for OCF, between those which provided the correction and others which pushed students to self-correct; this might attest to the students' 'belief about the importance of variety in the treatment of error' (Kartchava, 2016, p.33). On the other hand, discussion groups allowed students to reflect on this issue arguing that OCF should depend on students' proficiency level, language needs and the ability to self-correct. Such CF preferences are contrary to results reported by Schulz (1996), Lee (2013), focusing on advanced students, and Amador (2008), focusing on beginner students, where the majority preferred explicit correction of their errors. Perhaps the reason for the varying results in the current investigation is the lack of familiarity with OCF techniques, which was reported by several students, and the uncertainty concerning which techniques are more suited for different teaching-learning circumstances.

Data from both questionnaire and group discussions indicated that the manner by which teachers provide OCF is essential in motivating or demotivating students with relation to participation in oral interaction. They also reported past learning experiences when teachers 'made fun', were 'harsh' and 'sarcastic' when correcting spoken errors, which had the potential of raising students' 'affective filter' (Krashen, 1982). Some students reported how such CF episodes 'made [them] shut out and not concentrate till the end of the lesson' (Student D-1), thus rendering the provision of CF counter-effective. In addition, participants referred to past experiences when teachers were not 'inclusive' in correcting oral errors, focusing on some students while neglecting others. Several students highlighted their belief that such practices resulted in demotivation, inhibiting them from active classroom participation. This corresponds with Kartchava's (2016) argument that 'L2 researchers have provided evidence that "student beliefs about language learning [can] originate from their L2 learning experiences (Almarza, 1996; Horowitz, 1985; Kern, 1995)....." (Peacock, 2001, p. 187)' (Kartchava, 2016, p.32). Exploring students' past learning experience proved beneficial in guiding several stages of the research process since it has been argued that starting from where students are and building on their strengths and weaknesses is an important principle of teaching (Klapper, 2006).

The above outcomes advocate the need for familiarizing teachers with thorough knowledge and presenting them with ample techniques as regards how to deal with the intricate issue of oral error correction during classroom interaction.

Another outcome for both the questionnaire and group discussions is a general tendency towards preferring teacher correction to peer-correction; similar results were reported by Schulz (1996, 2001), Amador (2008) and Agudo (2015). This further highlights the pivotal role played by the teacher in addressing oral errors and promotes the significance of presenting teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary for dealing with such errors in the classroom.

5.2 Teachers' Beliefs and Practices Regarding the Provision of OCF

Data regarding teachers' beliefs and classroom practices were gathered using pre-training classroom observations and one-on-one interviews. Analysis of the data gives insights into the beliefs and practices of the participating teachers showing certain similarities and certain discrepancies among the five of them.

The interviews initially shed light on the teachers' approach to grammar teaching. Although this might not directly focus on error correction, the aim was to explore whether such an approach might relate to each teacher's method concerning the provision of OCF. Among the five teachers, beliefs and practices stretched along a continuum from an inductive to a deductive approach, and data analysis did not indicate any systematicity. The three less experienced teachers, Sherifa, who resorted to a more deductive approach to grammar teaching, as well as Sally and Malak, who were further down along the continuum, mostly made use of the board for addressing oral errors. Yosra and Dalila, who also employed a mixed approach to teaching grammar, resorted mainly to recasts, without allowing for students'

participation in the error filled IEs.

With relation to the importance of error correction and the amount of OCF to be provided throughout the lesson, all five teachers agreed on its importance. Three of the teachers, Yosra, Dalila and Malak, believed that OCF should be provided in relation to the focus of the lesson, putting forward the argument that too much correction might embarrass and demotivate students; similar views are expressed in Agudo (2014), Roothoof (2014), Vásquez and Harvey (2010), Brown (2009) and Ancker (2000) where teachers were concerned about the affective consequences of constant correction. Sally and Sherifa believed in correcting all errors made by students during the lesson and related it to students' performance in exams, exhibiting an exam-oriented teaching approach (McIlwraith & Fortune, 2016). This is contrary to several research outcomes which have reported a smaller percentage of teachers who prefer correction of all errors (e.g. Jean & Simard, 2011; Bell, 2005; Ancker, 2000). Such a tendency for correction might have been promoted by the general attitude in the Egyptian language classrooms, that of a traditional teaching approach (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017; Abdel Latif, 2012) which fosters accuracy. In addition, Sally related her approach to constant error correction to a negative past learning experience when errors were left unattended, causing her exam anxiety. Such a view relates to 'the impact of 'apprentice of observation' (Kartchava *et. al*, 2018) as Sally draws on her personal experience as a learner.

Approaches to error correction differed among the five teachers. The three less experienced teachers made constant use of the board during different stages of the lesson. Highlighting the influence of the 'apprenticeship of observation', Sally and Malak resorted to putting students' errors on the board and inviting other class members to correct, with both making reference to past learning experiences when their teachers used the board and they highly benefited. Similar results were reported by Farrell and Lim (2005), where teachers believed in the use of certain grammar teaching techniques because they had benefited from similar techniques as students. Sherifa constantly referred students to the rules on the board for correction of spoken errors. Such constant reference to rules was time consuming, and resulted in the disruption of oral language practice at certain stages of the lesson during which the teaching objectives were of a more communicative nature.

In the cases of Yosra and Dalila, both resorted mainly to recasts, the common trend noticed among teachers providing OCF in the literature (e.g. Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2016; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and alluded to how such feedback does not embarrass students, a finding reported by other investigations (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2016; Kamiya, 2014; Yoshida, 2010; Zyzik & Polio, 2008). Despite making reference to the affective dimension of error correction, Yosra used words like 'wrong' and 'no' which negatively influenced students' willingness to participate. A similar outcome is presented in M. Borg (2005); although she investigated beliefs and practices of an inexperienced teacher. For Dalila, although

she expressed a strong belief in pushing students to correct their errors, suggesting the use of some form of elicitation which could lead to self-correction, she mainly resorted to recasts. Similar outcomes are seen in Dong (2012), when two Chinese teachers in a U.S. university stated they would encourage self-repair, while both mostly used recasts as a form of OCF. In Basturkmen, Loewen and R. Ellis (2004), two teachers, one with considerable teaching experience, stated that they preferred pushing students to self-correct, but observations showed regular use of recasts. In a more qualitative study (Roothoof, 2014) five out of ten EFL teachers preferred to integrate several forms of CF when interacting with students; however, practices and beliefs varied, as recasts were the most frequent with all teachers. The above divergence between beliefs and practices for the two more experienced teachers calls into question Basturkmen's (2012) statement concerning the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices, 'More experienced teachers are likely to have more experientially informed beliefs beliefs informed by teaching experiences might be expected to correspond clearly with teaching practices' (p.288). Such noted differences between beliefs and practice could be attributed to teachers' previous experiences as learners, trainee, or in-service teachers (Agudo, 2014; S. Borg, 2003a, 2006); which in Dalila's case was a negative past learning experience that alerted her to the importance of paying attention to the affective aspect of OCF.

As regards the affective dimension related to error correction, all five teachers stated an awareness of its importance during the interview. With the exception of

Yosra, as mentioned earlier and only in certain cases, the teachers' classroom practice, regardless of their approach to error correction, exhibited such awareness and the teachers showed tolerance and acceptance of the errors made by students and demonstrated willingness to correct.

As regards students noticing the intent behind the CF provided by the teacher, Sally, Sherifa and Malak referred to students' facial expressions as an indicator, bearing in mind that the three mainly resorted to the board for error correction and used some form of OCF in a limited number of IEs. As for the two more experienced teachers, Yosra and Dalila, they stated that uptake and/or repair following the provision of OCF can be indicators that students noticed the corrective intent. However, their classroom practice showed minimal support as students were hardly given enough wait time by their teachers to attempt uptake or repair. A similar outcome was reported by Oliver (1995) and Sheen (2006) and suggested as a reason for the lack of uptake following recasts. As a result, it could be suggested that the more inexperienced teachers were unaware of the relation between uptake and the noticing of OCF. As for the more experienced teachers, despite expressing an understanding of the need for uptake following OCF, their classroom practices did not reflect such beliefs.

The above discussion suggests a potential benefit for the participating teachers from a broader exposure to the diverse techniques available for the provision of OCF, as well as practice of and reflection on the use of these techniques during interaction

with their students in the language classroom, since ‘needs for teacher training are typically defined by a recognizable deficit in the participating teachers’ knowledge or skills’ (James, 2001, cited in Coburn, 2016, p.13).

5.3 The Extent to which Training Influenced Teachers’ Beliefs and Provision of OCF

To explore the influence of the training process, several data gathering methods were employed: 1) stimulated recall sessions, 2) classroom observations, 3) reflective e-journals, 4) reflective post-observation meetings, and 5) post-intervention interviews. The effect of training was manifested through both teachers’ expressed beliefs and classroom practices.

An evident shift was apparent for all five teachers concerning the provision of OCF. Classroom observations showed that three of the less experienced teachers, Sherifa, Sally and Malak, shifted from an almost constant use of the board for correction of oral errors to a variety of OCF techniques ranging between sub-types of elicitations and recasts, with elicitation techniques being considerably more frequent. The other two teachers, Dalila, the most experienced, and Yosra, also exhibited a shift with the former using more sub-types of recasts and a smaller number of elicitation forms, and the latter shifting from mostly relying on one sub-type of recast to employing a variety of elicitation moves, and less frequently using recasts. Such frequent provision of elicitation forms during teacher-student classroom interaction is contrary to the findings of numerous investigations, in diverse language teaching contexts, which have concluded that recasts are the most commonly employed form

of OCF by teachers (e.g. Kartchava *et. al*, 2018; Kartchava, 2016; Yoshida, 2008; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This suggests a relation between the training and teachers' provision of OCF, as well as a shift from the general tendencies observed in various research contexts. Such a relation could be linked to a newly raised awareness, practice and reflection on the use of both output prompting and input providing OCF techniques, thus promoting Brown's (2016) statement that '...education/training appear to moderate [teachers'] CF choices' (p.447). Other studies have reported an impact of training, however, they mainly highlighted a shift in teachers' beliefs and awareness regarding CF (e.g. Kartchava *et.al*, 2018; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016; Baleghizadeh & Rezaei, 2010; Busch, 2010; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010; Mackey, Polio & McDonough, 2004).

Since the measure of noticing for OCF techniques adopted in the current investigation is students' uptake and repair, the considerably high level of partial/successful repair reported in the previous chapter following elicitation moves presents support for their potential in pushing students to modify their language output; the frequencies reported range between 75% (total n=20) and 86.6% (total n= 45). This advocates the claims put forward by the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 1995) and the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1995, 2005), indicating the potential of output prompting moves to attract students' attention to the corrective intent behind feedback through noticing the gap between their language production and the L2 norms. Consequently, noticing might push learners to modify their erroneous language production, thus potentially facilitating IL

development. On the other hand, the amount of uptake and repair following recast moves provided by each teacher was considerably lower; frequencies ranged between 0% (total n=9) and 50% (total n=14). Contrary to these outcomes, other studies conducted in highly structured learning environments, and in settings where systematic focus on form is common (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004; Oliver & Mackey, 2003) reported much higher levels of uptake and repair following recasts. Outcomes of these studies coincide with conclusions from other investigations which indicate a higher chance of deducing the corrective intent behind recasts in form-oriented classes which entail an emphasis on accuracy (Sato, 2011; Lyster, 2007; R. Ellis & Sheen, 2006). However, despite the general form-focused approach of the observed classes in the current investigation, and although the oral communicative activities used aimed at getting students to practise certain structures in meaningful contexts, successful/partial repair occurred with a frequency of only 35.2% (total n=79) following recasts provided by all the five teachers. Such discrepancies between the current results and outcomes of the above investigations have perhaps resulted from the frequent provision of elicitation moves during classroom interaction which, over time, might have got students attuned to the corrective intent behind such a form of feedback, thrusting upon them a need to modify their language production. These results might also indicate the role of proficiency level with relation to recognizing the corrective intent behind the more implicit forms of OCF. While the intermediate level students in the current investigation showed no uptake for the majority of recast moves

provided during the lesson, it is suggested that students of higher proficiency levels can more easily identify the implicit OCF provided in class (Lee, 2013; Doughty, 199; Long & Robinson, 1998).

Coinciding with the above observations, all teachers, through various data gathering tools, expressed their belief in the benefits of pushing learners to self-correct, hence consciously advocating the use of elicitation forms in response to oral errors. Such beliefs contrast with previous research where teachers either expressed a preference for recasts or a more balanced approach to the provision of OCF in the classroom (e.g. Rahimi & Zang, 2015; Agudo, 2014; Bell, 2005). Exhibiting congruence between beliefs and practice, the numbers reported earlier show a sweeping majority for the provision of elicitation sub-types, with the exception of Dalila. Although she repeatedly articulated the benefit of pushing learners to self-correct, she used recasts 'spontaneously' almost twice as much as elicitation moves. This might indicate a deeply rooted and unconscious tendency to resort to recasts, which has developed over years of classroom teaching experience. However, classroom observations revealed that Dalila's use of elicitation moves increased slightly overtime (Table 17). Such an outcome might indicate two things, first, that 'changes are more likely to occur gradually as a result of accumulated and integrated knowledge' (Mattheoudakis, 2007, p.1282), especially with more experienced teachers, secondly, that change following some form of teacher training would probably need to be 'processed and filtered through layers of experience and belief' (Rankin & Becker, p.366).

The participating teachers further stated the significance of the training with regards their beliefs and practice. Following completion of the intervention, Sally claimed that being introduced to such a variety of OCF techniques at an earlier stage would have positively influenced her classroom practice and benefited her students. Such an opinion echoes the recommendation put forward by Agudo (2014) concerning the importance of influencing the beliefs of teachers at an early stage of their career since 'beliefs about L2 learning and teaching should become today a primary goal of L2 teacher education so as to improve second language pedagogy' (p.223). At an earlier stage of the training, Sally acknowledge the benefit of the practice component, as opposed to merely being introduced to theoretical knowledge, stating that 'back at college we sometimes read about interesting theories related to teaching but did not do any practice'. Such reservations on teachers' part concerning the limited or otherwise lack of benefit with regards exposure to theoretical input was also reported by participants in a number of investigations (e.g. Kamiya & Loewen, 2014; S. Borg, 2007; Rankin & Becker, 2006; Lo, 2005).

As for Malak, she further noted the benefit from the practice activities which were conducted prior to applying the newly introduced CF knowledge to her actual classroom practice, and drew a comparison with a training course she had recently completed which did not prioritize hands-on practice. In addition, despite being a novice teacher, Malak expressed her belief in the significance of OCF training;

interestingly, she referred in such a context to recent observations she had conducted of experienced teachers who still exhibited minimal familiarity with the various OCF techniques that she was introduced to during the training process. Such lack of familiarity, she believed, left them at times unable to deal with erroneous language production in a manner conducive to learners' benefit, a remark which coincided with the researcher's classroom observations at the preparation stages of the current investigation. Such observations question Van Manen's (1995) argument that experience and practice are the factors which come to teachers' aid in their time of need and guide them to suitable approaches in their teaching practice, as opposed to the role played by reflection. In addition, Malak made reference to the in-house teacher-training course she had recently completed in the institution where the current investigation was conducted which had no clear component focusing on how to deal with students' errors.

