"Language teachers' perceptions of oral error correction: Why do they correct in the way that they do?"

Eman Alshammari

Doctor of Philosophy

University of York

Education

July 2019

Abstract

Previous studies investigating methods of providing oral corrective feedback (OCF) have found that 'recasting' is the most frequently used, though learners are usually less aware of it compared to other forms. Most studies on OCF have been carried out in contexts with adult learners in classrooms with relatively communicative aims where recasts have been used to maintain the flow of communication and reduce the anxiety that more direct OCFs can cause, with little focus placed on the role of the teacher in the selection of the form of OCF used. Thus, the frequency of use of recasting as an OCF method in less communicative contexts with adolescent school learners is poorly understood, as well as teachers' motivation for providing different forms of OCF. The current study aimed to better understand teachers by investigating their perceptions and use of different types of OCF in the Saudi secondary school context, where sustaining communicative interaction and reducing explicit correction are not as prioritised as explicitly focussing on form, rules, and translation.

Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. Qualitatively, 10 teachers participated in one-to-one interviews, a total of 100 hours of systematic, audio-recorded observation; and 100 stimulated recall (SR) sessions; quantitatively, 207 teacher questionnaires were collected from teachers throughout Saudi Arabia. These methods allowed for an in-depth exploration of the teachers' perceptions and behaviours in use of OCF.

Recasting was found to be the most commonly used OCF in this context, despite the differences in the instructional goals (e.g. less communicative aims). It appears that in this foreign language (FL) context, the general patterns of OCF were not wildly different to those found in other, more communicatively-oriented contexts investigated to date, yet the teachers' justifications for their use of OCF may be different. The study concluded with some recommendations for FL teachers practice.

LIST OF CONTENTS

Table of Tables

Table of Figures

List of terms

CLT: communicative language teaching

EFL: English as a foreign language

ESL: English as a second language

FL: foreign language

L1:   first language

L2:   second language

OCF: oral corrective feedback

SAT: skill acquisition theory

SLL: second language learning

SR: stimulated recall

TESOL: teaching English to speakers of other languages

Acknowledgment

I'm grateful to Allah for enlightening my life path and giving me the health and strength to keep going throughout my life.

A huge thank you goes to my wonderful parents for their endless love and support which has encouraged me to finish my studies. I would like to deeply thank my lovely sister, and brothers for their outstanding support, love and prayers. I would also like to express my heartfelt gratitude, love and thanks to my kids (Talal and Thikra) whose love inspired me during this journey. They were challenging years but worth the hard work.

Many thanks go to all my research participants; without them, I would not have been able to carry out my research. I would especially like to thank my 10 core participants for their incredible support and patience, which has enabled me to complete my research successfully.

I would also like to thank my two examiners, Dr Jan Hardman and Dr Alison Porter, for their insightful feedback which undoubtedly helped to improve my thesis. Special thanks must go to my research supervisor, Emma Marsden, for her invaluable guidance, support and patience.

I would like to thank Suma and her son for their outstanding help, and kindness in helping to make the OCF videos that I needed to insert into my questionnaire. I would also like to thank Lisa and Jayme for their insightful feedback on my PhD thesis.

My sincere gratitude goes to my friends in England and Saudi Arabia for their generous support and kindness.

Last but not least, I would thank the Saudi government for their advice and financial guarantee during my PhD studies.

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter summarises the main aims of the study and research questions; briefly describes the context of the study; lays out the key rationales behind the current study; and provides an outline of the design and methods.

1.1 The main aims of the study and research questions

The main aim of this study is to investigate teachers' perceptions of, and preferences for, different types of oral error correction, with a focus on recasting in particular, with the following research questions:

1. What are English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' perceptions of, and attitudes towards, different types of OCF?

2. What types of oral error correction do the teachers use and why?

    2.1. How do learners respond to these different types of OCF in terms of correcting their productions?

    2.2. How do the following factors influence teachers' use of oral error correction?

        2.2.1   Teachers' perceptions of learners' proficiency?

        2.2.2   Type of language errors?

        2.2.3   Teachers' length of experience?

1.2 Rationales for the study

1.2.1 The context of teaching English in Saudi schools

Amount and frequency of English lessons. In the past, Saudi students did not start learning English until they were 12 years old (in intermediate schools), unless they attended private schools in which case they started learning English at the age of 6. Currently, and since 2012, English lessons are delivered in all primary-schools as well as intermediate and secondary public schools (Faruk, 2013). However, English is taught four times a week in intermediate and secondary state schools, and twice a week in primary schools, for approximately 40-45 minutes per class (Alrashid, and Phan, 2015; Al-Sadan, 2000; Al-Seghayer, 2014b; Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, 2006).

Curriculum and teaching approach. The English curriculum in Saudi has undergone several revisions in an attempt to improve the process of teaching English; however, the outcomes have been considered to be below the national expectations with regard to learners' language level (Al-Seghayer, 2005, 2014a, 2014b). The four main reasons for this were related to "beliefs, components of curriculum, and pedagogical and administrative constraints" (Al-Seghayer, 2014a, p.17). Furthermore, English teachers in Saudi schools must adhere to the curriculum provided by the Ministry of Education (Allehyani, Burnapp, & Wilson, 2017), with limited instruction time and large class sizes (30-40 students) (Al-Seghayer, 2014; Li, 1998). The limited teaching freedom and low contact level may contribute to an observed absence of listening and speaking exercises in Saudi classes.

Although the aim of teaching English is to promote students' English communicative abilities (Allehyani, Burnapp, & Wilson, 2017; Faruk, 2014), previous research has shown that teaching in these and similar contexts often follows a more traditional context with a focus on grammar and translation (Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Alshammari, 2012; Harmer, 2003; Harmer, 2007; Li, 1998).

Testing. The importance given to grammatical competence within this context must be considered, as assessment places heavy emphasis on written grammar and reading to the exclusion of listening and speaking skills. The minimum mark to pass English language assessments in schools is 50% (Al-Sadan, 2000, p.152; Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission, 2006). This emphasis on written grammar and spelling is likely to explain why the grammar and translation teaching approach is popular while speaking is omitted in the Saudi context (Alharbi, 2015; Alshammari, 2012; Li, 1998).

This picture of Saudi classrooms has been corroborated by previous research in Saudi contexts (Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Alshammari, 2012; Hamouda, 2013). The research showed that English teaching in the Saudi context was generally 'traditional', that is, it was largely based on grammar and translation teaching methods, with little time spent on oral interaction. Therefore, learners observed in this context usually only spoke to the teacher in response to a question. Moreover, their answers were normally very short, such as responding to a request or to give the past tense of the verb "go",

and it was very rare that students spoke directly to each other. Thus, the teacher was the one who did most of the speaking, while the students were primarily listeners (Alharbi, 2015; Harmer, 2003).

In sum, previous data has demonstrated that due to issues such as teachers abiding by the curriculum provided by the Ministry of education, limited class time, big classes size, and the grammar-based examination might had considerable impact on students' limited chances to improve students' communicative skills and that instruction method is primarily focused on form (Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Alshammari, 2013; Li, 1998).

1.2.2 Previous research into OCF and differences with the current Saudi EFL school context

Theoretical origins of most previous research into OCF. The underpinning rationale of error correction research to date has emerged from a body of research stemming from input-based and interaction-based learning theories. Such theories underpinned the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which stressed the importance of interaction and the communication of genuine meaning.

Frequency of recasts. Given these communicative aims, recasts - a type of corrective feedback that provides a correct version of a learners' erroneous utterance without changing the intended meaning - became a prominent part of research into CLT as recasts were thought to reduce interruptions in communication. There is consensus among researchers that, although recasting was thought to be the method that learners were least aware of as an error correction strategy and recasts often led to the least uptake of corrections, recasting was actually the most commonly used form of oral feedback (Al-Faki, 2013; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2014; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothooft, 2014; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008).

Reasons for using recasts in previous, more communicative-based research. Previous studies such as Kamiya (2016), Yoshida (2008) and Roothooft (2014), have all shown that recasting, as reported by teachers, helps to avoid triggering negative emotions

and also maintains the flow of communication. Furthermore, teachers felt this method helped save time, aided the learners if they were unable to correct themselves, and avoided embarrassment of the learners when speaking in front of their peers (Yoshida, 2008). For instance, one of the teachers reported the importance of prioritising "fluency instead of grammar/vocabulary perfection" (Roothooft, 2014, p.71).

From the results of such studies, teachers' justified their OCF practice as favoring recasts over the other OCF types, at least in those more meaning-based contexts.

Teachers' perceptions on the effectiveness of prompts. Research undertaken by previous studies in the area of OCF effectiveness and teachers' choices has shown that, according to teachers' views, the use of prompts (defined in Chapter Two) are considered to be more beneficial for their learners. However, they nonetheless voiced concerns that this type of correction may interrupt learners and consequently have an adverse effect on their responses (Al-Faki, 2013; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2014; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothooft, 2014; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008). As noted above, this could explain why recasting in communicative-based contexts, despite it being the most implicit form of correction, was also the most frequently used correction method by teachers in these studies.

Effectiveness of recasts. Interestingly, despite their frequency and the reasons given by teachers for using recasts, the evidence for the effectiveness of recasts is somewhat inconclusive (Goo & Mackey, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 2013). Some previous research on the effects of various types of oral corrections (Chapter Two) suggests that recasts are not always an effective form of error correction. Thus, the current study will contribute to better understanding teachers' OCF in the classroom, such as whether, and if so why, recasting is a common form of oral feedback used.

Potentially significant differences between the Saudi EFL school context and previous contexts in which OCF has been investigated. The context of the current study was different from that of previous research, which was predominantly communicative-based in which oral interactions are frequent as oral fluency is one goal of the instruction (discussed further in the literature review, Chapter Two). In contrast to previous OCF research, in the current study, English teaching in Saudi schools is

"generally characterised by focus on knowledge transmission; classroom interaction is largely dominated by teachers" (Al-Seghayer, 2014a, p.20). That is, its primary focus was exposure to information, such as grammatical rules, followed by practice. It has been argued that instruction that focuses on form - as is the case in many EFL contexts (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Li, 1998) including the current study context - means that priority is given to correcting mistakes to instil good habits to improve learning (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Harmer, 2003; Harmer, 2007). Therefore, directly and explicitly treating students' errors in EFL contexts could be seen by teachers as extremely important. This suggests that error correction may be different in such contexts, relying less on indirect and implicit means, and more on direct and explicit means.

Amount of learner interaction in the current context compared to previous research investigating OCF. Lack of involvement of students is another feature of some foreign language learning contexts, whereby the teachers are often regarded as the centre of information and students as passive receivers. One effect of this is that grammar and translation are the main elements taught and the main aim is grammatical competence. This is in contrast to more communicative-based approaches, which encourage the incorporation of personal experience throughout language learning (Harmer, 2003; Harmer, 2007). The priority of CLT is communication in the target language, with an emphasis on oral communication, thus giving ample opportunities for 'errors' and negotiation around and correction of those errors whilst negotiation to understand genuine meaning takes place.

However, several factors may hinder learners from participating in some FL contexts. Hamouda (2013) in his questionnaire-based study on 160 undergraduate learners in Qassim, Saudi Arabia, argues that such factors include: learners having insufficient confidence to speak in public, being concerned regarding errors, avoiding negative-feedback, shyness, poor language level, and learners not being well-prepared. These contexts, with less genuine oral communication, are not well understood in terms of precisely how much interaction takes place, or the amount and type of opportunities for errors and error correction.

Brief summary. In sum, the context for the current study was form-focused involving a great deal of controlled practice leading to more fluent use, likely underpinned by skill acquisition theory (SAT). Consequently, in this approach, there may be fewer interactions, fewer oral errors, and different ways of correcting errors, and different reasons for using OCF. For example, the reasons given by teachers in previous studies for using recasts to avoid interrupting learners may not apply in the Saudi school EFL context and as a result, recasts may not be the most common OCF, as there is little oral interaction to 'interrupt' (no need to keep the communication flowing, as there was little genuine communication). The current study sought to investigate issues relating to relationships between types of OCF selected, the reasons behind this selection, in this particular context when interaction is limited.

1.2.3 Further personal, anecdotal, and contextual rationales

In addition to these rationales, addressing gaps in previous literature, there were further personal, anecdotal rationales for the current study. My interest in learning about teachers' perceptions with regard to their methods of teaching English for communicative purposes began during my early experiences as a learner, where I found myself in a context that was primarily concerned with learning grammatical rules, without using English to communicate in or outside the classroom. I did not really start using English to communicate until after I graduated from the Literature and English Department at the University of Hail, Saudi Arabia, and travelled to the UK to pursue my Masters (Alshammari, 2013). This study described and discussed the movement towards learning English for communication, being implemented in Saudi Arabia. Specifically, the study investigated teachers' perceptions and students' preferences with regard to CLT, and was based on observations, questionnaires of teachers and students, and interviews with teachers. It showed that, although both the teachers and students had a desire for students to communicate using English during lessons, there was a mismatch between the teachers' preferences and their actual practices. The current PhD research therefore expounds upon the teachers' perceptions to investigate why and how they should correct their students' oral errors, and whether this is related to their students' perceived characteristics, such as their perceived language proficiency, or other features, such as the type of oral errors and time limitations.

1.3 Outline of the design and methods of the study

To address these issues, a substantial number of observations, SR sessions, and questionnaires were needed to investigate instructors' choices of OCF types. This involved two main sets of data.

First, a set of data from a 'core' group of 10 teachers, in 4 schools. This involved collecting data from 100 classroom observations. These audio-recorded observations were used as stimuli for 100 SRs, so that teachers were helped to remember what happened in their lessons. The observations were also coded using a systematic coding sheet. The teachers' views expressed in their SRs were compared with opinions expressed during one to one interviews with the same teachers. These interviews took place after all the observations and the SR sessions had been completed, so as to reduce the chances that teachers' opinions or behaviours changed during the observations as a result of topics being discussed in these one-to-one interviews.

In addition, to collect a wider set of views about OCF practices, a second set of data was collected from 207 teachers teaching English in Saudi intermediate (year 7 to year 10 students), and secondary (year 10 to year 12 students) schools, who completed a questionnaire about their views on OCF. As part of the online questionnaire, videos showing examples of each type of OCF were included, so that teachers could clearly identify each type of OCF, as intended by the researcher, and give their opinions accordingly.

1.4 Organization of the thesis

The thesis is organised as follows:

Chapter 2 is the literature review which provides a) a description of taxonomies of OCF types and their definitions, b) a review of previous studies on the relation between teachers' cognition and their practices, c) a review of OCF practices in classes, and d) a description of SAT that likely underpins the teaching approach in the

context of the current study and may be useful for explaining the kinds of classroom practices observed.

Chapter 3 outlines the methods employed in the current study. It provides a detailed account of participants, and methods applied in both the pilot and main study. Finally, there is a discussion regarding the validity and reliability of methods in terms of their effectiveness in answering the research questions.

Chapter 4, and Chapter 5 present the results and analysis of the current research divided into three chapters according to the two main RQs with a brief summary after each main section of results.

Chapter 4 (RQ1 Findings and Discussion) presents and discusses the results relating to the first research question regarding teachers' perceptions of OCF different forms. It covers data from a) the teachers' questionnaires that comprised about 207 participants, and b) the interviews for the core ten participants.

Chapter 5 (RQ2 Findings and Discussion) presents and discusses the results the 100 class observations and SR sessions for the ten core teachers to answer the second RQ: What type of OCF was used and why? How did the students respond? This is discussed in relation teachers' views in Chapter 4 taking into consideration three variables which are: a) students' language proficiency as perceived by teachers, b) type of the error, and c) length of teachers' experience.

Chapter 6 (Overall Discussion) discusses the key outcomes of the current research in light of the previous research.

Chapter 7 (Conclusion) revisits key findings of the research, discusses limitations of the study, draws potential implications for practice, and makes recommendations for further studies.