At this stage, I feel confident in claiming that a notable component of the training process was the inclusion of various reflective activities which engaged teachers in a continuous process of reflection on their teaching practice as well as on the training process; this is contrary to other investigations (e.g. Kubaniova, 2006) where a lack of reflective culture was suggested as a reason for no change occurring in teachers' practice following an in-service training course. Such confidence in the reflective process emerged as a result of both classroom observations and teachers' own reflections. A reflective practice appreciated by all five teachers was the stimulated recall activities, using both practice audio recordings and video recordings from

classroom observations, through which they reflected on their beliefs and use of OCF while reacting to students' oral errors. Swain (2006) underlines the role played by stimulated recalls stating that they 'should be understood as part of the learning process not just as a medium of data collection..... a process of comprehending and reshaping experience' (p.110). Such an approach to reflecting on beliefs and teaching practices is regarded as one of the strategies that could potentially change teachers' behaviours (Kennedy, 1999), since 'increased awareness through close and critical engagement with classroom data can be a catalyst for the re-evaluation of thinking and beliefs and for the development of alternative mode of instruction' (Burns, 1996, pp.169-170, cited in Kamiya, 2012, p.254). According to the teachers, the stimulated recall activities benefitted their practice by attracting their attention to several aspects of the provision of OCF. First, they considered the affective aspect of oral error correction in order not to discourage students from further classroom participation. Secondly, they took into account the possible ambiguity of the various OCF techniques they use in order to aid students in recognizing their corrective intent. Thirdly, they recognized the importance of providing what they believe are suitable OCF techniques based on the various stages of the lesson, whether the focus is accuracy or is geared towards communication and fluency. Analysis of the sub-types of elicitation provided by all teachers shows that marked elicitation (Appendix B), identified by more than one teacher as an OCF technique which might not disrupt the flow of a communicative activity, was provided 54% of the time (total number of elicitation moves= 214) throughout all the observed lessons. Finally, they

acknowledged the importance of reflecting on their performance, which might produce a reconstruction of their practice. This would allow them to attempt necessary changes during future classroom practice, hence employing a 'reflection-for-action' approach as advocated by Schön (1983, 1987). Thus, it could be suggested that the reflective activities incorporated in the training process encouraged the participating teachers to constantly reflect upon their provision of OCF, presenting them with the opportunity to become the 'reflective practitioner[s]' advocated by Schön (1991) and direly needed in L2 classrooms.

An issue put forward by three of the participants during several reflective activities is the use of non-verbal feedback as a means of eliciting the correct form from students. Such attention to this non-verbal form of error correction is not surprising since 'non-verbal behaviour is a natural and frequent classroom occurrence' (Kartchava, 2019, p.161) which 'play[s] an integral role in human interaction' (Nakatsukasa & Loewen, 2017, p.159) . Moreover, the fact that this 'under-researched topic of paralinguistic signals' (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p.3) was of interest to three teachers with varying teaching experience sheds light on its importance. It has been argued that paralinguistic signals lie towards the explicit end of the CF continuum (Nakatsukasa & Loewen, 2017; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Sheen & Ellis, 2011; Davies, 2006), which promotes their role as out-prompting feedback strategies (Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Sato (2019) further highlights the potential role of non-verbal feedback concerning classroom teaching and learners' language development. Since learners may face difficulties recognizing the

corrective intent behind feedback, Sato suggests that non-verbal cues are a useful technique at teachers' disposal to facilitate students' noticing. Such explicitness and potential for pushed output is reflected in the current investigation through the success of most non-verbal signals provided by the teachers following a spoken error in inducing some form of uptake/repair on the students' part. This indicates a need for further investigation into this recurring phenomenon and the role it plays during classroom interaction.

5.4 Students' Beliefs Regarding the Use of OCF Following the Training Process

The post-intervention focus group meetings highlighted a shift in some students' beliefs from what they had expressed in the pre-intervention meetings, as well as an exhibited awareness on students' part regarding their teachers' various OCF practices in the classroom. A change concerning the importance of interaction in the language classroom was evident for some students. The voiced reasons for such a shift were along the lines of: 1) how students benefited from teachers pushing them to self-correct, i.e. the use of elicitation moves, 2) how they developed a sense of willingness to participate, as opposed to a general attitude put forward during the pre-intervention meeting of refraining from participation in classroom interaction because their teachers used to 'embarrass them', and 3) how teachers seemed to project an attitude of inclusion through paying equal attention to all students, fostering students' motivation and confidence in the importance of participation. Such reasons suggest a need for students to perceive a potential benefit for

classroom interaction, as well as shedding light on the significance of the affective aspect when dealing with students and their errors.

Students also demonstrated an understanding with respect to the OCF techniques provided in class, making a distinction between input providing, recasts, and output prompting, elicitation, corrective techniques. Such capability to perceive the OCF techniques juxtaposes with the inability of most students during the pre-intervention meetings to articulate forms of OCF from their past learning experience. This developed awareness was also evident when the majority of students emphasized the benefits of being pushed by their teachers to self-correct. Similar preferences for an opportunity to modify language output were projected in other FL contexts by Australian students studying Japanese as a FL (Yoshida, 2008), and Egyptian students studying French as a FL (Mohamed, 2011, cited in Kartchava, 2016); suggesting the need of FL students to self-correct since the language classroom provides the primary opportunity for learning and language development. A few other students in the current investigation, whose teacher, Dalila, mostly resorted to recasts, expressed their preferences for a more student-centered approach to error correction during which their teacher would encourage them to modify their language output. Such preferences for self-correction might support Kartchava's (2016) argument that 'it is possible that provision of CF, or lack thereof, can shape one's opinion about the ways in which feedback should be supplied' (p.32). It could be argued that the various stages of the training process have guided teachers towards a more focused approach to correction of spoken

errors. This might have eventually enhanced a newly developed awareness on students' part of the role played by various OCF techniques during classroom interaction with their teachers.

The affective dimension of oral error correction and the teachers' role in either encouraging or demotivating students was underlined during all meetings. Participants agreed that the teachers' attitude was an essential factor in their acceptance of and benefit from OCF. The comparisons students drew with other classes they attended and other teachers' attitudes point to a different learning environment in the observed language classrooms, one that is more tolerant of errors and perceives them as a natural component of IL development. One of the comments that best described how students view their teacher's corrective practice is, 'when she corrects us we feel good about it because she wants us to learn.... this make us want to learn and be better in the language' (Student D-1). Another comment highlighted the difference between the attitude of one of the participating teachers and attitudes of some teachers in other courses, 'We need to feel that it ok to make errors.... We shouldn't be attack or humiliate for it.... some other teachers... make us feel stupid... I don't listen in the lesson and feel like not learning' (Student B-3). This draws attention to 'how we as tutors can best promote learner motivation through what we do' (Klapper, 2006, p.85), by means of 'create[ing] a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom' (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p.215).

The issue of 'feedback discrimination', which also has an affective dimension, was underlined and some students drew a link to what they had expressed in the pre-intervention meetings, highlighting how different their teacher's approach was from what they had experienced before. It was evident that students felt encouraged when noticing that teachers were equally attentive to correcting errors made by all students; it gave them a sense of worthiness as active participants in the classroom. The affective dimension was also raised in relation to using humour when correcting oral errors, through the teacher saying 'something funny' or 'using...face and hands' in order to spread a feeling of acceptance of errors. The benefits of such an approach might eventually diminish the apprehension students usually have regarding making errors when speaking in an L2. All of the above points shed light on the importance of fostering a feeling of acceptance of errors in the language classroom as a means of IL development. For some of the participating teachers, the significance of the affective dimension was apparent and repeatedly highlighted as early as the pre-intervention interviews and observations; for others, they expressed that one of the benefits of the training process was fostering their beliefs in, and raising their awareness to, the importance of paying attention to the affective dimension of error correction. In both cases, the importance of introducing teachers to various OCF techniques and training them on the use of such techniques might prove essential for both students' motivation and learning benefits.

A preference for a more focused approach to error correction was evident for the majority of students. They pointed to how their teachers mainly paid attention to

the focus of the lesson when providing OCF, an approach which they praised for both maintaining their self-confidence and enhancing their benefit. What these outcomes make evident is that teachers' classroom practices can possibly influence students' beliefs, especially if the latter discern the rationale and the benefit, for themselves as learners, from such practices. Another issue which might support the claim that the teachers' practices affect students' beliefs, is the latter's assertion that OCF should focus on exam related items, stating how their teachers mainly corrected oral errors that related to the focus of the lesson, which would eventually be included in the exams. Other investigations in various settings with students of different proficiency levels have also reported a preference for a more selective approach to correction of oral errors, for fear that too much feedback might inhibit their willingness to participate in classroom interaction (e.g. Kartchava, 2016; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). However, a main point of interest in the current investigation is the shift for some students from preferring a broader approach to correction during the pre-intervention focus group discussions, to the more focused approach highlighted above.

During the discussions, a shift was recognized in some students' beliefs regarding the role of peer-correction during oral classroom interaction, highlighting the benefits of such correction. It is true that such an issue was not dealt with on a significant scale in the current investigation; however, such a change in perception following the training process, even for a small number of students, proposes that teachers developed a more informed approach to OCF. It suggests that pushing

students to self-correct, which was the more prevalent technique for the majority of participating teachers, and allowing them a chance for uptake and repair, enables students to recognize the potential benefit of peer-correction, along with self-correction, when an opportunity presented itself.

5.5 Conclusion

For language learners, the importance of discovering what is acceptable and unacceptable in a target language has become a 'pivotal condition for a positive outgrowth of corrective feedback on L2 development' (Kim, 2004, p. 19). Hence, we recognize the growing importance of examining the occurrences of such an integral phenomenon during teacher-student interaction in the language classroom. A fundamental aspect of studying CF use in the language classroom is exploring teachers' and learners' beliefs regarding error correction. The current investigation explored students' beliefs prior to and following an eight-week training process which focused on the use of OCF in the language classroom.

A constant belief for students, from the pre to the post intervention focus group meetings, is the benefit derived from OCF in the language classroom. A clear distinction, however, is the students' ability to articulate the forms of OCF used by their teachers throughout the course of the intervention, as opposed to their inability to recall distinctive OCF techniques used during their past experience as language learners. In line with de Bot's (1996) argument concerning the benefit of students producing the corrective form following OCF, as opposed to being directly

provided with the correction, and similar to identified learner preferences from different language learning contexts (e.g. Kartchava, 2016; Yoshida, 2010; Yoshida, 2008), students in the current investigation were consistent in their preference for the use of elicitation moves, over recasts, that pushed them to modify their non-target like production, exhibiting an awareness of the difference between both OCF techniques as input providing and output prompting.

An apparent shift for students following the intervention is stating that their teachers' provision of OCF should be centered on the focus of the lesson, echoing what was occurring in their language classrooms. This is contrary to what Li (2017) states following a review of several investigations focusing on teachers' and students' beliefs regarding the use of OCF: 'in terms of whether CF should only focus on preselected linguistic structures: students declined the idea but teachers tended to be less dismissive' (Lee, 2017, p.151). Such an outcome of the current investigation might be seen to advocate the impact of teaching practices on students' beliefs regarding IL development.

The importance of the affective aspect with relation to the teachers' provision of OCF was a recurrent theme in pre and post intervention focus group meetings. On the one hand, although provision of CF 'may be deemed necessary...it is also seen as potentially dangerous because it can damage learners' receptivity to learning' (R. Ellis, 2013, p.3); students' accounts of past experience highlight how susceptible they are to getting demotivated following the provision of OCF. On the other hand,

students' comments regarding their teachers' approach to the correction of oral errors during the course of the intervention shed light on the significance of OCF, which was provided 'in an atmosphere of support and warm solidarity' (Ur, 1996, p. 255, cited in R. Ellis, 2013).

As regards teachers' beliefs and practice, the influence of the 'apprenticeship of observation' with relation to correction of oral errors was manifested prior to the intervention through teachers' reflection on their classroom practice, which they associated with their past learning experience. Of interest is that such a lasting influence of past learning experience extended from the least experienced teacher, Malak, to the most experienced, Dalila, presenting support to S. Borg's (2009b) argument that the 'apprenticeship of observation' is not limited to the initial concepts that inexperienced teachers have about teaching. This is further corroborated by results from Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study, where previous language-learning experiences of both pre-service and experienced teachers had a strong influence on their views regarding CF. Such an outcome of the present investigation manifests the importance of encouraging teachers to reflect on past learning experiences with the aim of positively impacting current and future teaching practices.

The importance of maintaining a positive affective atmosphere when providing CF was raised by teachers during the pre-intervention interviews with a focus of attending to learners' feelings. The participants' arguments ranged between limiting

OCF in order not to embarrass students and using recasts, a more face-saving form of OCF. Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2016) state that 'Although...attending to learners' feelings is very well appreciated (McAllister and Irvine 2002), language teachers may in practice need to consider more fully the cognitive factors involved in the range of oral feedback options' (p.497). The training process incorporated in the current investigation addressed such a recommendation; teachers were encouraged to consider various forms of CF through a newly introduced knowledge about oral feedback techniques, followed by practice of and reflection on the use of such techniques to better inform their provision of OCF in the language classroom. This helped teachers attend to both the cognitive and the affective dimensions of error correction, specifically advocating the benefits of elicitation for requiring 'more cognitive involvement from learners..... [and] promot[ing] effective learning' (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2016. p.495), as well as using it more frequently while attending to oral errors.

Burton (2009) credits transformation in the perceptions of the reflective teacher to the re-examination of the data gathered from pedagogical practices. Thus, the systematic reflective component within the training process played an important role in developing teachers' understanding of their provision of OCF, allowing them to 'critique [their] teaching and make better-informed teaching decisions' (Burton, 2009, p.298). That is to say that incorporating reflection and action throughout the course of the intervention possibly induced 'critical evaluations of [the teachers'] pedagogical practices, which resulted in reconstruction and reconceptualization of

[their] ... patterns in provision of oral error correction' (Shafiee, Nejadghanbar & Parsaiyan, 2018, p.27). Moreover, students' accounts during the post intervention meetings indicate a potential success of the training process in yielding OCF practices which support learners' expectations, an outcome contrary to what was reported by Junqueira and Kim (2013) and Mackey, Polio and McDonough (2004).

5.6 Limitations and Recommendations

- Each of the three cycles in the current investigation lasted for eight weeks; it might be argued that such a span of time is not sufficient to evaluate changes in teachers' beliefs and practices since Rankin and Becker (2006) state that change following some form of teacher training needs to be 'processed and filtered through layers of experience and belief' (p.366). Therefore, future investigations might consider a more longitudinal design as to examine the possible long-term benefits of CF training.
- As Gurzynski-Weiss (2016) states 'CF episodes [are] available for analysis in grammar lessons compared to those targeting content or vocabulary' (p.259). Since the observed lessons in the current investigation, despite employing a communicative teaching approach, had a primary focus on form, they presented a suitable medium for the provision of OCF and for students to recognize its corrective intent. Further research is warranted focusing on other learning objectives to examine both the teachers provision of OCF and students' noticing of the corrective intent.

- Methodologically, the current investigation utilized one camera at the back of the classroom to ensure minimal interference with the flow of the lesson; however, this proved unable to capture the teachers' CF to students when they were engaged in pair work. Future studies would do well to use more than one camera for recording, or to pin a personal recording device on to the teacher.
- Conducting similar research with students of different proficiency levels would yield a broader picture of beliefs concerning OCF in the classroom. Outcomes of such investigations would further inform teachers' approaches to the provision of OCF and better feed into the training process, since 'there is evidence that learners of different proficiencies tend to differ in the types of CF strategies they prefer and see as beneficial' (Kartchava, 2016, p.35).
- Students' uptake and repair are the measure employed in the current investigation for noticing OCF. As Long (1996) inquires whether the 'observed short-term benefits ofincorporations of corrective feedback [are] indicative of genuine long term IL development?' (p.453), further investigations are warranted to examine whether modified output following the oral error correction can have a lasting impact on students' IL development.
- The area of 'paralinguistic signals' with regards the provision of CF was not a focus of the current investigation; however, analysis of the data suggests the need for further investigation that sheds direct light on the role of non-verbal

feedback during classroom interaction. Although a number of investigations have concluded that 'non-verbal features' are important characteristics to reckon with in relation to the effectiveness of CF (Nakatsukasa & Loewen, 2017), this is an area which remains under-researched to a certain extent (Sato, 2019; Nakatsukasa & Loewen, 2017). Based on the significance of this field of research, several areas of study could be proposed for future investigation. One area, which is of direct interest to the current investigation, is exploring the benefits of focusing on non-verbal feedback in teacher training programmes (Nakatsukasa, 2016) and examining its influence on teachers' classroom performance.

- Teachers' feedback concerning the effects of OCF training presents a substantial argument for its inclusion as a component in teacher training programmes. The current outcomes further corroborate findings and recommendations of previous research (Agudo, 2014; Kamiya & Loewen, 2014; Vasquez & Harvey, 2010; Numrich, 1996) that teachers with diverse experience could possibly benefit from some form of training on the correction of oral errors during classroom interaction. Hence, teacher educators in training programs should consider providing teachers with the support needed regarding how to deal with oral errors in the language classroom. Based on the current outcomes, such support would be useful through employing both practice and reflective components. Furthermore, the benefits of the reflective practice employed in this study indicates that

integrating systematic reflection in teacher training maintains teachers' awareness of their teaching practice. Thus, 'encouraging reflective practice among pre- and in-service teachers as a systematic practice assists individual teachers to evaluate and reexamine their.....instructional concerns' (Shafiee, Nejadghanbar & Parsaiyan, 2018, p.26) and could present the chance for continuous professional development that has a substantial and practical benefit for both teachers and students.

References

- Abdel Latif, M. M. (2012). Teaching a standard-based communicative textbook series to secondary students in Egypt: Investigating teachers' practices and beliefs. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, 11(3), pp. 78-97.
<http://education.waikato.ac.nz/research/files/etpc/files/2012v11n3art5.pdf>
- Abd Majid, F. (2008). Culture and Learner Beliefs: A Study of Three Malay Postgraduate Students. *Asian Journal of University Education*, 3(1), pp. 127-142.
- Agudo, J. (2014). Beliefs in learning to teach: EFL student teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. *Utrecht Studies in Language and Communication*, pp. 27, 209–362.
- Agudo, J. (2015). How do Spanish EFL learners perceive grammar instruction and corrective feedback? *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 33(4), pp. 411–425.
- Algarawi, B. S. (2010). The effects of repair techniques on L2 learning as a product and as process: A CA-for-SLA investigation of classroom interaction. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Newcastle Upon Tyne.
- Aljaafreh, A. & J. Lantolf (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(4), pp. 465–483.
- Allen, P., Swain, M., Harley, B. & Cummins, J. (1990). Aspects of classroom treatment: Toward a more comprehensive view of second language education. In B. Harley, P. Allen, J. Cummins & M. Swain (Eds.), *The development of second language proficiency* (pp.57-81). Cambridge University Press.
- Allison, J., Townend, J. & Emmerson, P. (2013). *The Business 2.0 Upper-Intermediate*. Macmillan Education.
- Amador, Y. A. (2008). Learner attitudes toward error correction in beginners English Class. *Revista Comunicacion*, 29(1), pp. 18-28.
<https://doi.org/10.18845/rc.v17i1.903>
- Ammar, A. & Sato, M. (2010). Corrective feedback, noticing, and individual differences: Exploration into their relationship with second language acquisition. *Paper presented at the annual conference of Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics*, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.
- Ammar, A. & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, pp. 543-574.

- Anderson, J. R. (1985). *Cognitive Psychology and Its Implications*. San Francisco, CA: Freeman.
- Ancker, W. (2000). Errors and corrective feedback: Updated theory and classroom practice. *English Teaching Forum*, 8(4), pp. 20-25.
- Atay, D. (2008). Teacher research for professional development. *ELT Journal*, 62 (2), pp. 139-147. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccl053>
- Austin, J. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Avalos, B. (2011) Teacher professional development in teaching and teacher education over ten years. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(1), pp. 10–20.
- Bailey, K. M. (1996). The best laid plans: Teachers' in-class decisions to depart from their lesson plans. In K. M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp. 15-40). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Bailey, K. D. (2007). *Methods of Social Research*. 5th edn. New York: The Free Press.
- Bailey, K. M. et. al (1996). The language learner's autobiography: examining the "apprenticeship of observation". In Freeman, D. and Richards, J. C. (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 11-29). Cambridge University Press.
- Bailey, K. M. & Nunan, D. (1996). *Voices from the language classroom: qualitative research in second language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Baleghizadeh, S. & Rezaei, S. (2010). Pre-service teacher cognition on corrective feedback: A case study. *Journal of Technology & Education* 4 (4), pp. 321–327.
- Bangert-Drowns, R. L., Kulik, C. C., Kulik, J. A., & Morgan, M. T. (1991). The instructional effect of feedback in test-like events. *Review of Educational Research*, 61(2), pp. 213-238.
- Barcelos, A. M. F. (2003). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. In P. Kalaja & A.M.F. Barcelos (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 7-33). Springer.
- Barcelos, A.M.F. & Kalaja, P. (2011). Introduction to beliefs about SLA revisited. *System*, 39(3), pp. 281-289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.07.001>
- Basturkmen, H. (2012). Review of research into the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices. *System*, 40, pp. 282–295.

- Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S. & Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 25, pp. 243-72.
- Beckett, D. (1996). Critical judgment and professional practice. *Educational Theory*, 46, pp. 135-149. doi:10.1111/j.1741-5446.1996.00135.x
- Bell, T. (2005). Behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers: Results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38(2), pp. 259-270.
- Benson, P. & Lor, W. (1999). Conceptions of language and language learning. *System*, 27, pp. 459-72.
- Bernat, E. & Gvozdenko, I. (2005). Beliefs about language learning: Current knowledge, pedagogical implications, and new research directions. *TESL-EJ*, 9, pp. 1-21.
- Blaxter, L., Hughes, C. & Tight, M. (2010). *How to Research*. 4th edn. McGraw-Hill.
- Black, P. & Wiliam, D. (2006). Assessment for learning in the classroom. In *Assessment and Learning* (pp.9-25). SAGE publications.
- Black, P. et al. (2004). Working inside the Black Box: Assessment for Learning in the Classroom. *Phi Delta Kappan Magazine*, 86(1), pp.8-21.
- Borg, M. (2001). Teachers' beliefs. *English Teaching Journal*, 55, pp. 186-88.
- Borg, M. (2005). A cases study of the development in pedagogic thinking of a pre-service teacher. *TESL-EJ*, 9(2), pp. 1-30.
- Borg, S. (1999a). The use of grammatical terminology in the second language classroom: A qualitative study of teachers' practices and cognitions. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(1), pp. 95-126.
- Borg, S. (1999c). Studying teacher cognition in second language grammar teaching. *System*, 27, pp. 19-31.
- Borg, S. (2003a). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, 36(2), pp. 81-109. doi: 10.1017/s0261444803001903
- Borg, S. (2007). Research engagement in English language teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(5), pp.731-747.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.03.012>

- Borg, S. (2009b). Language teacher cognition. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 163-171). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, 39(3), pp. 370-380. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2011.07.009
- Boroujeni, F.A. (2012). Investigating controversies in teaching grammar: A case for the Iranian high school students. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(8), pp. 1570-1575.
- Braidi, S. M. (1995). Reconsidering the role of interaction and input in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 45, pp. 141-175.
- Braidi, S.M. (2002). Reexamining the role of recasts in native-speaker/nonnative-speaker interactions. *Language learning*, 52(1), pp.1-42.
- Breen, M.P., Hird, B., Milton, M., Oliver, R. & Thwaite, A. (2001). Making sense of language teaching: Teachers' principles and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, pp. 470-501.
- Brinkman, S. & Kvale, S. (2005). Confronting the ethics of qualitative research. *Journal of Constructivist Psychology*, 19(2), pp. 157-181.
- Brown, A. V. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(1), pp. 46-60.
- Brown, C. A., & Cooney, T. J. (1982). Research on teacher education: A philosophical orientation. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 15(4), pp. 13-18.
- Brown, D. (2016). The type and linguistic foci of oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(4), pp.436-458. DOI: 10.1177/1362168814563200
- Brown, H.D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Pearson Education.
- Burton, J. (2009). Reflective practice. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.) *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp.298-308). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Busch, D. (2010). Pre-service teacher beliefs about language learning: The second language acquisition course as an agent for change. *Language Teaching Research*,

14(3), pp. 318-337. doi: 10.1177/1362168810365239.

Cabaroglu, N. & Robers, J. (2000). Development in student teachers' pre-existing beliefs during a 1-year PGCE programme. *System*, 28, pp. 387-402.

Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second-language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1 (1), pp. 1-47.

Carnap, R. C. (1936) Testability and meaning. *Philosophy of Science*, 3(4), pp.419-471.

Carpenter, H., Jeon, S., MacGregor, D. & Mackey, A. (2006). Recasts as repetitions: Learners' interpretations of native speaker responses. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28(2), pp. 209–236.

Carr, W. (1987). What is an educational practice? *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, 21(2), pp. 163-175.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z. & Thurrell, S. (1997). Direct approaches in L2 instruction: A turning point in communicative language teaching? *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(1), pp. 141-152.

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

Chenoweth, N. A., Day, R.R., Chun, A.E. & Luppescu, S. (1983). Attitudes and preferences of ESL students to error correction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 6, pp. 79-87.

Clark, C. M. (1988). Asking the right questions about teacher preparation: Contributions of research on teacher thinking. *Educational Researcher*, 17(2), pp. 5-12. doi: 10.3102/0013189x017002005

Clough, P. & Nutbrown, C. (2002). *A Student's Guide to Methodology: Justifying Enquiry*. SAGE.

Coburn, J. (2016). *The professional development of English language teachers: Investigating the design and impact of a national in-service EFL teacher education course*. PhD dissertation, Faculty of Education and Natural Sciences, Hamar.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods in Education*. 7th edn. London: Routledge.

- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research Methods in Education*. 8th edn. London: Routledge.
- Council of Europe (2011). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, p. Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Council of Europe. Available on http.p./www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/cadre1_en.asp
- Crandall, J. J. (2000). Language teacher education. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20, pp. 34-55.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 4th edn. London: Sage.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The Foundations of Social Research*. London: Sage.
- Darwish, H. (2016). Teachers' attitudes and techniques towards EFL writing in Egyptian secondary schools. *International Journal for 21st Century Education*, 3(1), pp. 37-57.
<https://www.uco.es/servicios/ucopress/ojs/index.php/ij21ce/article/view/5646/5316>
- David, M. (2002) Problems of participation: The limits of action research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 5(1), pp. 11–17.
- Davies, M. (2006). Paralinguistic focus on form. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(4), pp. 841–855.
- Davis, A. (2003). Teachers' and students' beliefs regarding aspects of language learning. *Evaluation & Research in Education*, 17(4), pp. 207–222.
- Day, C. (1993). Reflection: A necessary but not sufficient condition for professional development. *British Educational Research Journal*, 19(1), pp. 83-93.
- De Bot, K. (1996). The psycholinguistics of the output hypothesis. *Language Learning*, 46(3), pp. 529-555.
- Denzin, N. & Lincoln, Y. (2003). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials*, pp. 1-46. London: Sage.
- Dewey, J. (1997- originally published in 1910). *How We Think*. NY: Dover Publications.
- Dong, Z. (2012). *Beliefs and practices: A case study on oral corrective feedback in the teaching Chinese as a foreign language (TCFL) classroom*. MA thesis, Arizona State

University, US.

- Donna, S. (2005). *Teach Business English. Cambridge Handbooks for Language Teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Doughty, C. (1999). The cognitive underpinnings of focus on form. *University of Hawai'i Working Papers in ESL*, 18, pp. 1-69.
- Doughty, C. (1991). L2 instruction does make a difference: Evidence from an empirical study of L2 relativisation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, pp. 431-469.
- Doughty, C. & Pica, T. (1986). Information gap tasks: Do they facilitate second language acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 305-325.
- Doughty, C. & Williams, J. (1998). Pedagogical choices in focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 197- 261). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dudley-Evans, T. & St John, M. (1998). *Developments in ESP: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ebbutt, D. (1985). Educational action research: Some general concerns and specific quibbles. In R. B es (Ed.) *Issues in Educational Research: Qualitative Methods*, pp. 152-74. Lewes: Falmer.
- Egi, T. (2007b). Interpreting recasts as linguistic evidence: The roles of linguistic target, length, and degree of change. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 29, pp. 511-537.
- El-Fekey, S.F. & Mohamad, M.S. (2018). The relationship between graduates' perceived employability attributes and employability gap in Egypt: The moderating roles of core self-evaluation and university branding. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 13(4), pp. 158-172.
- Ellis, N. (1993). Rules and instances in foreign language learning: Interactions of implicit and explicit knowledge. *European Journal of Cognitive Psychology*, 5, pp. 289-319.
- Ellis, R. (1991). *The Interaction Hypothesis: A Critical Evaluation*. Paper presented at the Regional Language Center Seminar, Singapore, April 22-28, 1991.
- Ellis, R. (1999). *Learning a second language through interaction* (Studies in

- Bilingualism 17). John Benjamins Publishing.
- Ellis, R. (2001). Introduction: Investigating form-focused instruction. *Language Learning*, 51 (Supplement 1), pp. 1-4.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Researching the effects of form-focused instruction on L2 acquisition. *AILA Review*, 19, pp. 18-41.
- Ellis, R. (2008). Learner Beliefs and Language Learning. *Asian EFL Journal*, 10 (4), pp. 7-25. Conference Proceedings.
- Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective Feedback and Teacher Development. *L2 Journal*, 1(1), 3-18. <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/2504d6w3>
- Ellis, R. (2012). *Language Teaching Research and Language Pedagogy*. Oxford: Wiley Blackwell.
- Ellis, R. (2013). Corrective feedback in teacher guides and SLA. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 1(3), pp.1-18.
- Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H. & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, 51, pp. 281-318.
- Ellis, R. & He, X. (1999). The roles of modified input and output in the incidental acquisition of word meanings. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition*, 21, pp. 285- 301.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S. & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, pp. 339-368.
- Ellis, R. & Y. Sheen (2006). Reexamining the role of recasts in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28 (4), pp. 575-600.
- Eraut, M. (1995a). Schön Shock: a case for refraining reflection-in-action? *Teachers and teaching: Theory and Practice*, 1(1), pp. 9-22.
Doi:org.ezproxy.cardiffmet.ac.uk/10.1080/1354060950010102
- Eraut, M. (2004). The Practice of Reflection. *Learning in Health and Social Care*, 3 (2), pp. 47-52.
- Erlam, R. & Loewen, S. (2010). Implicit and explicit recasts in L2 oral French interaction. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 67(4), pp. 877-905.
- Esmaili, F. & Behnam, B (2014). A study of corrective feedback and learner's uptake in classroom interactions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics &*

- English Literature*, 3 (4), pp. 204-212. ISSN 2200-3452 (Online)
- Fang, Z. H. (1996). A review of teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research*, 38, pp. 47-65.
- Farrar, M. (1990). Discourse and the acquisition of grammatical morphemes. *Journal of Child Language*, 17 (3), pp. 607-62.
- Farrar, M. (1992). Negative evidence and grammatical morpheme acquisition. *Developmental Psychology*, 28 (1), pp. 90-98.
- Farrell, T. S. C. & Lim, P. C. P. (2005). Conceptions of grammar teaching: A case study of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. *TESL-EJ*, 9 (2), pp. 1-13.
- Fazilatfar, A.M., Damavandi, R.R., Sani, R.H. & Heirati, J.K. (2015). Learners' belief changes about language learning. *International Journal of English Language Education*, 3(1), pp. 1-19. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ijelev.v3i1.6654>
- Foto, S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar consciousness raising tasks. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), pp. 323-351.
- Fu, T. & Nassaji, H. (2016). Corrective feedback, learner uptake, and feedback perception in a Chinese as a foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 6, pp. 161-183. doi: 10.14746/ssllt.2016.6.1.8
- Gage, N. L. (1989). The paradigm wars and their aftermath. *Educational Researcher*, 18 (7), pp. 4-10.
- Gass, S. M. (1988). Integrating research areas: a framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, pp. 198-217.
- Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224-255). Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Gass, S. & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Routledge.
- Gass, S. M. & Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An Introduction* (pp. 175 - 199). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Gass, S.M., Mackey, A. & Pica, T. (1998). The role of input and interaction in second language acquisition: Introduction to the special issue. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(3), pp. 299-307.
- Gass, S., Mackey, A. & Ross-Feldman, L. (2005). Task-based interactions in classroom and laboratory settings. *Language Learning*, 55, pp. 575-611.
- Ghaye, T. (2010). *Teaching and learning through reflective practice: A practical guide for positive action*. Routledge.
- Gilakjani, A.P. & Sabouri, N.B. (2017). Teachers' beliefs in English language teaching and learning: A review of the literature. *English Language Teaching*, 10(4), pp .78-86. DOI: 10.5539/elt.v10n4p78
- Ginsburg, M. (2010). Improving educational quality through active-learning pedagogies: A comparison of five case studies. *Educational Research*, 1(3), pp. 62-74. <http://www.interesjournals.org/full-articles/improving-educational-quality-through-active-learning-pedagogies-a-comparison-of-five-case-studies.pdf?view=inline>
- Ginsburg, M. & Megahed, N. (2011). Globalization and the reform of faculties of education in Egypt: The roles of individual and organizational, national and international actors. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 19 (15), pp. 1-29 Retrieved [02/11/2017], from <http://epaa.asu.edu/ojs/article/view/795>
- Goo, J. & Mackey, A. (2013). The case against the case against recasts. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 35(1), pp. 127-165. doi:10.1017/S0272263112000708
- Grix, J. (2010). *The Foundations of Research*. 2nd edn. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1989). *Fourth Generation Evaluation*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Guba, E. G. & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, pp. 105-117. London: Sage.
- Gurzynski-Weiss, L. K. (2010). *Factors influencing oral corrective feedback provision in the Spanish foreign language classroom: Investigating instructor native/nonnative speaker status, second language acquisition education, & teaching experience*. PhD. Georgetown University, US.