Chapter Two: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the relevant literature related to this research. Firstly, in section 2.2, the types of OCF will be defined. This is followed in 2.3 by an explanation of SAT, as this is argued to be the model of learning that would underpin OCF within the largely form-focused context of the current study. Next, in section 2.4, there is a general review of whether and how language teachers' cognition compares to their in-class behaviour, and what might affect the relationship between teacher views and teacher behaviour. The chapter then moves on, in section 2.5, to focus on 'unplanned' episodes in classes, specifically during episodes of errors in learners' oral production and the OCF that the teachers then engage in. This is the most central part of the chapter, and the largest section. It includes discussion of some of the wide range of factors that might determine this kind of behaviour, such as learner proficiency in sub-section 2.5.1, context in sub-section 2.5.2, and teacher experience in 2.5.3. Followed by a brief discussion about why recast was the most common type according to previous studies, in section 2.6, as indicated in the previous section 2.5. The next section, 2.7, briefly discusses students' noticing of and reaction to different types of OCF (e.g., whether they correct their errors in 'uptake'), as this may provide insight into teachers' OCF behaviour and it may suggest the potential impact of their OCF behaviour on learners' productions and (potentially) their learning. The chapter closes, in section 2.8, with a summary of how the current study addresses gaps in the literature to date.

2.2 Definitions of OCF types

2.2.1 Definitions of OCF types according to previous research

There has been much discussion and categorisation of the various types of OCF. Here I focus on the main categories that have been proposed, as these categories informed the research questions and the development of the data elicitation tools.

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), interactional correction has been divided, in general, into six popular categories: explicit corrections, recasts, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitations, and repetitions. Many other researchers have

agreed with this categorisation and given similar definitions for each of these types (e.g. Ellis, 2009; Lee, 2013; Safari, 2013; Sheen, 2004). See Table 2.1 for a summary of these categories and illustrations of each.

Lyster and Saito (2010) divided these types of OCF into two broader categories called: (a) elicitations/prompts; and (b) reformulations/recasts, a division which the current study will draw upon.

(a) *Elicitations/prompts:* Prompts/elicitations include metalinguistic-feedback, repetitions, elicitations, and clarification requests. They all encourage the learner to supply the accurate utterance themselves. The teacher (or interlocutor) does not provide the accurate utterance (the correction) for the learner; instead they supply the learner with clues to self-correct (Lyster & Saito, 2010) (see Table 2.1 for examples).

(b) *Reformulations/recasts:* Reformulations involve recasting the learner's erroneous production to provide the correct production. They can be with or without explicit corrective information and with or without prompting the learner, though most studies report very few instances of explicit correction alongside recasts in the classroom (Brown, 2016, p. 441). That is, recasts provide students with the corrected forms of their ill-formed utterances (Lyster & Saito, 2010; Ranta & Lyster, 2007). 'Reformulations' and 'recasts' are terms that are used interchangeably in the current thesis and in most literature on OCF, but the term 'recast' is mostly used here.

Table 2.1: Definitions of oral feedback (Adapted from Lee, 2013)

Main feedback types	Sub-type feedback types	Definition of sub-sub-type feedback types	Examples
1. Reformulations/ recasts	1. Explicit correction	1. Explicit correction: Indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error, and provides the correction.	S: On May. T: Not *on* May, *in* May. We say, 'It will start in May'.
	2. Recast	2. Recast: Reformulates all or part of the incorrect word or phrase to show the correct form without explicitly identifying the error.	S: I have to find the answer on the book? T: In the book.
2. Prompts/ elicitations	3. Metalinguistic feedback	3. Metalinguistic feedback: Gives technical linguistic information about the error without explicitly providing the correct answer.	S: There are influence person who. T: Influence is a noun.
	4. Elicitation/ prompts	4. Clarification request: Indicates that the student's utterance was not understood and asks that the student reformulate it.	S: What do you spend with your wife? T: What? (Or, Sorry? Or, Pardon?)
		5. Elicitation: 'It entails direct questions' (see first example on the right) 'or pauses that allow students to complete the teacher's utterance' (see second	(1) T: How do we say that in French? (2) S: This tea is very warm. (3) T: It's very…?

| | | example on the right) (Lyster, 2004, p. 405). | (4) S: Hot. |
| | | 6. Repetition: Repeats the student's error while highlighting the error or mistake by means of emphatic stress. | S: I will showed you. T: I will showed you? S: I'll show you. (Adapted from Lee, 2013). |

Ellis (2009) added another type of corrective feedback called 'paralinguistic signals' (p. 9). This kind of feedback involves identification of the errors by using gestures or facial expressions. For example:

L: Yesterday I go cinema.

T: (Gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate the past).

Implicit vs explicit correction: Ellis (2009) divided these types of corrections into two main groups based on whether they were explicit or implicit. Accordingly, recasts, repetitions, and clarification requests were classified as implicit (as teachers do not explicitly flag the error to the learner for these types of correction). The explicit group included explicit corrections, metalinguistic explanations, elicitations, and paralinguistic signals. However, recasting can be categorised as a type of explicit feedback because the corrector can add prompts such as stressing the corrected word or can combine it with another form of correction (e.g. repetition) (Ellis, 2009).

Reformulations, elicitations, and other: A slightly different typology was introduced by Nassaji (2007). He divided the types of correction into three major classifications: reformulations, elicitations, and other. According to his classification, reformulating involves reformulating a student's ill-formed production into the correct formulation. The significant feature of this type of correction is that learners are given the target-like utterance. As for elicitations, these do not provide learners with target-like utterances but encourage them to self-correct. Nassaji's 'other' classification includes 'explicit corrections and repetitions' (in declarative sentences), as well as 'negotiations for communicative purposes'. Although correcting errors explicitly

means that students do receive the target-like forms, it is not included in the reformulation category because it entails clearly identifying errors for students. In terms of negotiation for communicative purposes, this occurs when a learner makes an error, but the teacher focuses on the meaning. Furthermore, this type of correction does not give learners the opportunity to self-correct and does not prompt them to reformulate their utterances; rather, it includes further questions related to the content (Nassaji, 2007). For instance:

Learner: I goed to the park.

Corrector: Really!! When did you go?

Metalinguistic feedback vs metalinguistic clues: Nassaji (2007) also distinguished between 'metalinguistic feedback' and 'metalinguistic clues' (p. 526). In defining these terms, the former refers to corrective feedback in which errors are corrected explicitly using metalinguistic information, while the latter involves using only metalinguistic clues to prompt learners to self-correct. Accordingly, the first type was classified as explicit feedback and the latter as elicitation.

Are prompts and elicitations the same thing? Although Lyster (2004) used the word prompts to refer to elicitations, Nassaji (2007) used the terms prompts and elicitations in a different way, specifically defining prompts as extra emphasis, oral hints, and non-verbal gestures. Moreover, prompts were used to differentiate between different levels of reformulations, as well as different levels of elicitations.

Isolated vs embedded recast: Recasts have also been subdivided into different sub-types. For example, the term 'isolated recast' used by Lyster (1998) indicates a reformulation of the erroneous production on its own or with the rest of the sentence, whereas Nassaji (2007) defined it as a reformulation of the incorrect part only, rather than the whole of the production. As for repetition of the whole production in a target-like form, Nassaji (2007) referred to this as 'embedded recasts' (p. 526).

Further sub-categories of reformulations and elicitations: Furthermore, Nassaji (2007) divided the two major categories of reformulations and elicitations into sub-categories.

'Elicitation' was divided into five fundamental sub-categories, the first of which was 'unmarked elicitation', which refers to a type of correction that uses elicitation to push learners into re-forming an erroneous utterance, without emphasising it or referring to it (Nassaji, 2007, p. 528). This is mostly done using clarification requests (e.g. 'Sorry, what?'). The second of these sub-categories was 'marked elicitation', which involves prompting learners to re-form an erroneous utterance simply by repeating the erroneous utterance with a rising intonation (p. 528). Thirdly, 'marked elicitation + prompt' is a sub-category that involves encouraging learners to re-form an erroneous utterance by emphasising or referring to it in the form of an interrogative repetition with additional oral prompts. An example of this would be, 'Could you say that again?', so students are prompted to reply (Nassaji, 2007, p. 528). The fourth sub-type, 'marked elicitation + enhanced prompt', involves pushing learners to re-form an erroneous utterance by emphasising it or using it in the form of interrogative repetition, whilst also incorporating extra salient metalinguistic or oral prompts, which are intended to help learners notice that they have made an error. The last type is called 'elliptical elicitation' and is defined as a sub-type of elicitation in which the corrector repeats a learner's production and stops before the erroneous production, allowing the student to produce the corrected word.

The sub-categories defined in Nassaji's (2007) second major category – 'reformulation' – will be discussed further in the 'Classification of recasting' (Section 2.2.3). Recasting has been found to be one of the most frequency OCFs in classrooms, and, as such, further discussion of this type of OCF is given here.

2.2.2 Definition and features of recasting

Recast definition: Recasting is a type of correction where students receive target-like productions after they utter non-target productions (Mackey, 2012; 2007). Researchers have suggested that there are various aspects involved in the efficacy of recasting, such as its saliency (Mackey, 2012; 2007), and there is an increasing amount of studies that regard the flexibility of recasting as a benefit, enabling researchers to divide it into different dimensions to explore their impact. Examples of this include the impact of the length and number of changes/corrections on students'

responses after a recast is provided on their second language acquisition (SLA), as measured via individual 'post-tests' (Mackey, 2012, p. 15).

Studies investigating the effects of recast on learners' uptake: Given that recasts do not force learners to correct their own language, researchers have been interested in the extent to which recasts actually promote 'uptake' – that is, when learners repeat the corrected language. Several studies have investigated whether learners repeat the reformulation that was supplied for them. Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted a study concerning teachers' oral error correction in the classroom and learners' reactions. They concluded that recasting is the most commonly used method for correcting students' errors, but it is also considered to be the least noticed one by students, as the authors found 0% accurate uptake followed recasts. They added that 'elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetition' (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 56) were all found to be more successful and effective than recasting, particularly in encouraging the students' ability to notice their errors and to correct them. Mackey (2007) has pointed out that recasting may not be advantageous for SLA because it can be interpreted by students as focusing on content rather than form.

Furthermore, Mackey (2007), after reviewing studies by Loewen and Nabei (2007), and Kim and Han (2007), identified a significant characteristic of recasting – namely, that an interlocutor may not give students sufficient opportunity to correct their errors after the recast because, for example, the interlocutor will continue to answer the students' question or continue the interaction in another way. Although potentially depriving learners of an opportunity to repeat the correct language, this is in fact argued to be one of the beneficial features of recasting, because it does not require learners to correct their utterances and so does not disturb the fluency of interaction. Thus, recasts are considered to be a highly appropriate form of OCF in situations where maintaining communicative interaction is important.

Recast features that make the OCF salient: However, it has been suggested that there are some features of recasting that can help to make it clearer, such as when a teacher only focuses on the erroneous production – for instance, when a learner says, 'I eated my meal' and a teacher responds by saying 'ate', thus repeating only the corrected

error rather than the whole utterance. Moreover, there are other features of recasting that can make it more explicit, such as repeating the erroneous utterance 'with rising intonation' and following it with the corrected utterance of the error (Mackey, 2007, p. 18). In these situations, recasts become, arguably, more 'explicit' to the learner (more obvious as an OCF). Thus, in some circumstances, recasts can interrupt the interaction, as they increase the chances of a learner repeating the reformulation.

2.2.3 Classifications of recasting

Different sub-classifications of recasts have been developed, by, for example, Nassaji (2007) and Lyser (1998).

Elaborating upon the second of Nassaji's (2007) major classifications, known as 'reformulation', Nassaji divided recasting into six sub-categories:

- The first sub-type, known as 'isolated recast – prompt', is defined as a reformulation of the erroneous part of the utterance in a confirmatory tone without any prompt, such as emphasising the incorrect part or prompting the student to reply (Nassaji, 2007, p. 527).

- The second sub-type is called 'isolated recast + prompt', which is similar to the previous sub-type in that only the incorrect part of the utterance is repeated in the correct form. However, it differs in that it occurs in a rising intonation and/or with additional prompts, such as extra emphasis to prompt learners to reply to the correction (Nassaji, 2007, p. 527).

- Thirdly, 'embedded recast – prompt' involves a reformulation of the whole utterance in a confirmatory tone, with no emphasis on the erroneous part to prompt learners to reply.

- The fourth sub-type, 'embedded recast + prompt', is a reformulation of the whole utterance in a rising intonation with or without additional emphasis to prompt students to reply to the correction.

- The fifth sub-type is referred to as 'recast + enhanced prompts' and includes a reformulation of the erroneous production using a rising intonation and/or extra emphasis in addition to oral prompts (e.g., Does that refer to …?) (Nassaji, 2007, p. 528).

- Finally, 'recast + expansion' involves a reformulation of the erroneous production. In most instances, this is done with additional input in a falling intonation and without adding a prompt (Nassaji, 2007, p. 528).

Lyster (1998) classified recasts into four important types, which are as follows:

- The first one is defined as follows: 'An isolated declarative recast provides confirmation of a learner's message by correctly reformulating all or part of the utterance with falling intonation and no additional meaning' (p. 58).

- Secondly, 'An isolated interrogative recast seeks confirmation of the learner's message by correctly reformulating all or part of the utterance with rising intonation and no additional meaning' (p. 58).

- Thirdly, 'An incorporated declarative recast provides additional information by incorporating the correct reformulation of all or part of a learner's utterance into a longer statement' (p. 58).

- Fourthly, 'An incorporated interrogative recast seeks additional information by incorporating the correct reformulation of all or part of a learner's utterance into a question' (p. 59).

2.2.4 Classifications and definitions of OCF types used in the current study

The current study adopts the oral feedback classifications identified and recognised by many scholars within the literature (e.g., Ellis, 2009; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Safari, 2013; Sheen, 2004). These have been used to produce my own inventory, which is divided into two broad categories: 1) elicitations/prompts, and 2) reformulations/recasts.

1) Elicitations/prompts: Table 2 provides a detailed breakdown of the classifications and definitions used in the current study.

Table 2.2: Classifications and definitions used in the current study for elicitation/prompts

Definition of prompts/elicitation	Examples
1. **Clarification request:** Indicates that the student's utterance was not understood and asks that the student reformulate it.	S: I goed to the park yesterday. T: What? (Or, Pardon?)
2. **Meta-linguistic clues**: Gives technical linguistic information or clues about the error without explicitly providing the correct answer to elicit the answer from students.	S: I goed to the park yesterday. T: In the past tense 'go' is an irregular verb.
3. **Elicitation + prompt**: Prompts the student to self-correct by pausing with intonation so the student can fill in the correct word or phrase.	S: I goed to the park yesterday. T: <u>I ...</u>?
4. **Elicitation + enhanced prompts**: Involves a request for the student to repeat, correct, or continue.	S: I goed to the park yesterday. T: Can you try to say that again?
5. **Repetition + prompt**: Repeats the student's error while highlighting the error or mistake by means of emphatic stress.	S: I goed to the park yesterday. T: I *goed*?
6. **Repetition + enhanced prompt**: Repeats the student's error while highlighting the error or mistake by means of emphatic stress, in addition to verbal prompt.	S: I goed to the park yesterday. T: Are you sure, I *goed*?
7. **Non-verbal hints** or 'paralinguistic signals', as defined by Ellis (2009): This type of feedback includes identification of the errors by using gestures or facial expressions.	S: I goed to the park yesterday. T: (Teacher gives an unhappy questioning look.)

2) Reformulations/recasts: The definition for reformulations/recasts adopted for the

current study also follows previous research, such as Brown (2016) and Lyster and Ranta (2007), and is closely aligned with Nassaji's (2007) method of classifying recasts into the six sub-types, as discussed previously. Thus, four of the classifications and definitions for the six sub-types given by Nassaji (2007) remain, and two of them were modified and extracted from the literature:

1. **Isolated recast – prompt:** defined as a reformulation of the erroneous part of the utterance in a confirmatory tone without any prompt, such as emphasising the erroneous part or motivating the student to reply (Nassaji, 2007, p. 527). For example:

Student: The woman who stole the purse realised the situation and she ran away more fast.
Teacher: More quickly.