- Gurzynski-Weiss, L. (2016) Factors influencing Spanish instructors' in-class feedback decisions. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100, pp. 255-275.
doi:10.1111/modl.12314
- Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 8(3), pp. 381-391.
- Hall, S. (1996). Reflexivity in emancipatory action research: Illustrating the researcher's constitutiveness. In O.Zuber-Skerritt (Ed.) *New Directions in Action Research* (pp. 26-48). London: Falmer.
- Han, Z-H. (2002a). Rethinking of corrective feedback in communicative language teaching. *RELC Journal*, 33, pp. 1-33.
- Hargreaves, A. (1994). *Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers' work and culture in the postmodern age*. London: Teachers College Press.
- Havranek, G. (2002). When is corrective feedback most likely to succeed? *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37(3-4), pp. 255-270.
- Head, K. & Taylor, P. (1997). *Readings in Teacher Development*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Hendrickson, J. M. (1978). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 62(8), pp. 387-398.
- Hoekje, B. (1999). Teacher conversations as professional socialization. *Journal of Intensive English Studies*, 13, Spring/Fall, pp. 1-18.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), pp. 283-294.
- Horwitz, E. K. (1999). Cultural and situational influences on foreign language learners' beliefs about language learning: a review of BALLI studies. *System*, 27(4), pp. 557-576.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 70, pp. 125-132.
- Howatt, A. P. R. (1984). *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hsiao-Ching, S. (2000) The interplay of a biology teacher's beliefs, teaching practices and gender-based student-teacher classroom interaction, *Educational Research*, 42(1), pp. 100-111, DOI: 10.1080/001318800363953

- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purposes: A learner centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds.). *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth, Middx: Penguin.
- Ibrahim, M. K. & Ibrahim, Y. A. (2017). Communicative English Language Teaching in Egypt: Classroom Practice and Challenges. *Issues in Educational Research*, 27(2), pp. 285-313.
- Jafarigohar, M. & Gharbavi, A. (2014). Recast or Prompt: Which One Does the Trick? *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, pp. 695-703.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.470>. (<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042814025610>)
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Jean, G. & Simard, D. (2011). Grammar teaching and learning in L2: Necessary, but boring? *Foreign Language Annals*, 44(3), pp. 467–494.
- Johansson, I., Sandberg, A. & Vuorinen, T. (2007). Practitioner-oriented research as a tool for professional development. *European Early Childhood Education Research Journal*, 15 (2), pp. 151-166. doi: 10.1080 13502930701321782
- John-Steiner, V. & Mahn, H. (1996). Sociocultural approaches to learning and development: A Vygotskian framework. *Educational Psychologist*, 31(3-4), pp. 19-206.
- Junqueira, L. & Kim, Y. (2013). Exploring the relationship between training, beliefs, and teachers' corrective feedback practices: A case study of a novice and an experienced ESL teacher. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69(2), pp. 181–206.
- Kamiya, N. (2012). *The relationship between stated beliefs, classroom practices, and reading research studies of oral corrective feedback in four ESL teachers*. PhD. Michigan State University
- Kamiya, N. (2014). The relationship between stated beliefs and classroom practices of oral corrective feedback. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 10 (3), pp. 206-219. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2014.939656>.
- Kamiya, N. & Loewen, S. (2014). The influence of academic articles on an ESL teacher's stated beliefs. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 8(3), pp. 205–218.

- Karnieli-Miller, O., Strier, R. & Pessach, L. (2009). Power relations in qualitative research. *Qualitative Health Research*, 19(2), pp. 279-289.
- Kartchava, E. (2006). *Corrective feedback: Novice ESL teachers' beliefs and practices*. MA thesis, Concordia University, Canada.
- Kartchava, E. (2012). *Noticeability of corrective feedback, L2 development and learner beliefs*. PhD, University of Montréal.
- Kartchava, E. (2016). Learners' beliefs about corrective feedback in the language classroom: Perspectives from two international contexts. *TESL Canada Journal*, 33(2), pp. 19-45. <http://dx.doi.org/1018806/tesl.v33i2.1233>
- Kartchava, E. (2019). *Noticing Oral Corrective Feedback in the Second Language Classroom: Background and Evidence*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishing.
- Kartchava, E., Gatbonton, E., Ammar, A. & Trofimovich, P. (2018). Oral corrective feedback: Pre-service English as a second language teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research*, pp. 1-30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818787546>
- Kelly, A. V. (2009). *The Curriculum: Theory and Practice*. London: Sage.
- Kennedy, D. (1999). The foreign trainer as change agent and implications for teacher education programmes in China. In C. Kennedy, P. Doyle & C. Goh (Eds.), *Exploring change in English language teaching*. Oxford, UK: Macmillan Heinemann.
- Kennedy, M. M. (1990). *Policy issues in teacher education* National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. East Lansing: Michigan State University.
- Kennedy, M. M. (1991). *An agenda for research on teacher learning* National Center for Research on Teacher Learning. East Lansing: Michigan State University.
- Kern, R. G. (1995). Students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, 28, pp. 71-92.
- Khader, F. R. (2012). Teachers' pedagogical beliefs and actual classroom practices in social studies instruction. *American International Journal of Contemporary Research*, 2(1), pp. 73-92.
- Klapper, J. (2006). *Understanding and Developing Good Practice: Teaching Languages in Higher Education*. CILT, the National Centre for Languages.

- Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as a Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Koshy, V. (2005). *Action Research for Improving Practice a Practical Guide*. London: Chapman Publishing.
- Koshy, V. (2010). *Action Research for Improving Educational Practice*. 2nd edn. London: Sage.
- Kozma, R. B. (2005). National policies that connect ICT-based education reform to economic and social development. *Human Technology*, 1(2), pp. 117-159.
- Kozma, R. B. & Bangert-Drowns, R. L. (1987). *Design in context: A conceptual framework for the study of computer software in higher education*. ED287436
- Kramsch, C. (2003). Metaphor and the subjective construction of beliefs. In P. Kalaja & A.M.F. Barcelos (Eds). *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 109-128). Springer.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S.D. (1985). *The Input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd.
- Kubanyiova, M. (2006). Developing a motivational teaching practice in EFL teachers in Slovakia: Challenges of promoting teacher change in EFL contexts. *TESL-EJ*, 10(2), pp. 1-17.
- Lamie, J. M. (2004). Presenting a model of change. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(2), pp. 115-142.
- Lantolf, P. J. & Thorne, S. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition. In B. Van Patten & J. Williams (Eds) *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 197-221). Erlbaum.
- Lasagabaster, D. & Sierra, J.M. (2005). Error correction: Students' versus teachers' perceptions. *Language awareness*, 14(2-3), pp. 112-127.
- Lasagabaster, D & Sierra, J.M. (2011). Classroom observation: desirable conditions established by teachers. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(4), pp. 449-463. DOI: 10.1080/02619768.2011.587113

- Lee, E. (2013). Corrective feedback preferences and learner repair among advanced ESL students. *System*, 41(2), pp. 217–230.
- Legutke, M. K. & Ditfurth, M. S. (2009). School-based experience. In A. Burns & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 209-217). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Leung, C. & Scarino, A. (2016). Reconceptualizing the nature of goals and outcomes in language/s education. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(S1), pp. 81-95. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/modl.12300>
- Li, S. (2010). The effectiveness of corrective feedback in SLA: A meta-Analysis. *Language Learning*, 60(2), pp. 309–365.
- Li, S. (2017). Teacher and learner beliefs about corrective feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 143-157). NY: Routledge.
- Lightbown, P.M. (1998). The importance of timing on focus on form. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 177-196). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages are learned*. (3rd edn). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (1994). An innovative program for primary ESL in Quebec. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, pp. 563-573.
- Lightbown, P.M. & Spada, N. (1990). Focus on form and corrective feedback in communicative language teaching: Effects on L2. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 12, pp. 429-448.
- Little, D. & Singleton, D. (1990). Cognitive style and learning approach. In R. Duda & P. Riley (Eds.), *Learning styles* (pp. 11-19). Nancy, France: University of Nancy.
- Llewellyn-Williams, J. A. (2009). *Reactivating Lapsed Language Skills: Study to Examine the Reactivation of Language Skills in a P.G.C.E Modern Foreign Language Programme*. EdD. University of Wales-Institute Cardiff.
- Lo, Y.-H. G. (2005). Relevance of knowledge of second language acquisition. In N. Bartels (Ed.), *Researching applied linguistics in language teacher education* (pp. 135-158). New York, NY: Springer Science+Business Media.

- Lochtman, K. (2002). Oral corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom: How it affects interaction in analytic foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 37(3-4), pp. 271-283.
- Loewen, S., Li, S., Fei, F., Thompson, A., Nakatsukasa, K., Ahn, S. & Chen, X. (2009). Second language learners' beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(1), pp. 91-104. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40264132>
- Loewen, S. & Nabei, T. (2007). Measuring the effects of oral corrective feedback on L2 knowledge. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A series of empirical studies* (pp. 361-377). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Loewen, S. & Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: Characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. *Modern Language Journal*, 90(4), pp. 536-556.
- Long, M. (1981). Input, interaction, and second-language acquisition. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 379(1), pp. 259-278.
- Long, M. (1983). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), pp. 126-141.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook Of Language Acquisition: Vol. 2. Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York: Academic Press.
- Long, M. (2007). *Problems in SLA*. New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Long, M. & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in second language acquisition* (pp.15-4). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lynch, T. (2009). Responding to learners' perceptions of feedback: The use of comparators in second language speaking courses. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 3(2), pp. 191-203.
- Lynch, T. (2001). Seeing what they mean: Transcribing as a route to noticing. *ELTJ*, 55(2), pp. 124-132.
- Lyster, R. (1998a). The ambiguity of recasts and repetition in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20(1), pp. 51-81.

- Lyster, R. (1998b). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning*, 48, pp. 183–218.
- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in second language acquisition*, 26(3), pp. 399-432.
- Lyster, R. (2007). *Learning and teaching languages through content: A counterbalanced approach*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Lyster, R. & Izquierdo, J. (2009). Prompts versus recasts in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning*, 59 (2), pp. 453-498.
- Lyster, R. & Mori, H. (2006). Interactional feedback and instructional counterbalance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, pp. 269–300.
- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, pp. 37–66.
- Lyster, R. & Ranta, L. (2013). Counterpoint piece: The case for variety in corrective feedback research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 35(1), pp. 167-184. doi:10.1017/S027226311200071X
- Lyster, R. & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA: A Meta-Analysis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32, pp. 265-302.
- Lyster, R., Saito, K. & Sato, M. (2013). Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms. *Language teaching*, 46(1), pp. 1-40.
- Lyster, R. & Sato, M. (2013). Skill acquisition theory and the role of practice in L2 development. In M. G. Mayo, J. Gutierrez-Mangado & M. M. Adria'n (Eds.), *Contemporary approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 71-92). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinnings of educational research. *Polyglossia*, 19, pp .1-11.
- Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing and instructed second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 27 (3) pp. 405–430. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.cardiffmet.ac.uk/10.1093/applin/ami051>
- Mackey, A. (2012). *Input, interaction and corrective feedback in L2 learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

- Mackey, A., Gass, S. & K. McDonough (2000). How do learners perceive implicit negative feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22(4), pp. 471–497.
- Mackey, A. & Goo, J. (2007). Interaction research in SLA: A meta-analysis and research synthesis. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 407-452). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mackey, A. & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational interaction and second language development: recasts, responses, and red herrings? *The Modern Language Journal*, 82 (3), pp. 338-356.
- Mackey, A., Polio, C. & McDonough, K. (2004). The relationship between experience, education and teachers' use of incidental focus-on-form techniques. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(3), pp. 301-327.
- Mattheoudakis, M. (2007). Tracking changes in pre-service EFL teacher beliefs in Greece: A longitudinal study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(8), pp. 1272-1288. doi: 10.1016/j.tate.2006.06.001
- McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the impact of negative feedback and learners' responses on ESL question development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27, pp. 79-103.
- McHoul, A. (1990). The organization of repair in classroom talk. *Language in Society*, 19, pp. 349–377.
- McLeod, S. A. (2013). Kolb - Learning Styles. Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/learning-kolb.html
- McIlwraith, H. & Fortune, A. (2016). *English language teaching and learning in Egypt: An insight*. London: British Council.
https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/F239_English%20Language%20in%20Egypt_FINAL%20web.pdf
- McNiff, J. (2013). *Action Research: Principles and practice*. Routledge.
- McNiff, J. (2017). *Action Research: All You Need to Know*. London: SAGE.
- McNiff, J. & Whitehead, J. (2011). *All You Need to Know about Action Research*. 3rd edn. London: SAGE.
- McTaggart, R. (1996). Issues for participatory action researchers. In O.Zuber-Skerritt (Ed.) *New Directions in Action Research* (pp. 243-55). London: Falmer.