2. **Isolated recast + prompt**: is similar to the previous sub-type in that only the erroneous part of the utterance is repeated in the correct form. However, it differs in that it occurs in a rising intonation and/or with additional prompts, such as extra emphasis to prompt learners to reply to the correction, and/or paralinguistic signals. For example:

Student: The woman who stole the purse realised the situation and she ran away more fast.
Teacher: More quickly?

3. **Embedded recast – prompt:** this type of correction involves a reformulation of the whole utterance in a confirmatory tone, with no emphasis on the erroneous part to prompt learners to reply. For example:

Student: The woman found a police on the street.
Teacher: Okay, the woman found a police officer.

4. **Embedded recast + prompt:** this is a reformulation of the whole utterance in rising intonation and/or with additional emphasis to prompt students to reply to the correction, and/or paralinguistic signals. For example:

Student: The woman found a police on the street.
Teacher: The woman found a *police officer*?

5. **Isolated recast + enhanced prompts:** defined as a reformulation of the erroneous part of the utterance using rising intonation and/or extra emphasis in addition to oral prompts or explanation (e.g., Does that refer to …?) (Nassaji, 2007, p. 528). For example:

Student: At this time the wallet, the wallet fall, um, fall to the ground.
Teacher: Do you mean it *fell*?

6. **Embedded recast + enhanced prompts:** defined as a reformulation of the whole utterance using rising intonation and/or extra emphasis in addition to oral prompts or explanation (e.g. Does that refer to …?). For example:

Student: At this time the wallet, the wallet fall, um, fall to the ground.
Teacher: Do you mean the wallet *fell* to the ground?

2.2.5 Summary of OCF types

In accordance with the previous studies and research on OCF, the types of OCF were predominantly divided into the categories of reformulations/recasts and prompts/elicitations (Brown, 2016; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 2007; Nassaji, 2007). The sub-types relating to the first category presented the correct form of the erroneous production, while the sub-types belonging to the second category prompted students to self-correct their erroneous utterances. Thus, all of the identified sub-types that were divided into the broad categories from recasts/reformulations and elicitations/prompts were used in the current study, in both the observation schedule and in the teachers' questionnaires. Moreover, videos illustrating each of the sub-types of error correction were used within the questionnaire to ensure that the teachers shared a similar understanding of the corrective feedback type about which they were being asked. Transcripts of these videos were also provided, to ensure the participants were as aware as possible of which type of correction is presented.

Having defined the different types of OCF, the next section explains how error correction sits within the broader theme of 'practice' in language learning. That is, how error correction is conceived of from the point of view of learning theory and how it is understood to actually impact on learners' target language (L2) learning in the context of practice and learning within the FL classroom.

2.3 The model of learning likely to underpin the role of oral error correction: skill acquisition

This section considers how corrective feedback sits within different broad approaches to classroom language instruction. It considers how correcting learners' errors is an important characteristic; different ways of correcting errors distinguishes between different approaches to teaching the 'form' (the structure) of language. In turn, these different ways of teaching language form (from more to less explicit) are underpinned by views of language learning as more (or less) like learning a 'skill'. Thus, this section draws upon learning theory (specifically, skill acquisition) to shed light on the role that error correction might have in the classroom, and the kinds of error correction that teachers might tend to use in different contexts, particularly in those where there is limited exposure to the language.

Skill acquisition: There is broad consensus among many researchers that establishing knowledge and practising that knowledge reduces errors and increases the speed of access to knowledge (DeKeyser, 2007). This kind of learning is known as skill acquisition, and is served by "practice". It has been argued that practising is crucial in terms of improving learners' language performance. Practise/use of language includes teachers' responses to learners' errors, as this determines the kinds and amounts of practice that learners have, for particular aspects of the language (such as pronunciation, the lexicon, grammar, pragmatics etc.). Teachers need to decide if correction is needed and, if so, which correction form to use, which in turn influences whether learners are given new knowledge (e.g., metalinguistic information during OCF), given practice opportunities to consolidate that knowledge via either opportunities to recognise the knowledge (e.g., recasts/reformulations) or to recall the knowledge (e.g., prompts/elicitations) (Leeman, 2007). Thus, error correction has a fundamental impact on learners' learning due to its role as a mechanism for practice during the acquisition of a skill (DeKeyser, 2007; Goo & Mackey, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 2013).

According to skill-acquisition theory, in the first phase of learning, learners first have declarative (often called explicit) knowledge (DeKeyeser, 2007). Explicit knowledge

is generally described as 'accessible to conscious awareness, is capable of being put into words, and tends to be used when the participants do not feel under time pressure' (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013, p. 136). Learners may acquire this knowledge from their instructor and/or by observing. For instance, 'declarative knowledge' about the language characteristics (e.g. adding 's' to plural nouns or consciously observing an item of vocabulary) (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 3). This information should encompass a sort of notional illustration and a substantial number of instances. Error correction can have a fundamental role in ensuring that accurate and useful declarative knowledge is reliably established. This explicit knowledge then feeds into in subsequent phases of learning.

In the second phase, this information is used to form a new type of knowledge known as 'procedural knowledge. That is, the information about how to do something is put into action and the skill is performed' using procedural knowledge (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013, p.139). An example of this would be, producing plural nouns by adding 's'. The procedural process starts to become integral as a result of several examples/experiences/practices, as well as fewer errors being committed as the learners practise more. This procedural process can decrease the burden on the student's working memory because the knowledge is reorganised as chunks, making it quicker for learners to access this existing information (Mitchell et al., 2013). Nevertheless, information is subject to change during this phase because students may face obstacles in assimilating the information or reforming it into a more effective chunk. Thus, error correction can have an important role during proceduralisation.

In the third phase, information is processed automatically, using a different kind of knowledge known as automatized knowledge. For automatization to occur, many practice trials are important in order to reduce the time it takes to carry out the 'skill', the error percentage, and the quantity of necessary attentiveness. Nevertheless, it is important to note that this automatic information can still be vulnerable to mistakes, thus presenting an opportunity for a role for error correction. Whilst changing or deleting the information at this stage is not easy (as the automatized processes are largely unconscious), error correction may have a role. For example, it could bring errors to the learners' awareness which could perhaps re-engage other phases of skill

acquisition, such as re-establishing more accurate or useful declarative knowledge, or helping the development of procedural knowledge.

In sum, when OCF is viewed from the point of view of SAT, it is seen to have a role in language learning, as it taps into explicit (i.e., with the learners' awareness) learning mechanisms that teachers can influence. However, in fact, 'recasts', as noted above, were conceived of as an *implicit* device, that did not interrupt the flow of communication as learners are not forced to repeat the correct language or pause to think about how else they could express themselves. It was argued that recasts provided additional 'comprehensible input' that offers positive evidence, about how the language system works (rather than negative evidence, about how the language system does *not* work) (Long, 1985; Mackey, 1999, 2007). Recasts were of particular relevance and interest to language classrooms where the primary focus is on communicating meaning. In this regard, a distinction between recasts and other types of error correction is relevant to the debates about 'focus on form' and 'focus on forms' approaches to language instruction, discussed briefly next.

A distinction relevant to OCF: Focus-on-Form vs. Focus-on-Forms: focus-on-form 'occurs when students direct their conscious attention to some feature of the language, such as a verb tense', as a consequence of instructors' correction or learners' self-correction of 'a language feature' (Harmer, 2007, p. 53). It is usually an unplanned feature and occurs incidentally as a result of communication problems relating to the language features. Focus-on-form**s** is often predetermined by a textbook or curriculum as an explicit aim of the 'course is the learning of these forms' (Harmer, 2007, p.53). There is a huge research agenda that has looked at the effectiveness of these two broad approaches (see Goo, Granena, Yilmaz, & Novella, 2015: Keck, Iberri-Shea, Tracy-Ventura, & Wa-Mbaleka, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Spada & Tomita, 2010). Evidence is mixed, but generally it is found that learning is helped when learners' attention is directed to language form in some way. Error correction is clearly relevant to both kinds of approaches, though in different ways. In focus on form approaches, error correction tends to be more reactive, unplanned, incidental, and possibly on a range of forms as they arise. In a focus on forms approach, error correction tends to be more proactive, planned and provided for the particular set of

features that are being learnt at that moment. OCF, within either of these broad approaches, provides opportunities for knowledge creation, development and practice. What is less clear is *why* teachers use particular types of corrective feedback. For example, are they wishing to raise learners' explicit awareness about their errors and how to correct them, and/or are they wishing to maintain the flow of communication and tap into more implicit processes that don't necessarily raise learners' awareness to errors? It is important to understand how teachers' choices might relate to the particular context (e.g., aims of the lessons, such as more focus on form or more focus on forms) and their perceptions of particular learner characteristics (e.g., learners' ability to notice OCF during an interaction, or their ability to understand certain types of feedback). This is the topic of the next section.

2.4 Teachers' cognition

2.4.1 Introduction

Recently, the issue of language instructors' cognition has been the focus of a number of studies, most of which have been in the form of case studies of instructors in specific environments. The term 'cognition' here refers to what the instructors 'know, believe, and think, which has been traditionally described by constructs such as knowledge, belief, attitude, value, perception, and rationale' (Mori, 2011, p. 452). This section discusses teachers' views and thinking about OCF, and how this might relate to their actual behaviour in the classroom.

Teachers' vs students' views: Previous research has shown some differences between teachers' and students' views about OCF, such as Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) questionnaire study carried out on 395 teenagers and adult learners and 46 FL instructors. They showed that the instructors often undervalued clear correction of their students' verbal errors in order to avoid exposing their students to negative feelings. There was also disagreement between teachers and students regarding the types of OCF that they favoured; for instance, the majority of students favoured metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction, while only approximately 20% of teachers regarded it as 'very good' (Roothoft & Breeze, 2016, p. 328).

Note, extending Roothooft & Breeze's questionnaire study, which tapped into general attitudes and cognition, the current study used SR sessions, held on the same day as participants' classes, to provide more immediate insight into very specific observations of classroom OCF behaviour. However, investigating both behaviour and attitudes, and relations between them, is complex (e.g. Basturkmen, 2012). Research in this area has, as would be expected, indicated that instructors' views do play a crucial part in the teaching process, showing that instructors' beliefs inform their actual teaching practices, particularly with reference to error correction, as also observed by Mori (2011). However, other variables such as teachers' experience may also have an impact on forming their cognition and this will be discussed in the next section.

2.4.2 The impact of different variables such as teachers' experience shaping their views and behaviour

A number of studies have found that teacher-training programmes have had a significant impact on teachers' views, which in turn has led to influencing their performance in class (e.g. Borg, 2011). Conversely, other studies, such as Peacock (2001), have reported that training has little influence. Borg's (2011) longitudinal study investigated whether eight weeks of intensive in-service teacher-training sessions, which aimed to refine and expand their views on language instruction, would have an influence on the views of six English language instructors in Britain. Instructors were asked to teach 10 lessons, half of which were attended and evaluated by observers. The researcher collected data through semi-structured interviews, course work and instructors' feedback. Six interviews in total were conducted – two of these were administered face-to-face, while the remainder were conducted via telephone. The outcomes showed that the training sessions had a significant influence on the instructors' views. According to Borg (2011), this training programme played an important role in allowing instructors to think in an explicit way, be more articulate in their speech, become conscious of their views in order to enhance their positive attitude, and also concentrate on methods to improve their teaching behaviour. For example, some of the participants expressed their satisfaction with the programme in the sense that it helped them to acknowledge new beliefs that would support them in their teaching. Another instructor argued that this course helped her to improve her

teaching skills, and to understand that 'elicitation', a type of oral error correction, was 'a student-centered practice' (Borg, 2011, p. 378). Borg (2011) concluded by offering several valuable suggestions to help improve the productivity and effectiveness of these training sessions. One key recommendation was to modify these types of teaching courses in a way that would help instructors gain a better insight into their views, as well as help identify how these views may differ from their actual behaviour in the classroom.

The study conducted by Peacock (2001) was a longitudinal study to investigate the changes that may occur throughout a three-year course at the University of Hong Kong. A total of 146 English as a second language (ESL) trainee instructors participated in this study, and the aim was to gain insight into their views about L2 learning. It was predicted that those participants who held certain inaccurate beliefs regarding L2 learning at the start of the course would alter their views by the end of the course as they learnt more about the methods used for teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). It was suggested that participants' misconceptions should be challenged, as this would have an impact on their pedagogy and on future generations of learners. The first-year trainees' views about language learning were gathered using Horwitz's beliefs about language learning inventory (BALLI) and were compared with experienced instructors' views after they finished the course (Peacock, 2001). In addition, ESL examination levels, teaching packages, and classroom observations were also used to gather data. The outcomes of this study did reveal some changes in the trainees' views as they progressed to the second and third year of the TESOL course; however – and more significantly – none of these changes was regarded as major. Packages of instructions were made to address trainees' inaccurate perceptions concerning second language learning (SLL). For instance, until they reached the third year, most of the participants maintained the belief that L2 acquisition equated to learning L2 words and grammatical principles.

Peacock (2001) concluded by recommending that a great deal of work was needed to address inaccurate views that trainees had about their SLL or their future students' SLL before they begin their professional careers. He recommended further studies to

investigate the relationship between the instructors' views on SLL and their behaviour in the classroom and how these views were formed.

Another longitudinal study, similar to Peacock's (2001), was conducted by Mattheoudakis (2007), who explored the impact of the instruction methods that were taught during a three-year TESOL course in Greece on the pre-service teachers. This research aimed to observe and identify potential changes or refinements in these views throughout the three years of pre-service educational program on undergraduate learners, and to investigate the influence of instruction practices. 66 participants were involved in this study, of which about half were tracked from the start of their programme until their final year; those learners did not undertake any actual English language teaching practice. As for the remaining participants, they were put into another group, where they were selected to do their practical training in the last year of their studies, after their instruction behaviour had already been assessed. All the participants were between the ages of 18 and 22, depending on which year of study they were in. Mattheoudakis also used the BALLI data tool to explore the trainees' beliefs, in addition to another questionnaire, which were used to provide a richer data set for the study.

The results showed that, during the three years, there was a gradual and considerable improvement in the learners' views throughout the training sessions, whereas the learners' involvement in the instruction practices appeared to have little influence on the way in which their views changed. This was contrary to Peacock's (2001) findings, as he found that the instructors' beliefs had undergone only minor changes by the end of the course. These results were discussed with regard to the form and environment of the particular pedagogic course for pre-service instructors, which could be beneficial for shaping and developing EFL instructors' teaching courses in the future (Mattheoudakis, 2007).

A common finding among these three studies is that instructors' views were bound by their environment. For this reason, Fayyaz and Omar (2014) used a case-study to specifically explore the instructors' views regarding grammar-based instruction. Fayyaz and Omar (2014) investigated one instructor's views and actual behaviour

with regard to form-focused, grammar-based teaching. This study included both EFL instructors and ESL instructors, and looked at the connection between their views and behaviour, in addition to the factors that shaped their views.

The results showed that the instructor had a preference for grammar-based teaching, preferring teaching grammar explicitly, as well as correcting errors. The instructor argued that both grammar-based teaching and correcting errors could help her students to learn English more accurately. She argued that learning grammar is essential for different reasons, such as improving learners' communicative skills, and because the course examinations were grammar-based. To conclude, Fayyaz and Omar (2014) pointed out some key limitations to this study, such as the limited number of participants and methods. With only one participant and one method (the interview), it is highly problematic to draw meaningful conclusions about links between views and actual teaching practices.

Similarly, another study with a limited number of participants - only one teacher - was conducted by Borg (1998). He analysed L2 instructors' views about the educational system, and their cognition, specifically their choices in relation to grammar instruction and instructors' perceptions of grammar-based instruction, Borg used teachers who had previous experience as EFL instructors. The study investigated the basis on which teachers decide to explain or elicit, to provide comprehensive or simplified grammar rules, to respond to students' questions about grammar, and to react to students' grammar errors. The research was conducted in an English language centre in Malta, where learners came from different European countries, with one teacher who was chosen for his study based on his 'reputation as a professionally committed L2 teacher' (Borg, 1998, p. 11). The institute included learners at different levels of language proficiency, ranging from elementary to high intermediate standard. Borg used observations, SR and interview-meetings to collect data with the chosen teacher.

The participant in this study argued that teacher training sessions were beneficial as they provided learning techniques such as 'learner-centered inductive work', which was enhanced through teaching experience (Borg, 1998, p. 17). The findings

suggested different kinds of factors influence instructors to decide to give explanations or use elicitation to facilitate grammar learning in reaction to learners' grammar mistakes. It is envisaged that the current study will help to answer these questions in more depth, as using more SR with more teachers and classes can expound upon teachers' practices with reference to the OCF type they chose in specific moments in specific classes with specific learners (rather than the kind of data that is collected from a limited number of participants as in the study by Borg). This issue, of investigating teacher thinking/views and their actual behaviour, is a key focus of the current thesis, and the focus of the next section.

2.4.3 The relationship between teachers' cognition and their practices

This topic was reviewed by Basturkmen (2012), and that review is summarised and built upon by: a) extending the analysis of some of the studies she examined; b) using additional sources, such as incorporating recent studies discussing the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices in the classroom since 2000 (these were omitted by Basturkmen because she only included those with the term 'beliefs' in the title); and c) discussing the importance of teachers' contributions to improving the teaching process. She categorised these studies into two groups: a) studies that found a strong relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices; and b) studies that revealed a weak connection between instructors' beliefs and their actual practices. She then discussed the outcomes with regard to the potential explanations for them, such as contextual elements, teaching experience, planned and unplanned features of instruction, as well as the methods used in the classroom. The author acknowledged that her review had some drawbacks, such as the inclusion of only those studies with the word 'beliefs' in the title, and that 'the analyses and discussions of findings in the case studies were considerably more complex and detailed than could be reported in the review' (Basturkmen, 2012, p. 291). Partially addressing this concern, other studies within this field but not mentioned in Basturkmen's review will also be reviewed here.

Studies investigating the connection between teachers' views and practices in relation to their instruction: Basturkmen (2012) gave a very brief summary of each of the 17 studies that she reviewed, in which she focused on whether or not there was

consistency between teachers' views concerning teaching and their actual practices. The findings showed that six of the studies revealed a connection in this regard. These studies were: Cundale (2001), Farrell and Kun (2008), Vibulpol (2004), Kim (2006), Tam (2006), Malony-Berman (2004).

Cundale's (2001) study was designed to explore the relationship between instructors' practices and their views, where an analysis was conducted to see whether there was a tendency shown by the two instructors to ask more open questions than closed questions, and also to determine whether this was influenced by their beliefs in the context of a communicative approach. This type of instruction was identified by Basturkmen (2012, p. 283) as 'lessons in which the primary focus is on exchanging messages'. Farrell and Kun's (2008) research explored the relationship between instructors' views and their practices with reference to their usage of 'Singlish' defined, according to Farrell and Kun (2008, pp. 381-382), as 'Singapore colloquial English'. Farrell and Kun found that the majority of instructors' behaviours in the classroom were in accordance with their views.

Vibulpol investigated four pre-service instructors and found that the instructors' views regarding the relative importance of form-focused teaching were in alignment with their teaching practices. For instance, after observing their classes, the author argued that most of the instruction was based on teaching grammar and vocabulary explicitly which was in accordance with their views concerning the effectiveness of form-focused teaching. One of the instructors focused on communication in her instruction, but this was also in accordance with her views about the effectiveness of meaning-focused teaching.

Similarly, Kim's study discovered that the majority of the instructors' views on teaching writing in the classroom were reflected in the writing exercises and practices in class. Tam's study was conducted at a secondary school in Hong Kong. The findings revealed that there was a consistency between 12 instructors' views and their behaviours regarding 'teaching orientations (transmission or interactive)', but this research did not explain the meaning of the terms 'transmission' and 'interactive' (as noted by Basturkmen, 2012, p. 286). Finally, Malony-Berman (2004) investigated one

experienced instructor's views with regard to their practices in the classroom, as the teacher strongly believed in the importance of learner participation during lessons. In light of this, it was found that the learners talked more than three-quarters as much as the instructor, which was in accordance with the teacher's beliefs.

Another study conducted by Baker (2014), not reviewed by Basturkmen, showed a match between teachers' views and their practices, with a focus on pronunciation strategies. The participants were five English language instructors, with between 6 and 14 years of teaching experience. With each teacher, Baker conducted three semi-structured interviews (at the start of, towards the end of, and after the course), observed four lessons, and conducted two SR sessions within two days of each observed class. The learners were asked to complete surveys to explore the learners' views regarding pronunciation learning and instruction.

The researcher observed three main categories of teaching English pronunciation, as follows:

[1] controlled techniques: the teacher has a dominant role in their execution, manipulating the highly structured techniques in such a way that student responses can typically be predicted (e.g. repetition drills and listening discrimination minimal pair activities)". [2] "free techniques: the student has a more dominant role, frequently collaborating with other students in an open-ended activity that may involve "negotiation," "unpredicted responses," and/or real-world or "communicative" behaviour to a certain degree". [3] "guided techniques, also referred to as semi controlled techniques, fall within the middle area of the continuum and contain a blend of characteristics from both extremes described earlier, in that they may be structured but can also be open-ended and/or, even if controlled by the teacher, may involve unpredictable responses by students or resemble activities that learners might perform outside the classroom (e.g., information gap activities, interviews, preparation work for presentations or group discussions). (Brown, 2007, p. 184, as cited by Baker, 2014, pp. 142-143)

According to the data gathered from the interviews, observations and learners' surveys, the results for this study showed that the instructors' cognition in relation to pronunciation strategies essentially consisted of the control strategies that they

frequently used. These were regarded as being less communicative than the other two main strategies (e.g. Brown, 2007). However, it matched the teachers' views of what the learners thought that listening comprehension tasks (categorised as control techniques) to be advantageous in improving their pronunciation. This also corresponded with the teachers' thoughts and behaviour within the classroom. Another example of match between cognition and practice was that two teachers stressed in interviews the importance of using tactile techniques, briefly defined as "Accompanied by a specific physical movements (e.g., clapping), students read target words or sentences, focusing on specific features of pronunciation that have been previously identified", when teaching pronunciation as a means of reducing learners' anxieties, and this was affirmed in the observations (Baker, 2014, p. 146). Guided techniques were the least used strategies, possibly, Baker suggests, because the instructors were not qualified or experienced enough to know how to use this strategy on a consistent basis in a commnunicative course.

Studies showing a lack of consistency between the teachers' views and their behaviour. As for the remaining 11 out of the 17 studies reviewed by Basturkmen (2012), they showed weak or mixed relations between teachers' views and their in-class behaviour. These studies will be discussed first, after which more studies that were not included in Basturkmen's research will be reviewed briefly.

Farrell and Lim (2005) found a mismatch between one experienced teacher's views and classroom behaviour for grammar instruction, while another instructor demonstrated a partial correspondence between their beliefs and practices. In another study concerning grammar instruction involving four novice instructors, Ng and Farrell (2003) discovered some large differences between instructors' views and their behaviours in terms of corrective feedback for all the instructors, although for most other aspects of instruction their views and behaviours corresponded. This was possibly because corrective feedback is an unplanned feature of teachers' instruction. The current study may help to give insights into this dimension of teacher cognition-behaviour relations, as it focused on teachers' OCF.

Interestingly, Maikland (2001, as cited by Basturkmen, 2012) found considerable inconsistency in the views and practices of four teachers who taught at a private school when compared with four instructors who taught at a state school. Moreover,

Mitchell (2005, p. 144, as cited in Basturkmen, 2012) reported a correspondence between six instructors' views and their actual practices in 'some of their classes and not in others', while similar results were found in Feryok's (2004) research, as will be discussed later in further detail. Similarly, Choi's (2000) questionnaire-based study sought to compare 97 instructors' views in middle schools with their actual practices in a CLT setting in Korea, and revealed limited connections. Although the instructors did express positive views towards CLT, it was nonetheless found that their reports about how they actually taught in class corresponded with their behaviours in the classroom, which were not aligned with CLT approaches, focusing on meaning and oral communication.

Other studies, not reviewed by Basturkmen (2012), have found a weak or very mixed connections between teachers' views about their instruction and their actual practices. These include the studies conducted by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) and Feryok (2008).

Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) investigated the connection between the classroom behaviours of three instructors and their views on focus-on-form teaching in ESL intermediate-level classes. Focus-on-form was defined by the researchers as unplanned time-outs, which instructors or learners may take to address questions 'of linguistic form' during interactive lessons (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, p. 243). Instructors' beliefs concerning focus-on-form were contrasted with their control of focus-on-form activities in the classroom, with the same communicative activity being used by all the participating instructors.

The researchers collected data by observation and audio-recordings of the lessons – which were communicative-based – without the observers being present. In-depth semi-structured interviews were also conducted to elicit instructors' beliefs regarding the use of focus-on-form in these lessons. They avoided asking direct questions in these interviews; for instance, the researchers did not ask participants about the perceived success of communicative-based classes, but instead asked them to recall the last successful communicative-based activity they had practised in the classroom. A third data instrument used in this study was 'cued response scenarios', in which participants were presented with scenarios extracted from former research, and they were then asked to comment on these. Finally, SR sessions were held, in which

participants were presented with extracts from their classes and were asked to comment on some of the evidence presented.

The outcomes revealed that there was a mismatch between the instructors' views and their chosen corrective feedback strategy, particularly with regard to when it was deemed appropriate to have a break from the interactive task in order to concentrate on issues of 'linguistic form' (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004, p. 243). For instance, during the deep-interview session, one of the participants was asked about correcting his students' mistakes in the communicative-based classes, to which he responded that he was very reluctant to do so and insisted that it was best to ignore his students' errors to maintain the fluency of their communication. The study further showed significant dissimilarities between the instructors' views and their behaviour, even though there was some agreement between them in other respects. This suggested a weak relationship between instructors' views and their actual behaviour with regard to focus-on-form teaching. It is therefore recommended that further studies should be conducted to acquire deeper insight into instructors' views, particularly in relation to unplanned pedagogic factors, such as focus-on-form, in order to gain a better understanding of their actual practices.

A number of studies have shown an element of both correspondence and dissonance between the teachers' thoughts and their behaviour in the classroom, such as in the case of Feryok's (2008) study. Six instructors participated in this study, but the study focused on one instructor in particular. The researcher chose to observe the ninth-level students because, according to the instructor's description, their classes were communicative-based. Each participant was observed twice in their English teaching class, and then interviewed several times over a six-month period: once on site and the rest via email. This was done in order to help draw a comparison between the instructors' beliefs, as expressed in the interview, and their actual behaviours in the classroom.

The results showed that most of the views expressed by the focal participant were accurate when she was observed, but there were also discrepancies with some of her views and actual behaviour in the classroom. For instance, the participant helped her

learners to construct utterances, and encouraged them to communicate and facilitate their interaction; this reflected her stated thoughts about language development. However, the practical application of how she helped her learners differed, as she limited their freedom to express their ideas. This contradicted her own aims and objectives in teaching, where she stated that she, 'at least implicitly hopes that her learners become independent users of English' (Feryok, 2008, p. 236).

It could be inferred that, because she did not recognise this, she had a lack of understanding of the communicative approach, which reflects the dissimilarity between the perceptions of instructors and researchers, as discussed by Mangubhai, Marland, Dashwood, and Son (2004, as cited by Feryok, 2008). Furthermore, it appeared that her cognition and behaviour in the classroom were affected by her comprehension and knowledge of the environment in which she acquired her teaching experience. For instance, her learners' behaviour – because they preferred to be instructed and led by their teacher – subsequently enhanced their teacher's desire to provide assistance to enable them to produce accurate sentences. Feryok (2008), therefore, concluded that the teacher's need to meet varying aspirations and goals was found to be a particularly crucial factor that might cause divergence between cognition and actual behaviour in the classroom. It appears that certain other issues such as teachers' experience can influence the connection between their views and actual practices, as will be discussed next.

Constraints that caused a mismatch between teachers' views and their practices in class: As noted above, many studies have found a lack of clear correspondence between instructors' views and their actual practice. Basturkmen (2012) observed that the 'context' and 'constraints' mediate the connections between the instructors' views and their actual behaviour (pp. 286-291). In addition, many of the instructors who took part in these studies argued that external elements can make it more difficult for them to apply their views to their behaviour in the classroom, such as large class size, lack of resources, the role of examinations, and the need to cover the prescribed curriculum. For instance, exam-based needs and shortage of resources were reported by instructors in Maikland's observation-based study (2001, as cited by Basturkmen, 2012) while the burden of covering the specified curriculum, and inability to preserve

class discipline, for instance, were mentioned as difficulties that caused a mismatch between instructors' views and their behaviour in class, as in Sinprajakpol's 2004 observational study (as cited by Basturkmen, 2012). Furthermore, teachers in Choi's (2000) questionnaire-based study reported some obstacles that prevented them from applying the CLT, such as the big class size, lack of authentic tools, and their need to prepare their students for their grammar- and reading-based exams. Choi argued that the aim of teaching English in the FL context, as was the case in his study context, is different. For instance, teachers in the ESL context generally teach English to assist students to communicate, while in FL contexts it is mainly to assist students to pass their exams.

It seems that these are common obstacles in many FL contexts, as discussed earlier in the Introduction chapter which described the current study's context, Saudi Arabia (see Section 1.2.1). In this context, teachers reported that some external constraints, such as class size, time limitations, and the burden of covering the prescribed curriculum, caused the absence of some teaching elements such as speaking activities and the difficulty in improving learners' communicative skills (e.g., Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Alshammari, 2012; Li, 1998).

Another issue that can lead to a mismatch between teachers' stated beliefs and their actual behaviour in class relates to whether an event in the class was planned or unplanned (as also noted by Basturkmen, 2012). She noted that very few of the studies she reviewed had focused on *unplanned features* of instruction. Nevertheless, it was predicted that unplanned characteristics of instruction, such as corrective feedback following errors (which are usually unplanned), may not be in accordance with the instructors' views, as they are not prepared for in their lesson plans. Therefore, instructors may respond to unplanned episodes, such as errors and OCF when they actually happen in a different way to how they had planned or prepared for in theory. The current study addresses this gap in order to shed light on whether teachers' beliefs and practices with regard to OCF match or not and why.

Basturkman (2012) suggested that further studies be undertaken regarding instructors' explicit views in connection with the features of instruction behaviour in the

classroom, as such data can help teacher educators understand instructors' views and reflect with teachers on some features of their classroom behaviour. The author particularly highlighted that connecting instructors' views with the *unplanned* features of instruction such as OCF was an aspect that was missing from the reviewed studies. Basturkmen (2012) suggested that instructors could be recorded giving instruction, and then examples of incidental practices, such as corrective feedback in the recording could be used for discussion with the instructors. Accordingly, the current study adopts this particular method recommended by Basturkman, by using SR sessions as a means to investigate teachers' perceptions when giving OCF.

To date, a few studies have analysed teachers' cognition and their actual practices during unplanned features of instruction, and specifically OCF. These studies investigating OCF practices will now be reviewed in some depth, as they provide the key justifications for the need for the current study.

2.5 Studies investigating relationship between teachers' cognition and their behaviour with reference to OCF

The way in which teachers use corrective methods is influenced by a number of features, including the aim of the lesson, time limitations, frequency of mistakes, the need to cover the curriculum, learners' personalities, and the degree of communicative capacity, the instructors' previous knowledge and experience, and the educational context including factors such as broad approach to language teaching (Basturkman, 2012; Mori, 2011).

Loewen and Sato (2018) in their recent review explored SLA teaching characteristics in both laboratory- and classroom-based studies. Their review took into consideration teacher features, such as their language ability level and mother tongue, the different linguistic characteristics, and communicative context. They made a few contexts-dependent observations, such that the recast uptakes were higher in Korea and New Zealand than in ESL in Canada, which suggested that the context had an impact on learners' noticing of recasts, as indicated by uptake rate. Thus, contextual aspects could have a strong influence on the teachers' cognition in regard to their teaching practices and error correction.