- Méndez, H. E. & Cruz, M. R. R. (2012). Teachers' perceptions about oral corrective feedback and their practice in EFL classrooms. *Profile*, 14(2), pp. 63-75.
- Mills, J. (2014). Methodology and methods. In J. Mills & M. Birks (Eds) *Qualitative Methodology: A Practical Guide* (pp. 31-47). London: Sage.
- Mitchel, R. & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories* (2nd edn). Routledge.
- Mochida, A. (2002). *What was the theoretical and empirical justification for the rise of communicative language teaching?* Retrieved August 17, 2017, from <http://www.geocities.jp/akirmochida>, 33.
- Morrison, K. R. B. (2009). *Causation in Educational Research*. London: Routledge.
- Muijs, D. & Reynolds, D. (2011). *Effective teaching: Evidence and practice*. SAGE.
- Mustapha, S. M. & Yahaya, R. A. (2013). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Malaysian context: its' implementation in selected community colleges. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 90, pp. 788-794.
- Nakatsukasa, K. (2016). Efficacy of recasts and gestures on the acquisition of locative proposition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1-29. doi:10.1017/S0272263115000467
- Nakatsukasa, K. & Loewen, S. (2017). Non-verbal feedback. In H. Nassaji & E. Kartchava (Eds.), *Corrective feedback in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 158-173). NY: Routledge.
- Nassaji, H. (2000). Towards integrating form-focused instruction and communicative interaction in L2 classroom: Some pedagogical possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84(2), pp. 241-250.
- Nassaji, H. (2007). Elicitation and reformulation and their relationship with learner repair in Dyadic interaction. *Language Learning*, 57(4), pp. 511-548.
- Nassaji, H. (2009). Effects of recasts and elicitations in dyadic interaction and the role of feedback explicitness. *Language Learning*, 59, pp. 411-452.
- Nassaji, H. (2011b). Immediate learner repair and its relationship with learning targeted forms in dyadic interaction. *System*, 39, pp. 17-29.
- Nassaji, H. (2016). Anniversary article Interactional feedback in second language teaching and learning: A synthesis and analysis of current research. *Language*

- Teaching Research*, 20 (4), pp. 535-562. doi: 10.1177/1362168816644940.
- Nassaji, H. & Fotos, S. (2011). *Teaching grammar in second language classrooms: Integrating Form- Focused Instruction in communicative context*. London, England: Routledge.
- Nassaji, H. & Swain, M. (2000). A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles, *Language Awareness*, 9(1), pp. 34-51. doi:10.1080/09658410008667135
- Nassaji, H. & Wells, G. (2000). What's the use of "triadic dialogue"? An investigation of teacher-student interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, 21, pp. 376-406.
- Nicholas, H., Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (2001). Recasts as feedback to language learners. *Language Learning*, 51(4), pp. 719-758.
- Nikoupour, J. & Zoghi, A. (2014). Analyzing EFL learners' errors: The plausibility of teachers' feedbacks and students' uptakes. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 5 (1), pp. 226-233. doi: 10.4304/jltr.5.1.226-233
- Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(1), pp. 131-153.
- Oakley, A. (1999). Paradigm wars: Some thoughts on a personal and public trajectory. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 2 (3), pp. 247-254.
- Ohta, A.S. (2000). Rethinking interaction in SLA: Developmentally appropriate assistance in the zone of proximal development and the acquisition of L2 grammar. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed) *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 51-78). Oxford University Press.
- Oladejo, J. A. (1993). Error correction in ESL: Learners' preferences. *TESL Canada Journal*, 10(2), pp. 71-89.
- Oldroyd, D. (1986). *The Arch of Knowledge: An Introductory Study of the History of the Philosophy and Methodology of Science*. New York: Methuen.
- Oliver, R. (2000). Age differences in negotiation and feedback in classroom and pair work. *Language Learning*, 50, pp. 119-151.
- Oliver, R. & Mackey, A. (2003). Interactional context and feedback in child ESL classrooms. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87, pp. 519-533.
- Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition*. London, UK: Hodder

Education.

- Osman, W.D. (2012). *Higher Education in Egypt and Needed Employability Skills in the Domestic Labor Market: Case Study from Ain Shams University, Faculty Engineering*. Unpublished MA Thesis. The American University of Cairo.
- Osterman, K.F. & Kottkamp, B. (2004). *Reflective Practice for Educators: Professional development to improve student learning*. 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.
- Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), pp. 307-332.
- Panova, I. & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, pp. 573-595.
- Parvin, S. (2013). A descriptive study on corrective feedback and learners' uptake during interactions in a communicative EFL class. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*. 3(7), pp. 165-175.
- Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, 29, pp. 177-195.
- Peng, J.E. (2011). Changes in language learning beliefs during a transition to tertiary study: The mediation of classroom affordances. *System*, 39(3), pp. 314-324.
- Pennington, M. C. (1996). When input becomes intake: Tracing the sources of teachers' attitude change. In D. Freeman & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *Teacher learning in language teaching* (pp. 320-348). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Peters, J. (2010). *A sociocultural assessment of corrective feedback in second language acquisition*. Graduate course term paper. Grand Valley State University.
- Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on "noticing the gap": Nonnative speakers; noticing of recasts in NS-NNS interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 25, pp. 99-126.
- Phipps, S. & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, 37(3), pp. 380-390. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002
- Phipps, S. & Borg, S. (2007). Exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practice. *The Teacher Trainer*, 21(3), pp. 17-19.

- Pica, T. (1994). Research on negotiation: What does it reveal about second-language learning conditions, processes, and outcomes? *Language learning*, 44(3), pp. 493-527.
- Pica, T. (1996). Do second language learners need negotiation? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 34, pp. 1-21.
- Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N. & Morgenthaler, L. (1989). Comprehensible Output as an outcome of linguistic demands on the learner. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. 11(1), pp. 63-90. doi:10.1017/S027226310000783X.
- Prawat, R. S. (1992). Teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning: A constructivist perspective. *American Journal of Education*, 100, pp. 354-95.
- Pring, R. (2015). *Philosophy of Educational Research*. 3rd edn. Bloomsbury.
- Prudie, N., Hattie, J. & Douglas, G. (1996). Student conceptions of learning and their use of self-regulated learning strategies: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 88, pp. 87-100.
- Puccinelli, N. M. (2008). Nonverbal communicative competence. In G. Rickheit and H. Strohner (Eds.), *Handbook of Communication Competence* (Vol. 1) (pp. 257-276). Walter de Gruyter.
- Radnor, H. (2002). *Researching your Professional Practice: Doing Interpretive Research*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Rahimi, M. & Zhang, L. (2015). Exploring non-native English-speaking teachers' cognitions about corrective feedback in teaching English oral communication. *System*, 55, pp. 111-122.
- Rankin, J. & Becker, F. (2006). Does reading the research make a difference? A case study of teacher growth in FL German. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(3), pp. 353-372.
- Ranta, L. & Lyster, R. (2007). A cognitive approach to improving immersion students' oral language abilities: The Awareness-Practice-Feedback sequence. In R. DeKeyser (Ed.), *Practice in a second language: Perspectives from applied linguistics and cognitive psychology* (pp. 141-160). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rassaei, E. (2013). The effects of foreign language anxiety on EFL learners' perceptions of oral corrective feedback. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 9(2), pp. 87-101.

- Reason, P. & Bradbury, H. (2008). *The SAGE Handbook of Action Research: Participative Inquiry and Practice*. (2nd edn). London: Sage.
- Reason, P. & Bradbury, H. (2001). *Handbook of Action Research: Participative Inquiry and Practice*. 2nd edn. London: Sage.
- Regian, V.W. & Shute, V.J. (1994). Evaluating intelligent tutoring systems. In E. L. Baker & H. F. O'Neil, H.F. (Eds) *Technology Assessment in Education and Training* (Vol. 1). Lawrence Erlbaum: New Jersey.
- Richards, J.C. (2006). *Communicative Language Teaching Today*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. & Farrell, T. S. C. (2005). *Professional development for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ritzau, U. (2013). A qualitative investigation of the dynamics and complexity of language learner beliefs through written protocols. *Linguistik Online*, 61, pp.97-111.
- Roberts, J. (1998). *Language teacher education*. Routledge.
- Robson, C. & McCartan, K. (2016). *Real World Research*. 4th edn. Wiley.
- Robinson, P., Mackey, A., Gass, S.M. & Schmidt, R. (2012). Attention and awareness in second language acquisition. In S. Gass & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*, (pp. 247-267). New York: Routledge.
- Roothoof, H. (2014). The relationship between adult EFL teachers' oral feedback practices and their beliefs. *System*, 46, pp. 65–79.
- Russell, V. (2009). Corrective feedback, over a decade of research since Lyster and Ranta (1997): Where do we stand today. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1), pp.21-31.
- Saito, K. & Lyster, R. (2012a). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of /ɹ/ by Japanese learners of English. *Language Learning*, 62 (2), pp. 595–633.
- Sato, M. (2011). Constitution of form-orientation: Contributions of context and explicit knowledge to learning from recasts. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14 (1), pp. 1–28.
- Sato, R. (2019). Examining the effects of gestures in providing oral corrective feedback. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 16(1), pp.22-33.

- Sato, M. & Ballinger, S. (2012). Raising language awareness in peer interaction: A cross-context, cross-method examination. *Language Awareness*, 21 (1–2), pp. 157–179.
- Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative language teaching: State of the art. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(2), pp. 261–278.
- Savignon, S. J. (1997). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice* 2nd edn. Sydney, NSW, Australia: McGraw-Hill.
- Savignon, S. J. (2002). Communicative language teaching: linguistic theory and classroom practice. In Savignon S. J. (Ed.), *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching: contexts and concerns in teacher education*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Savignon, S. (2005). Communicative language teaching: strategies and goals. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 635–651). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Schmidt, R. (1983). Interaction, acculturation, and the acquisition of communicative competence. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 137–174). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, pp. 129–158.
- Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning*. (pp. 1–63). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3–32). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schmidt, R. & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R. R. Day (Ed.) *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp.237–326). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *An introduction to applied linguistics*. 2nd edn. Abingdon: Hodder Education.
- Schön, D. A. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.
- Schön, D. A. (1987). *Educating the Reflective Practitioner: Toward a new design for*

teaching and learning in the professions. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Schulz, R. A. (1996). Focus on form in the foreign language classroom: Students' and teachers' views on error correction and the role of grammar. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29 (3), pp. 343-364.
- Schulz, R. A. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: USA – Columbia. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85 (2), pp. 244-258.
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of the scientific, interpretive, and critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching*, 5(9), pp. 9-16.
- Sepehrinia, S. & Mehdizadeh, M. (2016). Oral corrective feedback: Teachers' concerns and researchers' orientation. *The Language Learning Journal*, 46 (4), pp. 483-500. DOI: 10.1080/09571736.2016.1172328
- Shafiee, Z., Nejadghanbar, H. & Parsaiyan, S.F. (2018). Transformation of an EFL teacher's cognition underlying oral corrective feedback: A case of reflective inquiry. *Teaching English Language*, 12(1), pp. 1-30.
doi: 10.22132/TEL.2018.58510
- Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(3), pp. 263-300.
- Sheen, Y. (2006). Exploring the relationship between characteristics of recasts and learner uptake. *Language Teaching Research*, 10, pp. 361-392.
- Sheen, Y. (2011). *Corrective feedback, individual differences and second language learning*. New York: Springer.
- Sheen, Y. & Ellis, R (2011). Corrective feedback in language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*, Vol. 2, (pp.593–610). New York: Routledge.
- Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*. 4th edn. SAGE Publications Limited.
- Simpson, M. & Tuson, J. (2003a). *Using observations in small-scale research: A beginner's guide (using research series SCORE publication)*. Glasgow: Scottish Council for Research in Education.

- Smith, M. (2001). *Donald Schön: learning, reflection and change*. Retrieved June 20, 2018 from www.scribd.com/document/246295586/Donald-Schon-Schon-Learning-Reflection-and-Change
- Somekh, B. (1995). The contribution of action research to development in social endeavours: A position paper on action research methodology. *British Educational Research Journal*, 21 (3), pp. 339-55.
- Sowa, P. A. (2009). Understanding our learners and developing reflective practice: Conduction action research with English language learners. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25, pp. 1026-1032. doi: 10.1016 j.tate.2009.04.008
- Spada, N. (1997). Form-focused instruction and second language acquisition: A review of classroom and laboratory research. *Language Teaching*, 30, pp. 73-87.
- Spada, N. & Lightbown, P.M. (1993). Instruction and the development of questions in the L2 classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 14, pp. 205-221.
- Spada, N. & Lightbown, P.M. (1999). Instruction, first language influence, and developmental readiness in second language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), pp. 1-22.
- Spada, N. & Lightbown, P.M. (2009). Interaction research in second/foreign language classrooms. In A. Mackey, and P. Charlene (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on interaction* (pp.157-175). NY: Routledge.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Swain, M. (1993). The output hypothesis: Just speaking and writing aren't enough. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 50, pp. 158-164.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics* (pp. 124-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp.471-483). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: New Jersey.
- Swain, M. (2006). Verbal protocols: What does it mean for research to use speaking as a data collection tool? In M. Chalhoub-Deville, C. A. Chapelle & P. A. Duff (Eds.), *Inference and generalizability in applied linguistics: Multiple research perspectives*

- (pp. 97-113). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: a step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, pp. 371- 391.
- Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal*, 82, pp. 320-337.
- Swan, M. (1985). A critical look at the communicative approach (2). *ELT Journal*, 39 (2), pp. 76-87.
- Thompson, G. (1996). Some misconceptions about Communicative Language Teaching. *ELT Journal*, 50(1), pp. 9-15.
- Toth, P. D. (2006). Processing instruction and a role for output in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 56(2), pp. 319-385.
- Trofimovich, P., Ammar, A. & Gatbonton, E. (2007). How effective are recasts? The role of attention, memory, and analytical ability. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies* (pp. 171-195). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Trowbridge, M. H. & Cason, H. (1932). An experimental study of Thorndike's theory of learning. *Journal of General Psychology*, 7, pp. 245-258.
- Ur, P. (2012). *A course in English language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.
- Van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. London: Longman.
- Van Lier, L. (2004). *The ecology and semiotics of language learning: A sociocultural perspective* (Vol. 3). Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Van Manen, M. (1995). On the epistemology of reflective practice. *Teachers and teaching: Theory and practice*, 1 (1), pp. 33-50.
DOI: 10.1080/1354060950010104
- VanPatten, B. (2007). Input processing in adult second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 115-135). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Varonis, E. M. & Gass, S. (1985). Non-native/non-native conversations: A model for negotiation of meaning. *Applied linguistics*, 6(1), pp. 71-90.

- Vásquez, C. & Harvey, J. (2010). Raising teachers' awareness about corrective feedback through research replication. *Language Teaching Research*, 14(4), pp. 421-443. doi: 10.1177/1362168810375365
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*, M. Cole, V. J. Steiner, Sylvia S. & E. Souberman (Eds). Harvard University Press.
- Walford, G. (2001). *Doing Qualitative Educational Research: A Personal Guide to the Research Process*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Glasgow: Cambridge University Press.
- Wang, Q. & Seth, N. (1998). Self-development through classroom observation: Changing perceptions in China. *ELT Journal*, 52(3), pp. 205-213.
- Wells, G. (1993). Re-evaluating the IRF sequence: A proposal for the articulation of theories of activity and discourse for the analysis of teaching and learning in the classroom. *Linguistics and Education*, 5, pp. 1-38
- Wenden, A. (1999). An introduction to metacognitive knowledge and beliefs in language learning: Beyond the basics [Special issue]. *System*, 27, pp. 435-441.
- White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The input hypothesis and the development of second language competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 8(2), pp. 95-110.
- White, L. (1991). Adverb placement in second language acquisition: Some effects of positive and negative evidence in the classroom. *L2 Research*, 7, pp. 133-161.
- Williams, J. (1995). Focus on form in communicative language teaching: Research findings and the classroom teacher. *TESOL Journal*, 4 (4), pp. 12-16.
- Woods, D. & Çakır, H. (2011). Two dimensions of teacher knowledge: The case of communicative language teaching. *System*, 39(3), pp. 381-390. doi:10.1016/j.system.2011.07.010
- Yang, Y. & Lyster, R. (2010). Effects of form-focused practice and feedback on Chinese EFL learners' acquisition of regular and irregular past tense forms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32, pp. 235-263.
- Yoshida, R. (2010). How do teachers and learners perceive corrective feedback in the Japanese language classroom? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94, pp. 293-

314.

Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective feedback types. *Language Awareness*, 17(1), pp. 78-93.

Yule, G. (2016). *The study of language*. 6th edn. Cambridge University Press.

Zhong, Q. M. (2015). Changes in two migrant learners' beliefs, learning strategy use and language achievements in a New Zealand context. *System*, 53, pp. 107-118.

Zyzik, E., & Polio, C. (2008). Incidental focus on form in university Spanish literature courses. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92, pp. 53-70.

Appendix A

Corrective Feedback Techniques (Kartchava, 2012, p.19)

Table 1

Corrective Feedback Techniques, based on Lyster & Ranta (1997)

	Technique	Definition	Example	
Teacher corrects	Recasts	"Teacher's reformulation of all or part of a S's utterance minus the error" (p. 46).	In response to a student's incorrect statement of "I have many <i>book</i> ", the teacher may recast as follows "Oh, you have many <i>books</i> ."	
	Explicit Correction	"Explicit provision of the correct form" by the teacher (p. 46).	Student: "I have many <i>book</i> "; Teacher: "We don't say <i>book</i> [stressed]. You should say <i>books</i> [stressed]."	
Student self-corrects	Metalinguistic Feedback	"Contains comments, information or questions related to the well-formedness of the S's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form" (p. 47).	Student: "I have many <i>book</i> "; Teacher: "No, not <i>book</i> [stressed]. It's supposed to be in plural. How do we form plural in English?"	"PROMPTS"
	Elicitation	Teachers either: (1) elicit "completion of their own utterance by strategically pausing to allow Ss to fill in the blank, (2) use "questions to elicit correct forms", or (3) ask Ss to "reformulate their utterance" (p. 48).	Student: "He like coffee"; Teacher: "He <i>what</i> [stressed] coffee?"	
	Repetition	"Teacher's repetition, in isolation, of the S's erroneous utterance" (p. 48).	Student: "I see a movie yesterday"; Teacher: "I see [stressed] a movie <i>yesterday</i> [stressed]?"	
	Clarification Requests	"Indicates to Ss either that their utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required" (p. 47).	Student: "He like coffee"; Teacher: "Pardon me?"	

Appendix B

Examples of Different Forms of Recast and Elicitation Moves Provided to Learners (adapted from Nassaji, 2007).

Examples of different <u>forms of recasts</u> that could be provided by teachers	
1. Isolated recast – prompt: The feedback <i>isolates</i> the learner’s error and reformulates it in the correct target form <i>outside of the context</i> with a <i>falling intonation</i> , with <i>no additional prompts</i> to highlight the error or push the learner to respond to feedback.	
Student: and the girl behind the woman is <u>rob her</u> .	
Teacher: <u>Robbing her</u> .	↘
2. Isolated recasts + prompt: The feedback, which <i>serves as a prompt</i> to the learner to respond to the feedback. <i>isolates</i> the learner’s error and reformulates it <i>outside of the context</i> with a <i>rising intonation</i> .	
Student: The woman who stole purse realized the situation and ran away more fast.	
Teacher: More quickly?	↗
3. Embedded recast – prompt: The feedback reformulates the error within context without highlighting the error or prompting the student to respond to the feedback.	
Student: The other man <u>pointed woman</u> and called his friend	
Teacher: Ok, the other man <u>pointed to the woman</u> .	↘
4. Embedded recast + prompt: The feedback reformulates the error <i>within the context</i> with a <i>rising intonation</i> , which <i>serves as a prompt</i> to respond to the feedback.	
Student: The woman found a <u>police on the street</u> .	
Teacher: The woman found a <u>police officer</u> ?	↗
5. Recast + expansion: The feedback reformulates the learner’s error and <i>expands on it</i> by <i>adding new information</i> .	
Student: He steal the purse.	
Teacher: He stole the purse and ran away.	
6. Recast + enhanced prompt: The feedback provided by the teacher reformulates the erroneous utterance <i>with a rising intonation</i> and/or added stress + <i>additional verbal prompts</i> such as “Do you mean....?”	
Student: At this time the wallet, the wallet <u>fall</u> to the ground...	
Teacher: Do you mean <u>FELL</u> to the ground?	↗

Appendix B (continued)

Examples of different forms of elicitations that could be provided by teachers


1. **Unmarked elicitation:** The feedback provided by the teacher *elicits a reformulation without making any reference the error*.

Student: There was an old woman who runt beside the car.

Teacher: Sorry, what? 

2. **Marked elicitation:** The feedback elicits a reformulation by *highlighting/repeating the error in the form of interrogative repetition (rising intonation asking a question)*.

Student: So she, she got the ballet from her bag?

Teacher: Got the ballet, ballet? 

3. **Marked elicitation + prompt:** The feedback elicits a reformulation by *highlighting/repeating the error with rising intonation and adding some extra verbal prompts*.

Student: She easily catched the girl.

Teacher: She catched the girl? I'm sorry say that again? 

4. **Marked elicitation + enhanced prompt:** The feedback elicits a reformulation *by highlighting/repeating the error with a rising intonation and with additional verbal prompts* that indicate more explicitly to the learner that something is wrong.

Student: A man who are walking with the woman.

Teacher: a man who ARE walking? Is that correct? 

5. **Elliptical elicitation:** The feedback elicits the correct form by *repeating the learner's utterance up to the error, with a rising intonation, and waiting for the learner to supply the correct form*.

Student: And when the young girl arrive, ah... beside the woman

Teacher: When the young girl.....?

Appendix C

Teacher Practice Sheet (1)

Various forms of providing corrective feedback

Add a form of corrective feedback (CF) in response to the following erroneous utterances. For each utterance add one form of RECAST and one form of ELICITATION that you find suitable. Try to vary the forms used throughout.

1. Teacher: What would you prefer, travelling by train or by plane?
Student: Travelling by plane is much quick.
Teacher: (recast)
Teacher: (elicitation)
2. Teacher: What are the advantages of travelling by train?
Student: The train isn't as expensive the plane.
Teacher: (recast)
Teacher: (elicitation)
3. Teacher: Why are you working so hard?
Student: The harder I work more money I make.
Teacher: (recast)
Teacher: (elicitation)
4. Teacher: Why don't a lot of people buy iPhones?
Student: Because it is most expensive phone on the market.
Teacher: (recast)
Teacher: (elicitation)
5. Teacher: Why did you buy this car?
Student: Because it is far durable than any other car in the market.
Teacher: (recast)
Teacher: (elicitation)
6. Teacher: Do you eat fast food often?
Student: Not anymore! The older I get easiest I gain wait.
Teacher: (recast)
Teacher: (elicitation)
7. Teacher: Do you like to travel to places inside Egypt or do you prefer travelling abroad?
Student: Abroad. Travelling inside Egypt isn't exciting travelling abroad.
Teacher: (recast)
Teacher: (elicitation)

Appendix D

Teacher Practice Sheet (2)

Various forms of providing corrective feedback for practicing Active & Passive
Add a form of corrective feedback (CF) in response to the following erroneous
utterances. For each utterance add one form of RECAST and one form of
ELICITATION that you find suitable. Try to vary the forms used throughout.

1. Teacher: You've lost one of the cartoons!

Student: I'm sorry to hear that one cartoon were mislaid.

Teacher: (recast)

Teacher: (elicitation)

2. Teacher: You delivered the goods a few days late!

Student: I admit the delivery will be delayed.

Teacher: (recast)

Teacher: (elicitation)

3. Teacher: You damaged one of the machines!

Student: My apologies! It should have packed better.

Teacher: (recast)

Teacher: (elicitation)

4. Teacher: Your trucks are very dirty!

Student: They are cleaning at the moment.

Teacher: (recast)

Teacher: (elicitation)

5. Teacher: The alarm in the warehouse went off six times last night!

Student: That's strange! It is checked two days ago!

Teacher: (recast)

Teacher: (elicitation)

6. Teacher: The new security cameras don't work properly!

Student: Something must have gone wrong! They serviced over the weekend!

Teacher: **(recast)**

Teacher: **(elicitation)**

Appendix E

Pre-intervention Interview Questions

Part 1

1. How long have you been teaching English?
2. What language level would you rank your students?
3. Generally, how do you teach grammar?
4. How do you help students improve accuracy in using a taught grammatical structure?

Part 2

Now let's talk about your oral interaction with students inside the classroom while teaching

1. How important do you think oral error correction is during S-T classroom interaction?
2. Do you always attempt to correct students' errors during oral classroom interaction? If you do not, how do you decide on which errors to provide treatment for?
3. When attempting to orally correct students' errors in class, do you provide the correction or do you guide them to correct their errors themselves? Can you give some explanation? What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of each approach?
4. Do you have specific techniques for correcting grammatical errors during oral classroom interaction with your students? Can you give me some examples?
5. Do you think students are usually aware when you implicitly correct their errors? How can you tell if they have noticed?
6. How can you decide whether your oral error treatment techniques are effective for students to acquire the correct information?
7. Do you think correcting students' errors in front of their colleagues might make them uncomfortable? What can the teacher do to try and avoid that?

Appendix F

Post Intervention Interview Questions

1. How important is the provision of corrective feedback during S-T classroom interaction?
2. How did you benefit from the training process throughout the semester? To what extent did it have an impact on your classroom teaching?
3. Were you more comfortable using explicit (elicitation) or implicit (recasts) corrective feedback techniques during your grammar lessons?
4. Do you think students noticed more when you explicitly attempted to correct their errors or when you implicitly corrected them? How were you able to tell?
5. During your grammar session, were you able to tell whether your provision of oral corrective feedback was effective for learners to acquire the correct information? If yes, how?
6. Do you think correcting students' errors in front of their colleagues made them uncomfortable at any point? What did you do in order to try and avoid that?

Appendix G
Questionnaire (adapted from Kartchava, 2012)

Students' beliefs regarding oral corrective feedback in the classroom

Registration #:

Please indicate your degree of *agreement* OR *disagreement* with each of the following statements by underlining the figure that corresponds best to your choice. (1= Strongly Agree, 2= Agree, 3= Undecided, 4= Disagree, 5= Strongly Disagree). It is important to answer ALL questions.

The teacher should help students with pronunciation during the lesson.	1	<u>2</u>	3	4	5
--	---	----------	---	---	---

This choice indicates that you AGREE with the statement.

1.	When the teacher corrects other students' errors in class, it helps me to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I feel uncomfortable when my spoken English is corrected in front of the whole class.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Encouraging students to correct themselves during oral classroom interaction benefits beginner level students.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	The English teacher should only correct grammar mistakes in spoken English if they prevent understanding.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	When correcting errors in spoken English, the teacher should avoid using negative language (e.g. "Everything you said was wrong" or "you haven't understood anything" or "you don't know anything").	1	2	3	4	5

6.	When the teacher provides the correct form during oral classroom interaction, this is helpful for beginner level students.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Errors are an indication of what I still don't know in English.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When the teacher provides the correct form during oral classroom interaction, this is helpful for beginner level students.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	When the teacher provides the correct form during oral classroom interaction, this is helpful for beginner level students.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Errors in spoken language should be corrected.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Making students correct their own errors helps them learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	If the English teacher doesn't correct my mistakes in spoken English, my motivation to learn English will decrease.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	My English teacher always repeats my mistakes in spoken English, stressing on the wrong part to attract my attention and help me correct it.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	If the teacher does not correct the students' mistakes in the beginning, it will be difficult to get rid of them later on.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I like my teacher to correct me in English lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I expect my teacher to correct my mistakes in English grammar.	1	2	3	4	5

17.	The techniques used to correct my errors in spoken English should depend on my level.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	English teachers should deal with students' oral mistakes at the end of lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I prefer to be corrected by other students in the class.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	The teacher should correct all the student's mistakes in spoken English.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	English teachers should correct oral mistakes immediately after students make them.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	The correction of mistakes in spoken English draws my attention to the correct form provided by my teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Encouraging students to correct themselves benefits advanced level students.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I prefer my English teacher to encourage me to correct myself.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Regular correction of oral mistakes in English classes leads to a negative attitude towards learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Providing the correct form is helpful for advanced level students.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix H

Pre-intervention Focus Group Questions

Learners' beliefs about oral corrective feedback provided during classroom interaction

1. How important do you think the teacher's oral interaction with students in the classroom is in helping them learn?
2. What was the nature of classroom interaction in the language lesson during high school? Did the teacher do most of the talking or were you encouraged to participate? How did you feel about that?
3. How do you feel when the teacher corrects your errors in spoken English in front of the whole class?
4. What techniques did your language teachers use back in high school to correct your oral errors?
5. Do you think all errors made by students should be corrected during oral classroom interaction? Why?
6. How do you prefer the teacher to correct your oral mistakes during classroom interaction? Should she provide the correct form or guide you to correct the mistake yourself? Why?
7. Should the same oral correction techniques be used with students of different language levels? Why?
8. To what extent does the oral correction provided to other students in the class help you learn?
9. How can the language used by the teacher for correcting oral mistakes motivate you to participate/demotivate you from taking part in classroom interaction?

Appendix I

Post-Intervention Focus Group Questions

1. To what extent was your teacher's oral interaction in the classroom helping you to learn?
2. During the English lesson, did the teacher do most of the talking or were you encouraged to participate? How did you feel about that?
3. How did you feel when the teacher corrected your errors in spoken English in front of the whole class?
4. Can you recall the techniques your teacher used during the English lesson to correct your oral errors? OR the errors made by your colleagues?
5. Which of the oral correction techniques used by your teacher during the English lesson did you prefer? (providing the correct form or guiding you to correct the mistake yourself? Why?)
6. Did your teacher correct ALL errors made by you and your colleagues during oral classroom interaction? Why do you think?
7. Did the oral corrective feedback provided by your teacher to other students in the classroom help you learn? Can you recall any instances when that happened?
8. Did the language used by your teacher for correcting oral mistakes motivate you to participate / demotivate you from taking part in classroom interaction? Can you recall any such language?

Appendix J

Data Collection and Teacher Training Timeline per Cycle

	Procedure	Week
1. 2. 3.	Pre-intervention Observation Pre-intervention Interview Pre-intervention focus group meeting	2
4. 5.	Introducing teachers to research focus + Introducing general OCF categories (Appendix A) + Introducing sub-types of elicitation and recasts (Appendix B) Role-playing practice sheet 1 (Researcher + both teachers)	3
6. 7. 8.	Audio-recorded practice session with volunteer students + Stimulated recall activity Sending 1 st e-journal question Video recording observation two (comparative and superlative) + Stimulated recall activity	4
9. 10. 11.	Role-playing practice sheet two (Researcher + both teachers) (Starting 2 nd cycle) Video recording observation three (active and passive) + Reflective feedback session Sending 2 nd e-journal question	6
12. 13.	Video recording observation four (question tags) Sending 3 rd e-journal question	8
14. 15.	Post-intervention interview with each participating teacher Post-intervention focus group meetings	9

Appendix K

Degrees of Student Repair Following Teachers' Provision of OCF

Nassaji (2007) identified three categories of repair:

- (1) *successful repair*, learner responses that led to successful correction of erroneous output;
- (2) *partial repair*, responses that resulted in partial correction of the original erroneous utterance;
- (3) *no repair*, utterances that did not lead to any correction of the error.

The utterances which led to partial repair were put in a separate category and not included in the “no repair” category because it indicated that some kind of language processing was taking place, hence, taking the learner one step closer to the target form. The category of no repair contained learners' responses which either incorrectly attempted to repair the original erroneous utterance, or completely ignored the feedback provided by the instructor and continued with the interaction, or simply agreed with or acknowledged the feedback without reproducing the utterance.