In a similar line of research, Mori (2011) discussed the importance of widening the domain of error correction to include 'social, cultural, personal, and experiential factors that have been hitherto strictly excluded from research designs, and incorporating all goals that teachers are trying to achieve as they error correct' (2011, p. 451). Mori interviewed the FL instructors after each class in order to acquire a deeper understanding of their behaviour in the classroom with reference to error correction. The study aimed to investigate how the cognition and views of FL Japanese teachers may affect their oral correction behaviour. Mori defined the term 'cognition' to be 'an amalgam of what teachers know, believe, and think, which has been traditionally described by constructs such as knowledge, belief, attitude, value, perception, and rationale' (2011, p. 452). Two participants were involved, both of whom shared two fundamental beliefs that they took into consideration when they chose to provide error correction or to ignore an error. That is, they both strongly believed in improving their students' language and interaction, because they felt these characteristics were undervalued within their context.

Each of the participants worked at a different institute. The first teacher had an undergraduate degree from Britain, whereas the second teacher had a master's degree in linguistics from Japan. As for their students, 18 learners registered onto the first teacher's programme, most of them stating that their aim was to learn English so they could travel. The lessons were on pronunciation and conversation and lasted approximately 50 minutes. As for the second teacher, the researcher observed the speaking classes that were held once a week and lasted for 90 minutes. Thirty-five students enrolled on this programme, all of whom were first-year undergraduates majoring in law. Observations took place over a four-month period, followed by interviews.

The teachers in this study mentioned several important reasons that influenced their practices, such as time limitation. They also noted that students' personalities might influence their method of correction, in that they tried to avoid exaggerated corrections if they felt that a certain student was nervous about making errors. Their students' level of language proficiency was also regarded as another factor that

influenced their correction in that they preferred to avoid correcting students who were very weak in terms of language proficiency to avoid hindering them from communicating further during the lessons. However, Mori found that recasts were the most commonly used method with three different levels of language proficiency, even though they used proportionately more recasts with less proficient learners than with highly proficient ones. The chi-square test only showed a significant relationship between 'metalinguistic feedback' and students' proficiency, as approximately 63% of this type of OCF were used with advanced-level students, while only 21% were used with intermediate level, and 17% with elementary-level students.

Although Mori's study was very important for understanding how contextual factors might influence teachers' OCF, the study also had several limitations. For example, the total number of observations and interviews with the two instructors differed. Another limitation was that both teachers came from a different type of educational institution. Therefore, Mori recommended conducting future studies on participants from the same type of teaching institution. Furthermore, the author recommended conducting studies with an equal number of observations and interviews for every participant, and also suggested that further studies should use a variety of instruments for data collection. Another limitation of Mori's study was that only notes were taken during the lesson, instead of video or audio-recording it. This could be considered a limitation because there may have been some important details that went unnoticed, and not every instance of correction may have been documented in the notes. In addition, teachers may have forgotten what happened during the lesson and it could be difficult to help them remember any incident using notes, as opposed to triggering their memory through the use of audio- or video-recording. Thus, in relation to the current study, to prompt teachers to reflect on their behaviour, they listened to some selective scenarios from their classes. This was designed to gain a better understanding of teachers' practices with regard to their choices of OCF.

The current study addresses these limitations of Mori's study, as the teachers are all from the same educational institution, the same number of observations and interviews are conducted for each teacher, and a variety of instruments are used for data collection. Additionally, audio recording was used instead of taking notes during

observations to prompt teachers during the SR interviews to recall their thinking about why they made their OCF choices, for instance.

Another study that examined teacher cognition and behaviour about OCF was Brown's (2016) review that investigated the OCF types used by teachers and the corrected targets with regard to the different elements, such as the instruction context, instructors' length of teaching experience, learners' language ability level, and whether it is an EFL or ESL setting. The author analysed approximately 28 observational studies, covering a total of 466 hours for 85 instructors. Brown's (2016) meta-analysis only included observation-based studies, excluding experimental-based studies, because they do not normally show the natural choices of OCF types made by instructors. (For the same reason the current study was observation-based research). The results from Brown's (2016) review showed that 66% of all error corrections were reformulations (57% were recasts without explanation and 9% were recasts with explanation). Prompts were used for about 30% of errors. Thus, SL instructors provided the correct forms for approximately two-thirds of the errors, while only about one-third of the errors were elicited from their learners using clues. Syntactic mistakes were the most corrected target of OCF, at 43%, outweighing vocabulary mistakes at 28%, and pronunciation mistakes, which accounted for 22%.

Perhaps the most important outcome of Brown's study is that all the studies that were included in the review were carried out in settings that self-defined as 'communicative-based' i.e. in contexts in which there was a tendency to focus on meaning and genuine communication (over the form of language), oral language (over written language), interaction (over other language uses), fluency (over accuracy) (Brumfit, 1979; Harmer, 2007). All studies were in such contexts, with the exception of two, which involved form-focused instruction. This clearly shows the need for more studies to be conducted in FL form-focused instructional contexts, in order to gain a better insight into the teachers' perceptions with regard to OCF within this framework.

The need to the choice of and preference for OCF has also been found to vary with learners' language proficiency, teaching context, and teachers' length of experience.

2.5.1 The impact of learners' proficiency on teachers' use of OCF

There appears to be controversy over the influence of students' language proficiency on teachers' choices of OCF types in classes. For instance, in contrast to Mori's (2011) finding about the role of proficiency, Ahangari and Amirzadeh's (2011) observational study in Iran with two instructors sought to investigate the instructors' choices of OCF types, and showed that there was no significant relationship between most of their choices of OCF types and their learners' language level). Moreover, Ahangari and Amirzadeh's study revealed that instructors provided fewer recasts for advanced proficiency students than for beginners. By contrast, Brown's (2016) meta-analysis study showed that instructors provided more recasts for more proficient learners than less proficient ones. However, Mori (2011) found that teachers stated that they corrected their learners with poor language proficiency less to avoid hindering them, but as their learners' language proficiency improved, they would gradually correct them more to help them improve their language further.

Yoshida (2008) further investigated instructors' and second-year undergraduate learners' preferences for various forms of feedback in the context of Japanese as a FL. The researcher made audio-recordings of the lessons in which students wore clip-on microphones so that all their utterances during the class were recorded. The author was also present to observe five classes for each teacher in order to collect more information, including the exercises used and the students' overall behaviour. Feedback was categorised into nine types: recast, incidental recast, explicit feedback, metalinguistic correction, repetition, elicitation, re-asks, clarification request, and delayed recasts. Yoshida then set up individual SR interviews with two instructors and seven students. Findings indicated that there was a mismatch between which corrective forms the instructors believed to be more beneficial and their actual use of feedback in the classroom. Recasting was the most commonly used type of feedback, which was due, according to the teachers, to the limited time available in the lessons and to avoid embarrassing learners in front of their classmates because they may not realise what the correct answer should be. However, instructors did use other forms of feedback to help the learners to correct their own errors, which, according to Yoshida (2008), may be more effective than recasting. There was also a mismatch between

students' preferences for certain types of feedback (preferring prompts) and instructors' tendency to provide recasts in the classroom. Yoshida recommended undertaking a longitudinal study in the future to investigate the relationship between learners' language abilities and their teacher's choice of different forms of correction. The aim would be to find out whether or not teachers' choice of feedback would be influenced when students' language improved in response to certain types of feedback.

Further evidence that learner proficiency may affect preferences for particular types of feedback has been found by Lee (2013). Although conducted with highly proficient adult participants, Lee's findings are indirectly relevant to the current study in that it was observed that the more advanced learners were better able to take in and act upon the feedback provided implicitly by instructors than their less advanced counterparts.

Lee also sought the learners' opinions themselves, and other studies have examined students' preferences for particular types of feedback, and how this compared to teachers' preferences and/or behaviours e.g., Corpuz (2011), Kaivanpanah, Alavi, and Sepehrinia (2015), and Lee (2013). However, as these are not directly relevant to the current study and so summaries of the work have been put in the Appendix I, due to space constraints.

Little research has focused on whether the age of learners affects teachers' choice of OCF. However, Brown (2016) found that teachers would be more inclined to use higher ratios of reformulations/recasts with adult learners than with teenagers, while, interestingly, they used the same ratios of recasts and prompts for both primary and adult learners. Similarly, this factor is not directly relevant to the current study as it did not systematically manipulate or examine this feature.

2.5.2 The impact of context on teachers' choices of OCF

Brown's (2016) meta-analysis found that in FL contexts instructors corrected more grammar errors and far fewer phonological errors than in second language contexts. Additionally, he found that students in form-focused instruction contexts received higher ratios of prompts than students in meaning-focused contexts. However, as

noted above, Brown pointed out that only two studies in his meta-analysis study related to form-focused instruction, while the rest examined meaning-based instruction, thus raising the issue of whether there is a need to conduct more studies in a more form-focused context, so as to better understand the nature and role of error correction in these contexts.

2.5.3 The impact of teachers' experience on teachers' OCF

Another variable relates to the instructors themselves. Brown's (2016) meta analysis revealed that experienced teachers target pronunciation mistakes more than vocabulary errors, whereas those with limited teaching experience tend to target pronunciation errors more and lexical errors less. Brown also found that teachers with more training tend to use prompts/elicitations more than recasts. Finally, the meta-analysis suggested that instructors who were aware that the purpose of the study was related to correction tended to use more prompts/elicitations as opposed to reformulations. In contrast, instructors who were informed that the study was interaction-focused used more recasts than those who were unaware of the study's purpose.

However, more generally, an important finding of that meta-analysis is that very few studies took teachers' experience into account in terms of their potential influence on OCF choices. Brown recommended more research to investigate the influence of instructor variables on their OCF choices, such as the difference between well-trained instructors and instructors who had not attended any previous training sessions.

One of the few studies to examine this was Mori (2011) that investigated how teachers' educational experience and their beliefs may affect their choice and use of different forms of error correction. Two Japanese FL instructors participated in this study, where the data were collected mainly from observations of both teachers during several classes and through interviewing them, as well as through the use of teaching books. Several factors partially affected the participants' choice in using different forms of feedback, and whether or not they chose to correct their learners' errors: the aim of the instruction, time limitations, frequency of recurrence of mistakes, learners' personalities, and learners' standards of communicative ability. In addition, the

instructors' previous experience and knowledge were considered to have a significant effect on the way in which they conceptualised their beliefs concerning corrective feedback. The researcher recommended conducting more studies on this topic, in which, for example, a greater number of instructors of various ages could be observed.

As noticed in the previous section 2.5 that recast was the most common type of OCF taking into consideration different variables such as learners' proficiency, context, and teachers' experience in previous sections (see 2.5.1, 2.5.2, & 2.5.3). We now turn to considering what drives teachers to use specific types of OCF when errors occur in classrooms.

2.6 Type of OCFs. Why do teachers use recasts more than prompts?

As noted above, several studies have observed that more implicit forms of correction, such as recasts, are more frequent than more explicit types (such as prompts), in many contexts and for many teachers. However, as Busterkmen (2012) notes, only a few studies have investigated the teachers' views about their choices of specific OCF type, using data collection methods such as SR.

These few studies (see e.g., Kamiya, 2016; Roothooft, 2014; Yoshida, 2008), indicate several reasons for this observed preference for recasts, such as the belief that it will avoid embarrassing students, time limitations in class (as recasts are usually faster than asking a learner to think and produce a corrected response), and/or avoid breaking up the flow of communication. In this section, these studies are discussed in a little more depth.

Kamiya (2016) sought to explore the connection between the views and behaviour in the classroom of ESL instructors in the USA, in relation to their general use of instruction and verbal correction in particular. The researcher observed English classes that were communicative-based with four participating instructors, all of whom were native speakers, while most of the learners were from China and the rest from Korea and Arab countries. The instructors were audio- and video-recorded. In total, four observations were conducted, followed by four semi-structured interviews

60

with the instructors to investigate the instructors' L2 experience/qualifications, their teacher-training sessions, their instruction, their instruction context, their views about their instruction, and their verbal corrective feedback practices in the classroom.

The outcomes showed that the teachers' behaviour in the classroom was very much in accordance with their views regarding verbal corrective feedback. For instance, they thought it was important to create a relaxed atmosphere for their learners in the classroom, which meant they avoided correcting explicitly so as not to embarrass their learners; hence, they chose to correct implicitly instead, using a method like recasting (defined and discussed earlier in Section 2.2). In general, the participants in this study did not regard OCF as a crucial element in their instruction, and this was a result of their belief that error correction may disrupt and embarrass students. Although the results showed that the instructors' views were generally in accordance with their practices in the classroom, it was nonetheless noted that one of the most experienced instructors showed divergence in this respect who argued that he was not the type of teacher who would provide many corrections yet the observation showed that he corrected more than half the total number of mistakes made in the classroom. This illustrated that as teachers' experience increases, the mismatch between their beliefs and actual practices does not necessarily decrease.

However, this study exhibits a number of limitations, such as the fact that only one class for each teacher was observed (as noted by Kamiya, 2016). This is similar to other studies such as Roothooft's (2014) where each teacher was observed once or twice. This is not likely to be sufficient to make judgements regarding the relation between their beliefs concerning correction and their practices, as instructors' use of error correction could vary from one class to another according to the purpose of the lesson. Another important drawback was that the researcher did not use introspective techniques (e.g., SR methodology) to explore the instructors' ideas through their actual practices (as proposed by Dornyei, 2007), nor did it track teachers' views longitudinally.

Roothooft (2014) aimed to investigate teachers' choices of oral feedback types in class and examine their beliefs about the different types of oral feedback they used.

The research was carried out in Spain with 10 instructors. Each instructor was observed once or twice, and after the class they completed a survey to elicit their opinions about oral corrections. The results revealed that many of the instructors were not fully aware of the number or patterns of types of oral corrections they used. Although all the participants agreed that corrections such as prompts (defined in Section 2.2) were beneficial for their learners, they nonetheless voiced concerns that this type of correction may interrupt learners, and consequently have an adverse effect on their responses. This could at least partially explain why recasting, although it was the most implicit correction pattern, was also the correction method used most frequently by teachers in that context. Indeed, despite evidence that recasting is the least effective form in eliciting learner corrections (i.e., uptake), it seems to be the most frequently used in many contexts (see Al-Faki, 2013; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2016; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothooft, 2014; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008).

So far, it has been noted that recasting is regarded as the most commonly used form of oral feedback, which have generally been carried out in Western contexts, where there is usually an attempt to align with communicative language teaching principles (see e.g., Lyster et al., 2013; Roothooft, 2014). However, few studies investigated the use of OCF with regard to students' uptake from other areas, such as the Middle East and, specifically, Saudi Arabia. In general, to date, two studies, Safari (2013) in Kuwait, and Al-Faki (2013) in Oman have found similar patterns of OCF as in the studies those found by other studies.

Both of these studies investigated the type of oral error correction used in classrooms with adolescent students. Safari (2013) conducted in Iranian schools in Kuwait, where the teaching method was communicative-based. One instructor and 16 learners, ranging from the ages of 13 to 16 participated in the study, which saw the teacher being observed over a four-week period. During this time, eight of the classes observed were communicative-based. In terms of data analysis, the classes were audio-recorded and then the recordings were transcribed.

Safari's (2013) study affirmed that recasts were the most frequently used type of oral correction in the classroom, although it was not very effective in prompting students to amend their errors. In contrast, other types of corrective feedback patterns, which were known to be very efficient in encouraging students to self-correct (i.e. clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, and explicit correction) were the least used methods in these Iranian schools. It also appeared from this research that metalinguistic feedback was not very efficient with regard to eliciting the correct answer from the adolescents who participated in this study.

The second piece of research was conducted in Omani schools, at grades 7 to 12 (Al-Faki, 2013). Thirty teachers participated in this study, 12 of whom were Omani and 18 of whom were FL instructors. Al-Faki (2013) conducted the study in two educational institutions where he observed a total of six lessons. In addition, the researcher observed the classes using an observational checklist, as well as questionnaires for both instructors and learners designed to elicit their preferences for different types of oral feedback.

Although recasts, elicitations, and 'questioning (peer-correction)' were found to be the most commonly used forms of correction (Al-Faki, 2013, p. 1777), recasting was the type most frequently used. Furthermore, this research found that there was a significant relationship between the instructors' behaviour in the classroom and their 'attitudes' with regard to OCF. The author of this study further recommended that research should be conducted in a similar context in another country in the Middle East, using similar methods, in order to find out the degree of correspondence between instructors' and learners' views regarding correction methods in English classes. It is hoped that the current study, by spreading the questionnaires over 200 participants, in combination with other methods (interviews, observations, and SRs with the 10 core teachers), will add some useful insights into Saudi teachers' views with regard to OCF.

Thus, to help better understand teachers' views with regard to their OCF choices, and in view of the limitations of some of the above studies, the current study set out to

observe a higher number of classes per teacher than in previous studies, and follow these by SR sessions.

Having discussed teachers' reasons for using different types of OCF, the next section will discuss whether and how students perceive OCF, including recasts, and how they react to them. Such research is relevant as it can help to consider potential implications of teachers' OCF in class (such as whether learners are likely to notice it react to it, and learn from it).

2.7 Students' reactions to OCF in the classroom: Noticing and uptake

In the earlier sections, some of the factors that determine the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices were discussed, such as the constraints imposed by the context. Another factor that might affect this relationship and how teachers choose to correct learners is the kinds of responses that different types of OCF elicit from learners (as suggested by Kim & Han, 2007). Indeed, as noted above, several studies have been conducted on the teachers' use and choice of different forms of OCF which show that although recasting was thought to be the method that learners might be least aware of, it was nonetheless the most commonly used form of oral feedback. The reason why learners may not 'uptake' following a recast is that they do not notice the recast or, if they do, perceive it as corrective feedback. The next section discusses some of OCFs' different extrinsic characteristics (e.g., context) and intrinsic characteristics (e.g., observant vs. recipient) that may influence learners noticing (or not) of OCF.

2.7.2 Students' noticing of OCF

Some extrinsic factors can influence students' perceptions of feedback, according to previous studies, such as the study conducted by Gurzynski-Weiss and Baralt (2014). They explored how students perceived error correction and subsequently how they applied the correction that was given, during interactional 'task-based' classes. The error corrections were given using two different environments: a computer and in person (i.e. computer-mediated and face-to-face contexts). The researchers used SR to explore whether the 24 FL learners of Spanish, who were at an intermediate standard of language proficiency, successfully recognised the correction as a correction, as

well as determining whether they recognised the targeted language, and if the two different interactional modes used (computer-mediated and face-to-face) had any different effects on the participants' accuracy in language production. Moreover, this research explored whether the form of correction that was used had any influence on the students' chances of amending their utterances after being corrected, and to see if they used these opportunities in a different way, according to the different correction form provided. The outcomes indicated that participants recognised the correction in both environments (computer-mediated and face-to-face) but that the face-to-face environment provided students with considerably more opportunities to amend their errors following the corrections given.

Also investigating the extent to which error correction is noticed and acted upon, Gass and Lewis (2007), replicating research conducted by Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000), investigated whether OCF were perceived similarly by 'non-heritage language learners' and 'heritage language learners'. Participants undertook video-recorded interactional activities with teachers of near native-like proficiency, and then took part in an SR session conducted in English. During this stage, the participants were given the opportunity to pause the video-recording of their interactional, in order to comment. The results showed that the perceptions of both groups were more accurate in relation to lexical and phonological corrections than in relation to morphosyntactic corrections. In addition, it was found that the heritage learners perceived semantic corrections more accurately than the non-heritage learners.

Also seeking to investigate learners' perceptions of OCF, Al-Khalil, Atanassova, Hama, Logan-Terry, and Nakatsukasa (2007) investigated twenty-five beginner learners of Arabic from two classes. Only 11 students, ranging from 18 to 20 years old, agreed to be interviewed after attending a lesson, where they were shown the video-recording of the class and were asked to provide their comments. In addition, two instructors who taught in both of the classes participated in this research. The students in general were able to understand their instructors' intentions when the targeted language being corrected was a lexical or morphological error (as found by Mackey et al., 2007), whereas phonological corrective feedback in general was misinterpreted by the students. In addition, when the level of explicitness in error

corrections was high, the more the instructors' and students' interpretations overlapped. Furthermore, it was found that *recipient* students (those receiving the OCF) were better able to understand what their teachers' intentions were from explicit error corrections than *observant* students.

The following section will discuss students' noticing of recasts, with particular reference to different recast features such as its explicitness and implicitness.

2.7.3 Students' noticing of recast

Several researchers have claimed that learners may not notice a recast because they often interpret it merely as a repetition, which minimises its usefulness as a correction strategy (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). For instance, Doughty (1994) conducted a study to investigate correction techniques used on students of French as a FL. After observing approximately six hours of classroom interaction, the researcher noticed that the instructors treated nearly 50% of their errors, and that recasting was used for about 70% of these corrections. As for the students who participated in this study, it was revealed that they gave the correct response to only 21% of the recasts. This suggested that perhaps students did not recognise most of the recasts. However, critically, the use of students' well-formed responses following recasts (i.e., uptake) as a measure of the effectiveness of recasts is, arguably, weak evidence, because students' uptake does not necessarily constitute evidence of them having noticed recasts (Mackey & Philp, 1998). Mackey and Philp's study, investigating the impact of recast on students' language learning improvement, suggested that recasts might be useful in terms of students' short-term language development, although recasts were not always followed by immediate uptakes. In fact, it has been observed that recasts rarely lead to modified output, by e.g., Goo & Mackey, (2013), and Lyster & Ranta (2013). Why this might be is discussed next.

Explicit vs. implicit recast: Some characteristics of recasts might influence learners' noticing of them (e.g., Egi, 2007; Sheen, 2006), such as the number of corrections of their erroneous utterances, intonation, isolated/embedded recasts, and the targeted language (Sheen, 2006). Sheen found that more salient recasts led to more uptakes by learners than did less salient recasts. Interestingly, the author found a significant

relation between the type of error and learners' noticing of recasts, according to learners' uptakes, in that it was found that pronunciation errors were significantly more noticed than grammar errors.

A related study by Egi (2007) sought to investigate to what extent students were able to notice recasts, '… as responses to content, negative evidence, positive evidence, or a combination of negative and positive evidence' (p. 511). Forty-nine students from Japan participated in interactional tasks in which they were given recasts of their non-target-like morphosyntactic and lexical utterances. From this, the researchers set out to identify the effect of correction, such as the number of corrections on the learners' interpretation of recast utterances. The results indicated that, on the one hand, while the students started noticing a recast, their interpretations could sometimes be understood as a correction to the meaning of their utterance, as opposed to a linguistic error. This was because the recast was long and dissimilar to their erroneous production. On the other hand, it was revealed that students tended to be more successful at noticing their morphosyntactic and lexical errors when the recast was short and, to some extent, similar to their problematic production. The outcomes of this study suggested that various features of recasts, such as the number of corrections, may 'determine the explicitness' of recasting as a form of correction and, in turn, affect students' ability to identify them correctly (Egi, 2007, p. 511).

Other studies have also shown that the explicitness of recast can affect whether or not it is noticed. Implicit recasts were found to be less noticed by students (e.g., Chaudron 1977; Slimani, 1992, as cited by Panova & Lyster, 2002). In the study conducted in immersion classes by Chaudron (1977), a system was created to classify different types of corrective feedback and to explore the connection between different types of errors, correction patterns, and students' self-correction. It was discovered that characteristics, such as stress, reduction, and extension or unrelated repetition, all affected the salience of recasting. Chaudron (1977) also found a positive connection between recasts accompanied by features such as reduction and stress, and students' immediate self-correction, while recasts accompanied by unrelated repetition led to limited self-correction by the students.

In contrast, other studies have found no, or less, connection between the explicitness of recasts and learners' noticing. For example, Al-Surmi (2012) investigated the impact of various forms of recasting on students' noticing – in particular, the use of declarative and interrogative forms. According to that study, the former is defined as 'a recast in which the learner's incorrect utterance is reformulated in a statement' (p. 228), while the latter constitutes 'a recast in which the learner's incorrect utterance is reformulated in a statement with a rising intonation' (Al-Surmi, 2012, p. 228). This research involved examining communicative instruction during task performance. It aimed to explore whether students' recognition of morphosyntactic features was affected by the style of recast and/or whether they noticed their morphosyntactic mistakes and the corrected form of their utterances. Twelve ESL undergraduate students at a university in southwestern United States participated in the research. They had various different first languages and had been studying English for between three to 12 years, and had lived in the USA for periods ranging from three months to two years. The researcher met with the participants individually on two separate occasions to perform interactional tasks, in which they received both interrogative recasts and declarative recasts. All the sessions were video-recorded. Upon completion of the tasks, the participants were asked to watch the recording. They were then asked about their thoughts when they received the different forms of feedback. After that, they undertook some tailor-made grammar tests to assess their learning and some surveys. The findings indicated that the students recognized only 10% of the morphosyntactic-recast forms and there were no significant distinctions between the interrogative-recast and declarative-recast forms (Al-Surmi, 2012).

Similarly, in a study of three adult FL Japanese students, Roberts (1995) explored their capacity to recognise examples of instructors' correction while watching a video recording of 50-minute lessons. It was found that recasting was the most commonly used feedback technique, accounting for approximately two-thirds of all correction patterns. The results showed that one of the participants noticed 46% of the correction patterns during the 50 minutes, while the second participant noticed 37% of them, and the third recognised 24% of them. The researcher classified most of the recasts as 'partial recasts', because the corrector isolated the mistake by repeating just the erroneous utterance on its own, without the rest of the utterance. Roberts (1995)

argued that even though the students were expected to recognise the corrections, they did not recognise more than 43% of them.

Recipient vs. observer: Some studies found no difference between recipient and observant learners with regard to noticing recast. For instance, Kim and Han (2007) investigated learners' interpretations of error correction, during communicative teaching methodology, in which recasts were mainly used as the form of OCF, with intermediate-level FL Korean learners. Their research focused on four classrooms, with approximately 10 learners in each classroom, in which two native English speakers taught learners. The lessons involved were video-recorded. Kim and Han (2007, p. 270) investigated the following issues:

The type of teacher intent (communicative or corrective), the type of addressee (direct or indirect), the type of linguistic target (morphology, syntax, phonology, or lexis), and the form of recast (isolated declarative, isolated interrogative, integrated declarative, or integrated interrogative).

Furthermore, the researchers used individual SR interviews with 20 learners who watched the video-recording of the lessons that were conducted on the same day. The researcher paused the video each time a recast was provided, and also used the same questions to ask about other forms of correction, in order to distract students from the main aim of the research. Moreover, the SR method was used for the two teachers individually (while each one was watching the videotape), so that they could be asked after each instance about their aim in using recasts. Both the teachers and students were encouraged to also pause the video whenever they wished in order to add any supplementary comments.

The results of this study showed that both *recipient and observers* of recasts were able to recognise instructors' aims in recasting, and to notice their non-target-like utterances after a recast has been given. Recasting for feedback purposes was found to be more beneficial than recasting for interactional purposes, as it helped learners to notice their errors. Moreover, giving feedback explicitly, such as in the case of the isolated recast was deemed to be more advantageous because it allowed learners to recognise the correction more easily than implicit feedback. The linguistic form of the utterances, for example, whether phonological or lexical, also had a significant impact on learners' ability to notice their errors, which exceeded the effect of the level of

complexity of the recast (Kim & Han, 2007, p. 296). The Kim and Han argued that research is needed to investigate teachers' intentions when using recasts (e.g., for communicative or corrective purposes) as well as how this may differentially influence learners' recognition of the gaps between their utterances and the recasts.

In sum, research that has investigated the relationship between OCF and students' uptake has found a complex picture. Different characteristics seem to affect whether OCFs, and in particular recasts, are noticed and whether the learner then corrects their erroneous production. So far, however, we have not discussed whether OCF actually affects learning itself. The next section will discuss this question.

The effectiveness of OCF in developing students' learning: Some studies have investigated the effectiveness of OCF, and in particular the recast, with regard to SL development (see Gass & McDonough, 2013; Mackey, 2000; Rasaei, 2013). For example, Rasaei (2013) explored the connection between the impact of recasting and of more explicit forms of correction on language development. The study took place in Iran and involved 75 Iranian male and female FL students. The participants were recruited from three intermediate-level classes, who were then randomly allocated into two experiment classes and one control class. Two highly experienced instructors who had studied English as a FL were also participants. Whilst working through interactional activities in a communication-based class, participants in one class were provided with recasts, while those in the second were given other forms of explicit correction. The control class were not given any type of correction. All three classes were videotaped and the students watched the recording in order to recall their thoughts when they were given correction. They were encouraged to pause the video at any point to make comments. In addition, the students' learning of any new words, as a result of the recast or other types of feedback, was examined to gain insights into the effectiveness of recasting, as contrasted with other techniques. Three different tests were used to measure students' acquisition, namely: a writing test, an untimed grammaticality judgment test, and an error correction test. The outcomes indicated that explicit corrective feedback was a more effective method, as it was usually noticed more by students and was more helpful in improving students' SLA than

recasts. The researcher concluded by pointing out that recasting could be more effective if it was made more salient.

Another relevant study was carried out by Mackey et al. (2000), who investigated students' perceptions of error correction in an interactive context and sought to explore whether this played a role in SL improvement. The research participants comprised 10 ESL students and approximately seven students who studied Italian as a FL, all of whom had various different first languages such as French, Japanese, and Korean. The study explored their perspectives on error correction, which was given to them via an interactional teaching context (Mackey et al., 2000, p. 478). All the participants undertook an interactional activity with the researcher, lasting about 15 minutes and were videotaped. They were provided with error correction on several morphosyntactic, lexical, and phonological forms. The video-recording was played back to each student and paused at key points so the students could recall their perceptions after each correction they were given. The students were also encouraged to pause the video whenever they wanted in order to add any comments. The outcomes indicate that the students were better able to perceive error correction when it related to lexical, semantic, and phonological forms, as opposed to when it focused on the morphosyntactic form (Mackey et al., 2000). In addition, it was found that morphosyntactic errors were generally corrected by recasting, while other forms of error were corrected by negotiation. That said, the researchers did conclude by stating that, as only a small number of students participated in this study, the findings should not be generalised to all contexts, and that more studies needed to be conducted in this area.

Another study, designed to compare teachers' and students' views about corrective feedback, was conducted by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) at a Basque university. The participants comprised 10 instructors, nine of whom were from the Basque region and one was English, who all taught children ranging from the ages of three to 13, as well as 11 undergraduate students. The researchers exposed both the instructors and students to video clips showing educational classes in which a large amount of error correction was provided for the students. After that, the instructors and learners were asked to identify the corrective feedback and categorise the error (i.e. whether it was lexical or syntactic, and to indicate at which level the feedback was effective). The

findings showed that most of the instructors' corrective feedback was not noticed by the students. In addition, although most of the learners did not like to be routinely given feedback on every single mistake, both the instructors and learners argued that if the feedback involved 'more time, longer explanations and use of different correction strategies', the more effective it was likely to be, and that this needed to be done only with 'selective' errors (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005, p. 112). The researchers concluded by stating that investigating and considering learners' views on feedback is crucial for education and for feedback techniques in particular.

2.8 Summary of the literature to date and identification of the key gaps

This summary presents the key points from this literature review. Each point identifies a gap in the research to date and then provides a brief statement highlighting how the current study addresses that gap.

Gap 1: Teacher cognition and its relationship with their in-class behaviour

- Previous research into relations between teachers' cognition (views, attitude, and beliefs) and their actual practices has revealed mixed findings. Although many of these studies revealed some correspondence between instructors' beliefs and their behaviour in the classroom, most showed that this only occurred to a limited degree (see Basturkmen, 2012). Many studies found a lack of correspondence due to factors such as the educational system in the teaching context under investigation, such as being obliged to cover the curriculum, big class sizes, and the difference between their beliefs about teaching and the aim of the final exams in their teaching context (see Basturkmen, 2012; Fayyaz & Omar, 2014; Mori, 2011). Also, other variables such as a teachers' experience can affect the relationship between their cognition and actual behaviours. Exploring a wider range of contexts and teacher experiences in this research agenda would help us to gain a better understanding of teacher cognition and practices, as noted by Mori (2011).