Appendix L

Frequencies and Percentages of Subtypes of Elicitation and Recasts Provided by Each Teacher

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of elicitation in Yosra's class

Subtypes of elicitation	Number	%
Unmarked elicitation	6	13.3
Marked elicitation	26	57.8
Marked elicitation + prompt	5	11.1
Elliptical elicitation	8	17.8
Total	45	100

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of recasts in Yosra's class

Subtypes of recasts	Number	%
Isolated recast - prompt	4	25
Isolated recast + prompt	5	31.2
Embedded recast - prompt	4	25
Embedded recast + prompt	3	18.8
Total	16	100

Appendix L (continued)

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of elicitation in Sally's class

Subtypes of elicitation	Number	%
Unmarked elicitation	4	7
Marked elicitation	22	38.6
Marked elicitation + prompt	7	12.3
Marked elicitation + enhanced prompt	4	7
Elliptical elicitation	20	35.1
Total	57	100

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of recasts in Sally's class

Subtypes of recasts	Number	%
Isolated recast + prompt	4	44.5
Embedded recast + prompt	5	55.5
Total	9	100

Appendix L (continued)

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of elicitation in Dalila's class

Subtypes of elicitation	Number	%
Unmarked elicitation	3	15
Marked elicitation	9	45
Marked elicitation + enhanced prompt	3	15
Elliptical elicitation	5	25
Total	20	100

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of recasts in Dalila's class

Subtypes of recasts	Number	%
Isolated recast - prompt	5	13.2
Isolated recast + prompt	13	34.2
Embedded recast - prompt	5	13.2
Embedded recast + prompt	7	18.4
Recast + enhanced prompt	8	21
Total	38	100

Appendix L (continued)

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of elicitation in Sherifa's class

Subtypes of elicitation	Number	%
Unmarked elicitation	2	4.8
Marked elicitation	33	78.6
Marked elicitation + enhanced prompt	2	4.8
Elliptical elicitation	5	11.8
Total	42	100

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of recasts in Sherifa's class

Subtypes of recasts	Number	%
Isolated recast – prompt	2	18.2
Isolated recast + prompt	2	18.2
Embedded recast + prompt	3	27.3
Recast + enhanced prompt	4	36.3
Total	11	100

Appendix L (continued)

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of elicitation in Malak's class

Subtypes of elicitation	Number	%
Unmarked elicitation	3	6
Marked elicitation	25	50
Marked elicitation + enhanced prompt	8	16
Elliptical elicitation	14	28
Total	50	100

Frequencies and percentages of subtypes of recasts in Malak's class

Subtypes of recasts	Number	%
Isolated recast + prompt	5	35.7
Recast + enhanced prompt	4	28.6
Embedded recast - prompt	5	35.7
Total	14	100

Appendix M

Project reference number:

Title of Project: Teachers' and Learners' beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback, and the Effect of Training on Teachers' Provision of Oral Corrective Feedback in the Language Classroom

Student Information Sheet – Classroom recordings and observations

Background

This research project contributes to the PhD I am undertaking at the Cardiff Metropolitan University, UWIC.

The focus of research was stimulated by continuous classroom observations and a profound interest in enhancing teacher-student classroom interaction; specifically that focusing on providing oral corrective feedback following an error in students' L2 production. This study is an attempt to maximize the learning benefits gained during class time. It will take place during regular English for Business classes using materials from the course book.

In brief the research will focus on:

1. Training teachers on providing different forms of oral corrective feedback and exploring their attitudes towards using such feedback during classroom interaction.
2. Observing and analysing the effect of the training on teachers' classroom practice.
3. Getting to know what students think and feel towards being corrected orally during teacher-student classroom interaction.

- **This is an invitation to you to join the study, and to let you know what participating would involve.**
- **If you want to find out more about the research project, or if you need more information to help you make a decision about joining in, please contact me on neyoussef@cardiffmet.ac.uk**

Your Participation in the Research Project

Why you have been asked

Since this study focuses on the use of oral corrective feedback during teacher-student classroom interaction, your English sessions will be video/audio recorded and observed by me, the researcher, in order to analyse the teacher's use of such feedback and your response to it

Taking part is entirely voluntary – there is no obligation to join the study.

What happens if you want to change your mind?

If you decide to join the study you can change your mind at any time. I will respect your decision. If you wish to withdraw from the study, please could you let me know by email and I guarantee that no data collected from you, either through the video/audio recording or the observations, will be used. There are no penalties for stopping.

What would happen if you join the study?

During the course of the semester, your teacher will go about the regular syllabus using different forms of corrective feedback during classroom interaction. Sessions will be video/audio recorded and observed to analyse teacher-student interaction, focusing specifically on the teacher's use of corrective feedback and students' response to that feedback. If you agree to join the study, data gathered, using observations and recordings, concerning your response will be incorporated in the analysis.

Are there any risks?

I do not think there are any significant risks from taking part in this study. If you did feel that there was any stress involved you can inform me at any time and no data concerning you will be used from any observations or recordings.

It is important for you to note that the data gathered during classroom sessions contributes to the Doctorate degree that I am undertaking. Whilst the final outcomes may inform future practice and modifications within the teaching of English at your college, the information gathered from you as a participant will be treated anonymously.

What happens to the observation notes and video/audio recordings?

As the researcher, I will be responsible for the observation notes and the transcription of the recordings. I will be examining students' reactions and responses following the teacher's provision of corrective feedback during classroom interaction. Once the data has been analysed, results will be reported anonymously while writing up the results of the study. They might also be used for publication in an academic journal.

Are there any benefits from taking part?

I believe there are benefits from taking part in the study. It could help raise your awareness to the importance of using corrective feedback during classroom interaction and, accordingly, would allow you to pay more attention when it's provided, in an attempt to identify your language errors and work on improving them.

In the more general context, analysis of the teacher's use of different forms of corrective feedback and your response to them would help me make recommendations when reporting on the outcomes of the study, which would accordingly have an impact on the teaching-learning process in the English classes throughout the college.

How your privacy will be protected

All the information I get from you, either through observations or video/audio recordings, is strictly anonymous, and your privacy is highly protected. I will take very careful steps to make sure that you cannot be identified from any of the information I report.

I will ask you to sign a form giving your consent to take part in this study. This will be kept completely separate from the transcripts and observation notes.

When I have finished the study and analysed the information, all the recordings and notes used to gather data will be completely destroyed. I will keep the anonymised transcripts and your consent form for 10 years, because I am required to do so by Cardiff Metropolitan University.

When reporting the results of the study, I may illustrate some issues from the recordings with quotes. However, there will be no accompanying information that will identify who gave these quotes.

PLEASE NOTE: YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS SHEET TO KEEP, TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF YOUR CONSENT FORM

Contact Details: Nevine Helmy Youssef, PhD student – School of Education – Cardiff Metropolitan University, Email: neyoussef@cardiffmet.ac.uk

Appendix N

Student Consent Form – Classroom recordings and observations

Reference Number:

Participant name or ID Number:

Title of Project: Teachers' and Learners' beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback, and the Effect of Training on Teachers' Provision of Oral Corrective Feedback in the Language Classroom

Name of Researcher: Nevine Helmy Youssef

Participant to complete this section:

Please initial each box if you agree to the corresponding statement.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without my relationship with the researcher being affected. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I understand that relevant data collected during the study may be used for reporting purposes and in the production of the researcher's doctoral thesis. The work might also be written up for publication in an academic journal. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I agree to the lesson being video recorded. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I agree to the lesson being audio recorded. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I agree to field notes being taken of the lesson. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. I agree to take part in the above study. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Signature of Participant

Date

Name of person taking consent

Date

Signature of person taking consent

** When completed, 1 copy for participant & 1 copy for researcher site file*

Appendix O

Project reference number:

Title of Project: Teachers' and Learners' beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback, and the Effect of Training on Teachers' Provision of Oral Corrective Feedback in the Language Classroom

Student Information Sheet – Focus Groups

Background

This research project contributes to the PhD I am undertaking at the Cardiff Metropolitan University, UWIC.

The focus of research was stimulated by continuous classroom observations and a profound interest in enhancing teacher-student classroom interaction; specifically that focusing on providing oral corrective feedback following an error in students' L2 production. This study is an attempt to maximize the learning benefits gained during class time. It will take place during regular English for Business classes using materials from the course book.

In brief the research will focus on:

1. Training teachers on providing different forms of oral corrective feedback and exploring their attitudes towards using such feedback during classroom interaction.
 2. Observing and analysing the effect of the training on teachers' classroom practice.
 3. Getting to know what students think and feel towards being corrected orally during teacher-student classroom interaction.
- **This is an invitation to you to join the study, and to let you know what participating would involve.**
 - **If you want to find out more about the research project, or if you need more information to help you make a decision about joining in, please contact me on neyoussef@cardiffmet.ac.uk**

Your Participation in the Research Project

Why you have been asked

Since this study focuses on the use of oral corrective feedback during teacher-student classroom interaction, and in order to ensure that students' perspectives concerning that area are explored, you are being invited to take part in focus group meetings focusing on the use of such feedback.

Taking part is entirely voluntary – there is no obligation to join the study.

What happens if you want to change your mind?

If you decide to join the study you can change your mind and stop at any time. I will respect your decision. If you wish to withdraw from the study, please could you let me know by email? There are no penalties for stopping.

What would happen if you join the study?

If you agree to join the study, which for the most part takes place during your regular scheduled English classes, you will participate in a 30-40 minute audio-recorded focus group meeting with me, the researcher, and a number of your colleagues. This will take part at the beginning of the semester. The aim behind these meetings is to know what you and your colleagues think concerning the importance of using oral corrective feedback in the class and how you feel about being corrected publically in front of a whole group. During the course of the semester, your teacher will go about the regular syllabus using different forms of corrective feedback during classroom interaction. Towards the end of the semester, you will join me and your colleagues for another audio-recorded focus group meeting. The aim behind this second meeting is to voice your thoughts regarding the use of corrective feedback throughout the semester

Are there any risks?

I do not think there are any significant risks from taking part in these focus group meetings. If you did feel that there was any stress involved you can ask to stop at any time.

It is important for you to note that the focus of the meetings contributes to the Doctorate degree that I am undertaking. Whilst the final outcomes may inform future practice and modifications within the teaching of English at your college, the information you provide as a participant will be treated anonymously.

What happens to the meeting audio-recordings?

As the researcher, I will be responsible for transcribing all the information from the focus group meetings. I will then check for any changes in the attitudes and beliefs concerning the use of corrective feedback in the classroom before and after the course. Once the data has been analysed, results will be reported anonymously while writing up the results of the study. They might also be used for publication in an academic journal.

Are there any benefits from taking part?

I believe there are benefits from taking part in the study. Participating in these meetings will help raise your awareness to the importance of oral corrective feedback during classroom interaction and, accordingly, would allow you to pay more attention when it's provided in the classroom, in an attempt to identify your language errors and work on improving them.

In the more general context, the beliefs and opinions you voice during the focus group meetings would help me make recommendations when reporting on the outcomes of the study, which would accordingly have an impact on the teaching-learning process in the English classes throughout the college.

How your privacy will be protected

All the information I get from you is strictly anonymous, and your privacy is highly protected. I will take very careful steps to make sure that you cannot be identified from any of the information I report from the meetings.

I will ask you to sign a form giving your consent to take part in this study. This will be kept completely separate from the meetings recordings and transcription.

When I have finished the study and analysed the information, all the recordings used to gather data will be completely destroyed. I will keep the anonymised transcripts and your consent form for 10 years, because I am required to do so by Cardiff Metropolitan University.

When reporting the results of the study, I may illustrate some issues from the focus group meetings with quotes. However, there will be no accompanying information that will identify who gave these quotes.

PLEASE NOTE: YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS SHEET TO KEEP, TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF YOUR CONSENT FORM

Contact Details: Nevine Helmy Youssef, PhD student – School of Education – Cardiff Metropolitan University, Email: neyoussef@cardiffmet.ac.uk

Appendix P

Student Consent Form – Focus Groups

Reference Number:

Participant name or ID Number:

Title of Project: Teachers' and Learners' beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback, and the Effect of Training on Teachers' Provision of Oral Corrective Feedback in the Language Classroom

Name of Researcher: Nevine Helmy Youssef

Participant to complete this section:

Please initial each box if you agree to the corresponding statement.

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. ☐
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without my relationship with the researcher being affected. ☐
3. I understand that relevant data collected during the study may be used for reporting purposes and in the production of the researcher's doctoral thesis. The work might also be written up for publication in an academic journal. ☐
4. I agree to the focus group meetings being audio recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses. ☐
5. I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications. ☐
6. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Signature of Participant	Date
--------------------------	------

Name of person taking consent	Date
-------------------------------	------

Signature of person taking consent

** When completed, 1 copy for participant & 1 copy for researcher site file*

Appendix Q

Project reference number:

Title of Project: Teachers' and Learners' beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback, and the Effect of Training on Teachers' Provision of Oral Corrective Feedback in the Language Classroom

Teacher Information Sheet

Background

This research project contributes to the PhD I am undertaking at the Cardiff Metropolitan University, UWIC.

The focus of research was stimulated by continuous classroom observations and a profound interest in enhancing teacher-student classroom interaction; specifically that focusing on providing oral corrective feedback following an error in students' L2 production. This study is an attempt to maximize the learning benefits gained during class time. It will take place during regular English for Business classes using materials from the course book.

In brief the research will focus on:

1. Training teachers on providing different forms of oral corrective feedback and exploring their attitudes towards using such feedback during classroom interaction.
2. Observing and analysing the effect of the training on teachers' classroom practice.
3. Getting to know what students think and feel towards being corrected orally during teacher-student classroom interaction.

- **This is an invitation to you to join the study, and to let you know what participating would involve.**
- **If you want to find out more about the research project, or if you need more information to help you make a decision about joining in, please contact me on neyoussef@cardiffmet.ac.uk**

Your Participation in the Research Project

Why you have been asked

This study focuses on the use of oral corrective feedback during teacher-student classroom interaction; accordingly you are being invited to take part in semi-structured interviews focusing on the use of such feedback. In addition, you would be attending training sessions focusing on the use of oral corrective feedback techniques in the L2 classroom.

Taking part is entirely voluntary – there is no obligation to join the study.

What happens if you want to change your mind?

If you decide to join the study you can change your mind and stop at any time. I will respect your decision. If you wish to withdraw from the study, please could you let me know by email. There are no penalties for stopping.

What would happen if you join the study?

If you agree to join the study, you will sit for a 40-60 minutes audio-recorded interview with me, the researcher, at the beginning of the semester, prior to receiving any training on the provision of corrective feedback. The aim behind this is to explore your beliefs concerning the role of oral corrective feedback in the language classroom and to what extent it should be used to correct students' L2 production. After that you will attend training sessions focusing on different techniques of providing corrective feedback during classroom interaction. The training consists of a number of stages; first, you will be familiarized thoroughly with some of the techniques used for the provision of corrective feedback through analysing samples of teacher-student classroom interaction in which these techniques are used. Second, an interactive task similar to those used in the course book will be used to generate interaction between me (the researcher) and yourself, during which hypothetical errors will be produced in order to train you on using various forms of corrective feedback. Third, you will carry out the same interactive tasks with two volunteer students from another college (who are not participating in the study) who have the same proficiency level as those taking part in the actual study. Lastly, halfway through the intervention, after video/audio recording and observing your classes for a few sessions, I will meet with you to recap on the types of corrective feedback focused on, and review a sample of your recorded classroom sessions. The aim behind this is to draw your attention, before carrying on with the rest of your teaching sessions, to the importance of using all types of corrective feedback under investigation and to avoid being geared towards one specific type significantly more than the other. Throughout the intervention you will need to keep diaries reflecting on your use of corrective feedback while teaching.

Following the completion of the intervention, I will interview you again to examine whether you could articulate how the training affected your classroom performance and whether your initial beliefs about the role of oral corrective feedback in the language classroom have changed.

Are there any risks?

I do not think there are any significant risks from taking part in the study. If you did feel that there was any stress involved you can ask to stop at any time.