- A related important gap in this agenda to date is that the relationship between instructor beliefs and *incidental (unplanned)* features of teachers' instruction, such as error correction, has been underexplored. Researchers (such as Basturkmen, 2012) suggested recording teachers' instruction and then using the recording during an interview with the teachers to ask them about some

events would help to acquire a deeper understanding of their beliefs about unplanned in-class practices.

- These two gaps in this agenda (the need to take account of context and teacher experience and the need to investigate unplanned aspects of classroom interaction) motivated the current study's a) focus on one particular context (EFL secondary school classrooms in KSA, Hail) b) the collection and analysis of data about teachers' training and amount of experience and c) use of SR to find out more about teachers' beliefs and reasons for using different types of oral feedback. By asking teachers about instances where they had used oral feedback in their classes would provide a better understanding of teachers' behaviours and motivations for acting in a particular way compared to collecting isolated, self-report data alone.

Gap 2: The role of classroom context in influencing the type of oral feedback used.

- According to previous studies in this field, recasting is the most common type of feedback used by language teachers, even though studies on students' perceptions and uptake of oral error correction have suggested that students may be unclear about the function of recasting as a correction or for the purposes of communication and other types of correction (such as prompting) might be more useful for noticing, uptake and learning (see Al-Faki, 2013; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2014; Lyster & Lee, 2013; Roothooft, 2014; Ranta, 1997; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008). However, research to date has largely taken place in westernised contexts (where, arguably, more learner-centred approaches are more frequent and feasible) and in contexts whose curricular and pedagogy are broadly communicatively oriented (that is, with a focus on oral interaction and the expression of meaning over grammatical accuracy and study and translation of written material). In addition, many of these studies have been conducted in ESL and mixed first language (L1) classes in which, arguably, it is easier to engage in (potentially more natural) oral interaction, as the target (i.e., second) language has high social value in the local context and the main (or only) shared language in the classroom is the language being learned. Therefore, these

contextual characteristics may have heavily influenced the finding that recasts were the most common feedback type, as these contexts foreground the importance of not interrupting oral communication between teacher and learners. These previous contexts are very different from that of my study. That is, the current study context tends to involve teaching that is generally focused on forms, grammar, and translation (as found by Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Alshammari, 2012). More research is needed to investigate teachers' cognition and choices with regard to OCF in more traditional (form- and accuracy-focused) FL settings (Basturkmen, 2012; Brown, 2016) to explore whether and why recasts are used in contexts where there is less oral communication to interrupt and how learners react to these recasts in terms of correcting their language (the extent of uptake).

- o Therefore, the current study set out to address this gap by exploring teachers' choices of OCF forms in the secondary school FL context in Saudi (which emphasises formal accuracy) and to monitor students' uptake following OCF.

Gap 3: Design limitations: The need for both qualitative and quantitative approaches

- Many studies have investigated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices but have not collected more qualitative data from observations, interviews, or SR sessions (as also observed by Basturkmen, 2012) or they have been very small scale with just a small number of case studies. To better understand teachers' beliefs and the relationship with their practices, in order to draw generalisations and deeper insights, a larger number of participants and several observations from each participant are needed (as noted by several authors, e.g., Fayyaz & Omar, 2014; Kamiya, 2016; Mori, 2011). An additional methodological limitation of previous research is that, although Mori (2011) used SR to explore teacher thinking during class, he only used handwritten notes as the stimulus to prompt the memory of the interactional moment (instead of audio-recordings). This was a significant limitation because it may have caused him to miss some data while taking notes during the lessons and may not have provided an accurate account of events.

o   In light of these limitations, the current study will conduct several observations per teacher, across a larger number of teachers than in previous studies, and use SRs with audio-recording per teacher in addition to an observation-schedule during class.

Gap 4: The influence of teachers' perceptions about learner-related variables on teachers' choice of type of oral feedback.

- Few studies to date have explored teachers' perceptions about individual learner characteristics (such as pupils' proficiency, ability, or confidence – as perceived by the teacher) to explore teachers' reasons for using different types of oral feedback (e.g., Yoshida, 2008). In addition, those studies that *have* analysed teachers' perceptions of the different purposes of different OCF forms have been carried out in communicative-based and learner-centred contexts, which is very different from the more form-focused and less learner-centred context of the current study (e.g., Al-Seghayer, 2014a; Alshammari, 2012). In the current context, teacher perceptions and their understanding about students and about their learning needs may be different.

  o   Thus, the current study set out to observe a substantial number of classes and follow them with SR sessions which carefully probed the reasons that motivated teachers during individual OCF events, asking questions about teachers' thinking about the individual child and error that was being corrected. In addition, the current study administered questionnaires to a larger number of teachers, which carefully defined and illustrated different types of OCF (via written and videoed examples), to ensure that the respondents understood the type of OCF that was being probed.

Gap 5: Characteristics of the nature of the correction.

- A range of factors may affect students' uptake and awareness of OCF as they can determine the extent to which OCF is more or less salient. These characteristics include the type of correction (recast versus prompt/elicitation), intonation, number of changes made in a recast, and the nature of the targeted language (see e.g., Kim and Han, 2007; Egi, 2007; Sheen, 2006). For instance,

it has been found that phonological and lexical corrections were noticed by learners more easily than other linguistic types.

- o The current study will therefore examine students' immediate uptake as an indication of their noticing of different types of OCF and different types of error (e.g., phonological, lexical, grammatical). All data elicitation tools (the observation, the SR probes, the questionnaire and interview) will all adopt a carefully planned and fine-grained framework for defining error types and OCF types.

2.6 Research questions

In the light of the gaps in research identified to date, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are EFL teachers' perceptions of, and attitudes towards, different types of OCF?
2. What types of oral error correction do the teachers use and why?
   2.1. How do learners respond to these different types of OCF?
   2.2. How do the following factors influence teachers' use of oral error correction:
      2.2.1   Teachers' perceptions of learners' proficiency?
      2.2.2   Type of language errors?
      2.2.3   Teachers' length of experience?

Following this literature review is a detailed explanation of the research methods that have been adopted for this study, including the context of the study, the participants, and the transcribing and coding of the data.

Chapter Three: Context, Design, Methodology, and Methods

As presented at the end of the literature review, the current study aimed to address the following research questions:

1. What are EFL teachers' perceptions of, and attitudes towards, different types of OCF?

2. What types of OCF do the teachers use and why?

    2.1. How do learners respond to these different types of OCF?

    2.2. How do the following factors influence teachers' use of oral error correction:

        2.2.4   Teachers' perceptions of learners' proficiency?

        2.2.5   Type of language errors?

        2.2.6   Teachers' length of experience?

3 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the research methodology and data collection instruments used in the main study. The chapter starts by giving a general overview of the design. It then provides background information concerning the participants and their educational context. The data collection methods chosen to address the RQs are then justified and described. The pilot study and its data are presented, with information about how the pilot study informed the final design of the study and instruments. The main study's methods were as follows: In brief, 10 teachers were observed 10 times each, yielding 100 observations. Each observation was followed by SR sessions. Each teacher was also interviewed once (10 interviews) after all the observations were complete. In addition, 207 teachers filled in online questionnaires online. Each aspect of the study will be justified and described in detail later in this chapter.

3.1 Design of the Study

Overall design: With 10 teachers across 4 schools, I conducted 100 classroom observations (10 for each teacher) each followed by a SR session (100 sessions), to understand teachers' choices of OCF types in lessons. An interview was held with each of the 10 teachers, after the series of observations, to gather information about their views with regard to OCF. The observations, SRs and interviews all helped to answer RQ1, 2 and 3. Then, in addition, in order to gather data from a wider sample of participants, online questionnaires were completed by 207 female English teachers (including the 10 core teachers) across Saudi Arabia. These questionnaires contributed to addressing RQ1 and RQ3. Data collection was done in this sequence to avoid giving the participants too much information (e.g. information about different types of OCF presented in the online questionnaires) before observing and interviewing them.

The purpose of mixed methods: As is clear from the above, this was a mixed methods study, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. This was because both qualitative and quantitative data were needed to better understand the *nature of* instructors' practices and perceptions as well as their preponderance and frequency (Dornyei, 2007). As Dornyei explains: 'Combining and increasing the number of research strategies used within a particular project would broaden the scope of the investigation and enrich the scholars' ability to draw conclusions about the problem under study' (p.164). For instance, while quantitative tools such as questionnaires would help to collect data from a large sample of participants, qualitative data such as observation would enrich comprehension about their actual behaviour in classes, as compared to what they think.

Pilot study to inform the design. A small pilot study was carried out prior to the main study. This pilot was carried out with three teachers in Saudi Arabia across in one school (not those included in the main study). It included all of the instruments mention above and two additional data collection instruments. As a result of the pilot, two main changes were made for the main study. Firstly, a student questionnaire was omitted from the main study because it was clear that it was beyond the scope of the study to investigate student perceptions and so, in consultation with the thesis advisory panel. The research question relating to students' perceptions was removed. This decision served to focus the study on teachers' perceptions and behaviours, allowing more data to be collected on these. Second, it was decided to not collect 'objective data' about learners' language proficiency, and so the X-Lex vocabulary test was omitted from the instrument battery. The reason for doing so was to focus the investigation on the teachers' *'perceived'* proficiency of the learners, as this *perception* is what could influence teachers' choices of OCF types during classroom interaction. Additional data on learner' actual proficiency was beyond the scope of the study.

3.2 Participants and context

The current study was conducted during September, October, November, January, and February 2015-16.

3.2.1 Gaining access

To gain permission for my pilot and main studies, I contacted principals in the Ministry of Education. Permission was granted for me to conduct my study with teachers and students in female schools in KSA. My request to video-record lessons was refused because video-recording Saudi female students is not allowed, but I could audio-record if participants gave consent.

Initially it was hard to find participants who would agree to be observed with audio recording. Prospective participants were told that the aim of the study was to investigate students' interactions in class and given a final deadline of 1ˢᵗ March 2016 to inform the researcher if they wished to withdraw themselves or their data from the study. Six schools were visited and four of them agreed to take part in the study.

In one of the schools, two Saudi English teachers hesitantly allowed me to observe one lesson but refused any audio-recordings of their classes, explaining that the students would not accept this or be comfortable with it. Even after permission from the head of the school was given, the teachers continued to refuse. In another school, the head teacher refused permission to audio-record, explaining that this may interrupt students during their normal classes. Therefore, these two schools could not be included in the study.

I then used personal connections (a friend and my sister) who recommended three teachers who fully supported my research and allowed me to observe and record their lessons, SRs and interviews. In turn, these teachers recommended two more English teachers to me, and they recommended five other teachers who would be willing to have their classes and interviews audio recorded.

In total, 10 participants agreed to participate in the main study. All were female Saudi FL teachers of English for high school students (aged 15-17) in Hail, KSA. These participants came from four schools. Each of the teachers agreed to be observed 10 times, followed by SR interviews, and then participate in an interview regarding their views on OCF, and finally, to complete the questionnaire via Qualtrics.

As a token of appreciation for their valuable efforts, understanding and patience in facilitating the successful collection of data for the current research study, the ten core teachers were given gifts of chocolates and perfume.

3.2.2 Ethics

Before conducting the pilot study and my main study, ethical approval was sought and granted from my university, the University of York. My study included students who are under 18 and this required special considerations about permission. Permission was also obtained from my sponsor in the Saudi Cultural Bureau in London and then from the Ministry of Education in KSA.

Consent forms were distributed to heads of schools and all participants. All participants were well-informed about the study and subject/nature of the research, so they could make a conscious decision to participate. The researcher left her contact details with participants so they could get in touch when they needed to (see Appendix A).

3.2.3 Participants

For the observations, SRs and interviews, 10 Saudi female teachers took part. Each had between 5 and 15 years of English teaching experience and was aged between 26 and 40. For the online questionnaires, 207 Saudi female English teachers, whose L1 is Arabic and who teach EFL, participated. All were Saudi FL teachers of English to students aged between 12 and 17. (See Chapter Four for more information about the participants).

3.3 Instruments

As noted above, there were four data collection phases. With the 10 teachers, an observation was followed by a SR interview, which lasted for approximately 20 minutes. The teachers were told that the observations and SR interviews were focused on interaction and students' reactions. Interviews were conducted after the observations were complete and lasted for about 30-40 minutes, seeking their views regarding OCF. Finally, they (along with over 200 other teachers) completed the

online questionnaire (which included illustrative videos of OCF types) to further investigate preferences with regard to OCF types.

The remainder of this chapter now covers each of these four methods (data elicitation techniques) in turn. For each method, first a short 'Methodol*ogy*' section describes the method, presents its strengths and weaknesses and decision points, and evaluates it in terms of its relevance to the current study. The second section then presents the 'Method' as used in this current study, i.e. how the method was actually implemented.

3.3.1 Classroom observation

3.3.1.1 Methodology of classroom observation

Observation is defined by Mason (1996; as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005) as "methods of generating data which involve the researcher immersing [him or herself] in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, and so on, within it" (p. 60). The goal of this methodology is to therefore to allow observers to describe participants' behaviour within the classroom. This methodology usually involves using both "field notes", which could include "detailed impressions of the researcher's intuitions, impressions, and even questions as they emerge", and audio- or video-recording equipment, so that the observer can conduct a deeper data analysis of language usage at a later date (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 175). Additionally, it enables another researcher who did not observe the event itself to also be involved in this process.

Observations can use structured notes, sometimes in the form of a kind of checklist or tabular proforma, to record key information, such as "when, where, who, and how" information about OCF. This systematicity enables the researchers to make comparisons between different environments. Observation can provide rich data about activities in specific contexts over several occasions providing direct, primary data about participants' actions, rather than 'self-report' (what participants tell the researcher) (Dornyei, 2007).

There are also a number of negative aspects to observation. The main one is that they do not provide information about participants' mental processes (e.g., emotions, thoughts, or intentions). To address this limitation, SR sessions can be incorporated in tandem with observations, whereby teachers are presented with a recording (or some other record) of the lesson and then be asked about what they were thinking at particular moments, such as reasons behind particular behaviours. Another limitation is that 'what' is observed can be subjective, that is, different observers may record different things. To address this, researchers can use a combination of unstructured (free notes) and structured observations, using a n observation protocol to predetermine which events would be observed.

3.3.1.2 Observation Method used in the current study

Observation was highly relevant for the current study, as it provided data about actual OCF behaviour, as opposed to relying on the participants' verbal reports of what they do. Such data were crucial to answer RQ2 about teachers' choices with regard to OCF forms and students' immediate responses to these corrections. Furthermore, it was essential to audio-record the observed class so that the recording could be used in the SR sessions. The observations were important to answer RQ3, to investigate the extent of match between teachers' views, according to interviews, and their actual practices according to the observation data.

However, the study also aimed to explore teachers' *reasons* for using different OCFs, which could not be fully understood using only observations, as observations would not show mental processes. To overcome this, SR sessions were used to ask participants about their thoughts while listening to clips of the events in order to gain a better understanding of their actions.

In the current study, 10 lessons for each teacher were observed and audio recorded, totaling 100 sessions. Semi-structured notes were taken about the types of error and their correction. In addition, an observation tool was used. Details of the process are now outlined.

a. Practicalities

The researcher agreed with each of the teachers on the days and times that would be suitable, ensuring enough time was allocated for the SR session to be conducted immediately after the observed class. This immediacy was important so that the information would still be fresh in both the researcher and teachers' minds (Gass & Mackey, 2000).