It is important for you to note that the focus of the interviews, the training and the classroom observations contributes to the Doctorate degree that I am undertaking. Whilst the final outcomes may inform future practice and modifications within teacher training and the teaching of English, the information you provide as a participant will be treated anonymously.

What happens to the interview audio-recordings, the classroom video/audio recordings and the observation notes?

As the researcher, I will be responsible for transcribing all the information from the interviews. I will then check for any changes in the attitudes and beliefs concerning the use of corrective feedback in the classroom before and after receiving the training. Once the data has been analysed, results will be reported anonymously while writing up the results of the study. They might also be used for publication in an academic journal.

Concerning the classroom recordings and observation notes, they will be analysed to examine the different techniques used for providing feedback and students' response to them. Examples of those will be quoted and reported anonymously.

Are there any benefits from taking part?

I believe there are benefits from taking part in the study. Sitting for these interviews will help raise your awareness to the importance of using corrective feedback during classroom interaction. Moreover, receiving the training should have a positive effect on your teaching practice and classroom performance.

In the more general context, the beliefs and opinions you voice during the interviews would help me make recommendations when reporting on the outcomes of the study, which would accordingly have an impact on the teaching-learning process in the English language classes throughout the college.

How your privacy will be protected

All the information I get from you is strictly anonymous, and your privacy is highly protected. I will take very careful steps to make sure that you cannot be identified from any of the information I report from the interviews and/or the video/audio classroom recordings.

I will ask you to sign a form giving your consent to take part in this study. This will be kept completely separate from the interview recordings and transcription.

When I have finished the study and analysed the outcomes, all the recordings used to gather data will be completely destroyed. I will keep the anonymised transcripts and your consent form for 10 years, because I am required to do so by Cardiff Metropolitan University.

When reporting the results of the study, I may illustrate some issues from the interviews and/or the videos with quotes. However, there will be no accompanying information that will identify who gave these quotes.

PLEASE NOTE: YOU WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS SHEET TO KEEP, TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF YOUR CONSENT FORM

Contact Details: Nevine Helmy Youssef, PhD student – School of Education – Cardiff Metropolitan University, Email: neyoussef@cardiffmet.ac.uk

Appendix R

Teacher Consent Form

Reference Number:

Participant name or ID Number:

Title of Project: Teachers' and Learners' beliefs on Oral Corrective Feedback, and the Effect of Training on Teachers' Provision of Oral Corrective Feedback in the Language Classroom

Name of Researcher: Nevine Helmy Youssef

Participant to complete this section:

Please initial each box if you agree to the corresponding statement.

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without my relationship with the researcher being affected. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I understand that relevant data collected during the study may be used for reporting purposes and in the production of the researcher's doctoral thesis. The work might also be written up for publication in an academic journal. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I agree to my teaching being observed to keep a record of my use of oral corrective feedback techniques. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. I agree to my teaching being video/audio recorded to keep a record of my use of oral corrective feedback techniques. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. I agree to my interviews being audio recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. I agree to take part in the above study. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Signature of Participant

Date

Name of person taking consent

Date

Signature of person taking consent

** When completed, 1 copy for participant & 1 copy for researcher site file*

Appendix S

Timeline for recruitment of the teachers participating in the three data collection cycles

Feb. 2015	Teachers initially approached by the researcher to seek consent for observation of their classes prior to commencement of the study	N=12
	Teachers who consented to being observed	N=9
	Teachers who met the criteria for participating in the study based on initial classroom observations	N=7
Sept. 2015 1 st cycle	First group of teachers contacted by the researcher to participate in the 1st cycle based on Feb 2015 initial classroom observation visits	N=4
	Teachers who agreed to participate in the 1st research cycle	N=2
Feb. 2016 2 nd cycle	Second group of teachers contacted by the researcher to participate in the 2nd cycle based on Feb 2015 initial classroom observations	N=3
	Teachers who agreed to participate in the 2nd cycle	N=2
	Teachers observed for potential participation in the 3rd cycle AND met the criteria for participating in the study	N= 2
Sep. 2016 3 rd cycle	Teachers contacted by the researcher to participate in the 3rd cycle based on Feb 2016 classroom observations	N=2
	Teacher who participated in the 3rd cycle	N= 1

Appendix T

Sample pre-intervention interview transcript (Teacher B) + sample coding frame

Interview Transcript

Interviewer: Nevine Helmy (researcher)
Interviewee: Teacher B (participant in the first data collection cycle)
Date of the interview: between 18th & 22nd, September 2015 (2nd week of the academic semester)
Location of the interview: Miami campus – AAST – Alexandria
Interview lasted for: 17.24 mins
List of abbreviations: **NH**= Nevine Helmy (researcher) – **TB** = Teacher B –
In. Q.: Interview Question (refers to number of interview question included in Appendix E)

Key to transcription symbols:

..... : indicates a pause by the speaker for more than 2 seconds
[] : includes explanation/details added by the researcher in her own words to further describe the interview
{ } : includes number of exact interview question as included in appendix E
Italicized questions by NH: indicates questions put forward by the research which were not originally included in the pre-planned questioning route.
'.....': inverted commas are inserted for speech which was actually used by TB during classroom practice, based on the researcher's examination of the video recorded classroom teaching

(Beginning of transcript)

NH: [greeting the teacher and thanking her for agreeing to participate in the study]

TB: You're welcome. I think research focusing on classroom teaching like this would be helpful for us..... hopefully I can benefit from it.

NH: So how long have you been teaching English [teacher's name]? **{In. Q. 1(1)}**

TB: 2 years

NH: What language level would you rank your students? **{In. Q. 1(2)}**

TB: I think they range between pre-intermediate and intermediate

NH: *How would you describe the overall course curriculum of this class that I visited yesterday?*

TB: We're teaching English in the Business context. We work on reading passages focusing on business topics, also vocabulary related to business field..... the book includes listening and grammar exercises and practice activities with focus on business situations..... We also do functional writing like CVs, cover letters and memos.

NH: So let's discuss grammar, how do you teach grammar in your class? **{In. Q. 1(3)}**

TB: Mmmmm..... there are different ways..... I write sentences on the board I put a lot of examples on the board and try to get them to think out loud asking 'What do you notice... what do these examples have in common.....' in this way I help them bring the rule out...like this they have the examples and then the rule on the board and like that it's clear

NH: *Have you always used these techniques when teaching grammar....from the time you commenced teaching I mean.*

TB: No actually I remember when at first I started teaching I used to put the rule on the board at the beginning of the lesson and..... I explain it to students and then we solve exercises. Then a more experienced teacher told me to try and get students to guess the rule and gave me some tips..... that technique was better for my teaching after that because it makes students think about the grammar lesson I'm teaching and understand it better till we come up with the rule.

NH: How do you help students improve their accuracy when using a grammatical structure that you've taught them? **{In. Q. 1(4)}**

TB: I was teaching the conditionals yesterday and sometimes students when they have to add a verb, they just put anything without reading the sentence carefully... I put the sentence on board, I tell them they have to read the sentence till the end, understand it, have it work in their minds Sometimes questions are tricky and they have to make choices.... I ask them why they did this?.... I try to make them explain the rule and they figure their mistake

NH: Now let's talk about your oral interaction with students inside the classroom while teaching. In your opinion, how important is oral error correction during classroom interaction between teachers and students? **{In. Q. 2(1)}**

TB: It's very important..... I ask them [the whole class] 'what do you think of what he/she said?' ... if they say 'That's wrong', I write sentence on the board and ask them 'ok, how can we correct this?' I ask the person who made the mistake 'Why did you say that?' do you have another choice?' ... the aim here is to make him think again.... If they don't get the right answer I can ask someone else to explain or correct This until answer is reached.... The whole class will benefit.... This way they understand and it helps them get better marks in their quizzes because all students are worried about their GPA at the end of the semester.

NH: Do you always correct student errors during classroom interaction? **{In. Q. 2(2)}**

TB: Yes I always correct...I'm always afraid they get it in the exam and repeat the same mistake again.... I repeat again and again 'did you get the message? Did you understand?' ... I remember at school I had a teacher who left a lot of our mistakes not corrected, this made me feel very uncomfortable and I was always afraid when I was studying for the exams

NH: *Are you sure if you ask them, did you get it or did you understand.... And they tell you yes for example, that they have actually recognized the error and understood?*

TB: When we move to solving an exercise I make sure to pick the same student to answer one of the questions to make sure s/he has actually understood.

NH: When you try to orally correct students' errors in class, do you provide the correction or do you guide them to correct the errors themselves? **{In. Q. 2(3)}**

TB: I guess I'm using the 2nd one, guiding them, because as I mentioned I write the wrong answer on the board and I want the student himself to figure it out ... I don't say this is wrong and we have to put this to correct it.... I leave the wrong form and the same student or rest of the class have to figure out the mistake

NH: *How do you think you can guide students to correct their oral errors without writing on the board?*

TB: I can repeat the mistake out loudand ask them 'does it make sense?' If for example there is something in the past and the students says it in the future, I can stress on the part.....if he realizes mistake I can then put the correction on the board....with grammar it's important to correct on the board..... I remember my French teacher used to do that at college. It helped me concentrate on the mistake.... In vocabulary sometimes I write the correct word and others I don't... it depends

NH: What techniques do you use for correcting students' grammatical errors during oral classroom interaction? **{In. Q. 2(4)}**

TB: Ok... I can get them to solve more exercises ... get extra exercises from the internet.

NH: *Let's focus on what you do on the spot inside the classroom?*

TB: As I mentioned before, I put examples on the board... in some grammatical lessons you have to post the rule on the board... like yesterday during the conditionals lesson. I wrote the rules on the board and always referred to them.. it helps students remember the rules and answer better in exams.

NH: *So what do you do during interaction? Students are practicing a grammatical structure through an oral activity and produce it orally wrong.... What are your techniques for correcting that on the spot?*

TB: If someone mentions something wrong I can write it as it is on the board ...and I ask the person can you have another look at the sentence and sometimes they figure it out..... they realize there's something wrong... even if they don't know the right answer they recognize some kind of mistake..... Also other students recognize the mistake and start correcting it.... When other students correct it, the student who made the mistake can notice the difference. ...

NH: *Do you use any other oral correction techniques, other than using the board?*

TB: In grammar lessons I have to write on the board because I have to make examples clear in front of them... it's like maths sometimes In reading I don't have to write... in vocabulary sometimes I need to write and sometimes not... it depends

NH: Do you think students notice when you implicitly correct their errors? I mean when you try to correct their oral errors indirectly..... How can you tell if they have noticed? **{In. Q. 2(5)}**

TB: Yes they do..... one thing is the look they have on their faces.... You can see they are thinking, and double-checking the answer in their mind definitely shows on their faces....

NH: *So facial expression is a sign.... Any other reaction you can think of that might tell you they have noticed your indirect correction of the errors?*

TB: Well..... [silence for 6 second].... I believe the look on their face will let me know... and if I feel they did not notice I can correct again.

NH: How can you decide whether your error treatment is effective for learners to acquire the correct information? **{In. Q. 2(6)}**

TB: Because I believe if they make a mistake in class and we correct it this way it sticks to their mind.....

NH: *What do you mean?*

TB: If they mentioned the wrong answer and I correct it right away, saying this is the correct answer, they're just going to memorize it... but if I make them think about it or think why they did it wrong, it will stick in their minds ... so when they come to study for exam they'll remember the mistake and discussion till we got the correction ...

NH: Do you think attracting attention to students' errors and correcting them in front of their colleagues might make them uncomfortable? What can the teacher do to try and avoid that? {In. Q. 2(7)}

TB: It depends on the way the teacher does this... if a student makes a mistake I don't just say 'this is wrong'.... It is also very important not to make fun of them because this happens from a lot of teachers..... I write the mistake on the board and try to smile and look at the whole class asking 'what do you think?' Or I look at this student and ask 'are you sure of your answer?' .. So they are going to think that there's something wrong.... But I never say 'that's wrong?' when they make a mistake.... this can make them not want to answer again.... Sometimes they say maybe, we're not sure! And they start smiling. This way I don't have to address him/her specifically, I'm addressing the whole classroom

NH: *Interesting that you're saying correction might put students off from answering and participating.... Why do you think that is?*

TB: As I've said, making fun and embarrassing students in front of their colleagues can hurt their feelings... this thing is very sensitive I think..... a lot of people don't like to be told they are wrong, I think this is in human nature not only for students.... [teacher laughs].... So we have to be very careful how we let students know that they made a mistake without making them feel bad in order to stay active in class and continue participating

NH: Well, this brings us to the end of our interview. Thank you very much [teacher's name] for your input, it has been quite enlightening. Do you have any questions for me?

TB: No, thank you very much.... As I told you before I'm looking forward to my work on this research and hoping to benefit from it.

(End of transcript)

Appendix T (continued)

Sample coding frame for Teacher B: Based on the interview transcript + video recorded pre-intervention observation of her classroom teaching

Interview questions	1. Summary of teacher's <u>stated beliefs</u> during the interview (summarized parts are colour coded in the transcript for ease of referencing)	2. Pre-intervention observation notes focusing on <u>classroom practice</u>	3. Whether <u>stated beliefs & classroom practice</u> are SIMILAR OR DIFFERENT	Initial coding	Focused coding
Interview questions 1(3) & 1(4)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writing sentences & examples on board Students analyze what the examples have in common Students figure out function and form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher writes different conditional sentences on board and elicits use and form from students 	SIMILAR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inductive approach to grammar teaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher's approach to teaching grammar
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Writes wrong sentence on board Students read sentence + understand + apply rule 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mistakes were addressed mostly on the board Teacher elicits from students mistake + elicits correction based on rule written on board 	SIMILAR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inductive teaching Students correct Use of board 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Significance of correcting students' errors in class
Interview question 2(1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> V. Important Guides students to correct errors on board Includes whole class in correction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> T puts errors on board and refers to rule Majority of CF episodes teacher guided students to correct Included whole class in the correction of errors most of the time 	SIMILAR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of board Students guided to correct errors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High frequency of error correction during classroom interaction

Interview question 2(2)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Always corrects Worries about exams Anxiety due to lack of corrective feedback when she was a learner 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 24 / 25 grammatical errors corrected 6 / 8 lexical errors corrected NO phonological errors corrected 	SIMILAR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High frequency of error correction Exam oriented teaching Past learning experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Knowledge and use of CF techniques
Interview questions 2(3) & 2(4)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> One reference to repeating the mistake out loud to guide students to correct Constant reference to using the board for error correction Relating using the board for correction to her experience as a learner. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 18 / 24 grammatical errors corrected on the board throughout the lesson. Teacher writes erroneous sentences on board for students to correct. 	SIMILAR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Constant use of board for correction Limited knowledge of OCF techniques Past learning experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How exam oriented teaching affects teachers' error correction (OTHER) Past learning experience and the provision of CF (OTHER)
Interview questions 2(5) & 2(6)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher repeatedly refers to facial expressions as an indication that students noticed the intent behind CF 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher wrote sentences on board and asked students to identify errors No implicit correction Corrective intent always evident. 	Different	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of board for correction Limited knowledge of CF techniques No evident awareness of uptake and repair 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teachers' awareness of the effect of CF
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CF is effective when students think about error and correct it, information sticks in their minds for exams 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Teacher puts errors on board and tries to get students to correct it 	SIMILAR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Importance of guiding students to correct errors. Exam 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The affective dimension of correcting students' errors

				oriented teaching	
Interview question 2(7)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher shouldn't use 'that's wrong' following students' errors. • Don't make fun of students / embarrass them following their errors. • Encourage whole class to participate in error correction. • Error correction is a very sensitive issue • If error correction isn't done tactfully it could demotivate students. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher didn't use 'that's wrong' following errors • Encouraged all students to participate in error correction by putting errors on board • Smiling, giving students thumbs up when they try to correct, and used words like 'very good' 	SIMILAR	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sensitivity in dealing with errors. 	