In order to record the teachers, a small flash recorder was attached to their clothes before they entered the class and recorded their voice throughout the lesson. The small recording device was concealed inside the teacher's jacket, so that the students would not be distracted by it.

b. Observation tools

The structured observation schedule was adapted from Mackey and Gass (2005), which was suitable for investigating error correction. Adaptations included adding 'peer correction' and 'teacher plus peer correction' to the classifications of the sources of feedback (see Appendices B, & C). In addition, the items 'implicit recast' and 'different types of explicit feedback' were added to the classifications of the types of oral correction. Also, the category "content" was added as a possible target of feedback. Finally, a coding category for students' immediate uptake was added (i.e. full uptake: correctly without mistakes; partial uptake: with mistakes; and no uptake).

The structured observation schedule was used whilst observing the lessons to document the source and type of the correction, as well as the target (focus) of the error. Also, free text notes were taken about other elements of the class (such as the type of teaching and students' role in the class). Together, these provided a detailed picture about the nature and amount of classroom OCF.

The observations carried out for the pilot study led to a small number of modifications to the observation protocol, including the addition of explicit recast classifications. (These classifications were also added to the questionnaire (see Appendix C). Also,

the observation schedule was changed to ensure the classifications of OCF and error types matched those in the teacher questionnaire and the interviews.

3.3.2 Stimulated Recall

3.3.2.1 Methodology of simulated recall

As stated by Gass and Mackey (2000), SR "can be used to prompt participants to recall thoughts [participants] had while performing a task or participating in an event" (p.17). Props (a stimulus) can help participants to recollect relevant information. An example of this is a video recording of them carrying out an activity. This methodology needs to be implemented within as short a time period as possible after the activity.

SR has been used by several previous studies in the field of OCF, to investigate students' (see e.g., Al-Surmi, 2012) or teachers' thoughts (see e.g., Mori, 2011; Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000) describe SR good practice (in a study that aimed to elicit students' thoughts about corrections) as allowing participants to pause the recording at any point to give their thoughts and the researchers also being able to stop the video-recording to ask the participant to retrieve his/her thoughts relating to a particular episode. For example, Al-Surmi (2012) stopped the tape at all the instances of recast of erroneous morphosyntax, and asked participants: 'what were you thinking at that point?' (p. 230) whilst pictures of the classroom activities/materials were also shown to the learners to help them recall their thoughts. Rather than using audio- or video-recording, Mori (2011) took notes during the observation, but this was a major limitation because the researcher risked missing information whilst note-taking.

Although the SR method is effective for eliciting teachers' thoughts about their actual practice, particularly in relation to unplanned aspects of teaching such as OCF choices, it is also considered to be challenging (see discussion by, e.g., Basturkmen, 2012; Gass & Mackey, 2000).

Two fundamental drawbacks have been raised. Firstly, as pointed out by Ericsson and Simon (1987, 1993, 1996; as cited in Gass & Mackey, 2000), although the researcher may conduct the SR as soon as possible after an activity, the memories that participants retrieve may not always connect to the episode in question. For instance, the participant may retrieve ideas that they had already had before the activity in question. Another limitation is that even if the time between the activity and the recall session is only 30 minutes, some memories can still fade quickly (Posner, 1992; as cited in Gass & Mackey, 2000). That said, it is still preferable to having a SR in comparison to having no stimulus at all and limiting methods to self-report (questionnaires, interviews) or observations, only. While the observations were important to answer the first part of RQ2, about how teachers correct, the SRs were crucial to elicit teachers' views about *why* they corrected their students' oral errors in the way they did.

3.3.2.2 Stimulated recall methods used in the current study

After each observed lesson, a SR was used. The aim of these sessions was to ask the teachers (a) if they thought their students' had noticed their oral errors and why, (b) why the teacher had used that specific type of OCF, and (c) their perceptions of the student's proficiency who had made the error. A total of 100 SR sessions were conducted (10 with each teacher), each session lasting around 20 minutes. The SR sessions were conducted in Arabic (the participants' L1) and carried out on the same day as the observed lessons, or the next day, to help the participants to recollect. Though as noted above, it was acknowledged that some memories may have faded.

The participants were told that they would hear some audio clips of students' oral errors and their OCF, which would then be followed by the researcher's questions (see Appendix D). The participants were also told that they had the right to stop the recorder, or ask for it to be stopped, whenever they wished.

The SRs in the pilot study provided the researcher with practice in administering this protocol and indicated the importance of making quick decisions during the observations about which instances to choose for the SRs.

However, one or two challenges remained with using this instrument, specifically because the classes were audio-recoded rather than video-recorded and so teachers did not always recognize who the student was and therefore could not talk about their language proficiency. These instances were coded as 'I don't know'. Fortunately, the majority of instances were correctly recognized and labelled by teachers perhaps because the SR sessions were normally held as soon as possible after the class.

3.3.3 Interviews

3.3.3.1 Interview Methodology

Various forms of interviews can be used. One type is the structured interview which is similar to "verbal questionnaires", and allows the data gathered from various participants to be compared (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.173). A semi-structured interview is more flexible than a structured interview, as described by Mackey and Gass (2005), whereby, "the researcher uses a written list of questions as a guide, while still having the freedom to digress and probe for more information" (p. 173). Lastly, the unstructured interview resembles a "natural conversation", in which the interviewers do not use a set of questions, but instead they "develop and adapt their own questions, helping respondents to open up and express themselves in their own terms and at their own speed" (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 173). This third type is particularly useful for collecting more qualitative data (data for which coding categories have not been predefined precisely before the data collection, and for which (most of) the coding categories emerge from the data).

Interviews help to explore issues that cannot be probed during observations, such as the reasons that drive actions, participants' preferences and/or thoughts. They give interviewers a chance to ask for clarification if a participant's answer was not clear or required further elaboration (Mackey & Gass, 2005). They are useful for eliciting data from people who like to verbalise rather than write. Conducting the interviews in the participants' L1 helps to eliminate the influence of their L2 proficiency level on the "quality and quantity" of their answers (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.174).

In terms of the disadvantages of using interviews, their data can be time-consuming to transcribe and analyse. In addition, they also require good communication skills, something that not every researcher is capable of (Dornyei, 2007). Another limitation is that some participants may feel shy and inhibited during the interview, which prevents them from giving sufficiently full answers, whereas others may be over-talkative and digress from the topic at hand.

3.3.3.2 Interview methods used in the current study

Semi-structured interviews were used. The researcher prepared questions to elicit specific data for the research questions, but had the flexibility to explore for further information based on the participants' answers.

The teacher interviews were conducted in Arabic, the participants' L1, to elicit perceptions and attitudes without causing anxiety or reducing the validity of the data due to language proficiency. The instances of different OCF types were given in English, to ensure fidelity to the OCF types under focus.

One interview was conducted with each of the 10 teachers. Each interview lasted between twenty to forty minutes. To try to reduce demands on participants, the interview were tagged on to the last SR session for each teacher.

It was divided into two main parts: the first part included questions pertaining to their teaching experience and teacher training. These data were for exploring any relationships between the experiences of the teacher and their OCF attitudes and behaviours.

The second part of the interview explored the teachers' views on the effectiveness of different types of OCF, their general attitudes towards OCF, and their preferences and reasons (such as perceived proficiency of the student) for using certain types of OCF. These data were used to answer RQ1 and also RQ2 (comparing perceptions/attitudes with actual observed practices in the classroom).

3.3.4 Questionnaires

3.3.4.1 Questionnaire Methodology

Questionnaires are "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers" (Brown, 2001, as cited in Dornyei, 2010), p. 6). They are generally used to measure three types of data: "factual, behavioral, and attitudinal" (Dornyei, 2010, p. 5). Factual questions are usually about the participants' identities, such as their names, ages and nationalities; behavioural questions relate to the participants' activities or events; attitudinal questions are connected to the participants' thinking, and are therefore designed to explore their ideas, perceptions, and preferences.

Questionnaires have a number of advantages over interviews. For example, they are less time-consuming and can be distributed to greater number of participants simultaneously (Dornyei, 2010). Their data also require less effort in that, if they are well designed and elicited quantitative data, they can be analysed relatively quickly.

That said, there are disadvantages too. In order for the questionnaires to be effective, the questions need to be simple and clearly understood by the participants. Moreover, if participants think that a questionnaire is too long and become bored with it, then this may lead them to give inaccurate answers or leave the questionnaire altogether. It is often the case that some questions will be left unanswered because participants do not understand or do not like the questions. In addition, a small percentage of people have difficulties with reading or writing, which could be exacerbated if the questionnaires are written in a language other than their L1. If the researcher does not have the participant contact details, then any unclear answers cannot be probed. One way of overcoming this problem is to be with the participants when they complete the questionnaire, though of course this can rarely be done with large numbers of participants. Another way of reducing incomprehensibility is to insert examples of the constructs or phenomena that are being investigated. This ensures that the participants understand what is intended by the researcher's questions.

Another drawback of using questionnaires is that some participants may provide answers that reflect what they think they should do, rather than what they actually do (Dornyei, 2010). To address this, it is recommended that researchers collect a different type of data to 'triangulate' the data, such as observation or interview data. Again, this is difficult to do with large numbers of participants.

3.3.4.2 Questionnaire used in the current study

The questionnaire aimed to answer RQ1 regarding teachers' preferences for, and perceptions about, the effectiveness of different types of OCF. It also collected data to answer RQ3 about the match and mismatch between teachers' preferences and actual practices.

The questionnaire was distributed to Saudi female EFL teachers in a number of Saudi schools, through different avenues: through face-to-face interaction, by text and WhatsApp, as well as using social media platforms like Twitter. Many of the participants, as well as family and friends, were extremely active in distributing the questionnaire. The questionnaire participants included teachers in different cities around KSA, such as Riyadh, Qassim and Hail.

207 teachers responded to the online questionnaire, administered via Qualtrics. 159 of these respondents answered every question. Most questionnaires were done remotely. Also, the researcher visited 12 schools to distribute the questionnaires for 53 teachers and stayed in the room with participants when they filled in the questionnaire, to make sure that they understood every question. Although this might have introduced a difference in the accuracy of the responses from the participants compared to those who filled in the questionnaire remotely, it was still considered that the benefits outweighed this potential concern.

The questionnaire was written in English. It was comprised of two main sections. The first section, with 4 questions, about the respondents' age, their length of teaching experience, and the grade and number of their students in each class. The second part included 24 questions about their views about OCFs such as whether oral errors should be corrected or not, when they thought OCF should be provided (immediately

or after the end of the interaction), how often they should correct errors, which errors should be corrected, how effective each type of OCF, and who should correct the error.

The types of OCF included were taken from categories used in previous studies (i.e., Lee, 2013; Nassaji, 2007) and modified according to the adapted classifications for the types of OCF (see Chapter Two). The types of OCF were presented in the questionnaire from the most explicit to the least explicit, starting with elicitations/prompts, and then moving on to reformulations/recasts (see Appendix G). First, the technique was described and then the teachers were asked about their views about the effectiveness of these techniques, using a 5-point Likert scale: (a) very effective, b) effective, c) ineffective, d) very ineffective, e) I don't know.

Several steps were taken to address the concern (noted above) that questionnaire respondents not understanding the idea (in this case, the type of OCF) that the researcher is trying to express in the questions.
(1) At the beginning of the questionnaire, it was explained that the term 'types of corrections' or 'corrective feedback' or 'error correction' referred to any treatment of students' errors, either by: a) giving hints; b) correcting without pointing out the error to the students; and/or c) direct correction, with or without an explanation (see Appendix G).

(2) The participants were presented with written examples of each type of correction to increase the validity of the questions (to ensure the participants understood the question as intended). Two examples are (see Appendix G for more):
S: "I goed to the park yesterday"
GOED? (Repetition with prompt: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice).
A) Very effective (   ).
B) Effective (   ).
C) Ineffective (   ).
D) Very ineffective (   ).
E) I do not know (   )

S: "I goed to the park yesterday"

Could you say that again (Clarification request)?

A) Very effective ( ).

B) Effective ( ).

C) Ineffective ( ).

D) Very ineffective ( ).

E) I do not know ( ).

(3) Examples of each type of OCF were recorded on short video clips, each approximately one minute long, and inserted into the questionnaire. The pilot study demonstrated that these video clips were needed, particularly for the majority of participants who would receive the questionnaire online without the physical attendance of the researcher to help them understand the questions. The video clips showed an error and its correction being acted out by a fellow PhD student ('the teacher') with her son ('the student'). See the attached CD containing the examples of OCF types shown in the short videos. Descriptions and names of each type of corrections with a transcription of the examples were given to them so they could understand them before coming to act them out. A gift was given to them to thank them.

Based on the pilot study (for a description of this pilot study, see below, section 3.6), the most significant changes were that (a) the video clips were inserted and (b) format of the questions investigating the teachers' preferences for the source of correction was changed from multiple-choice (the form used in the pilot study) to ranking in order of preference (the form used in the main study):

❖ How do you rank the following persons to correct your students' spoken errors? Rank the following persons in order of preference. (Notice that 1 represents the most preferred person and 3 the least preferred person).

Classmates ( ).

Students themselves ( ).

Teachers ( ).

3.4 Data *Transcription*

The researcher, whose L1 is Arabic and who has a strong grasp of the English language as her L2, transcribed all the teachers' interviews and SR sessions, which were then saved electronically and printed out. The researcher then re-played and listened to all the recordings of the teachers' interviews and SR sessions, whilst reading the printed transcriptions to check whether they were all accurate. Many errors were found and corrected at this stage.

3.5 Data Analysis

3.5.1 Analysis of quantitative data

For the questionnaire, data was extracted from Qualtrics for each question (showing how many participants had answered each question).

The quantitative data from the questionnaires and observation schedules were analysed using SPSS.

Descriptive statistics (means, ranges, standard deviations) were calculated for the variables that were relevant to the RQs.

An inferential test was also used. The Chi-square test was used to investigate if there was a relationship between the "two categorical variables": teachers' choices of OCF and the error type; and teachers' choices of OCF and their students' level of language proficiency as perceived by the teachers (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2013, pp. 721; Pearson, 1900).

3.5.2 Analysis and coding of the SR and interview data

The software package, NVivo, was used to analyse the qualitative data: teachers' SR sessions and interviews. This helped code relevant themes from the 100 SRs. Thematic analysis was used to identify and extract themes from the data, to 'help 'describes your data set in (rich) detail' (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.79). Themes captured crucial elements related to the RQs. The process of analysis created nodes in NVivo to generate the themes (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Phases of thematic analysis (taken from Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarizing yourself with your data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

3.5.2.1 Developing a coding scheme

The NVivo software facilitated assigning of codes to identify the important features of these data, making it easier to analyse the rich data (Dornyei, 2007). As laid out in Table 3.1, the researcher started by reading the data and highlighting some coding

themes according to the research questions: i) type of correction, ii) type of errors, iii) reason for correction.

i) Types of OCF.

For coding of types of OCF, some of these codes were taken from previous studies (i.e. Lyster, 1998, Lyster & Ranta, 1997, and Nassaji, 2007), such as the types of OCF (i.e. recast, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, explicit feedback with explanation, and repetition), while other coding themes were created specifically for this study, such as additional types of implicit recasts. These included, "recast with indication"; "the teacher says 'No'", which indicates that the student's answer was wrong before giving the right answer; "asking a peer to recast her error"; and "recast with intonation: such as when the corrector recasts the erroneous production with a high intonation". Examples of coding are as follows:

Example 1:
S: "Kindey". (Was coded as a phonological error).
T: "Kidney". (Was coded as an implicit recast).

Example 2:
S: "educace" (Was coded as a morphological error).
T: "No" (The teacher tried to use elicitation to elicit the correct answer from the student).
S: …
T: Look at the word "act". It ends with "t", so it becomes 'action'.
P: Education. (Was coded as 'full uptake' because the student pronounced it correctly but if, for example, she tried but mispronounced it, it would have been coded as 'partial uptake').

After the pilot study, the observation schedule was improved and, therefore, the coding themes for the SR and interview data were modified accordingly. For instance, this included changing the types of recasts to make them more similar to Nassaji's (2007) recast sub-types (see Section 2.2), and 'students' uptake of teachers' corrections' was also added (see Appendices B and C).

The final coding scheme classified OCF into two main types: "prompts/elicitations" and "reformulations/recasts". Under prompts/elicitations, sub-codes were: "confirmation checks", "elicitation with prompt", "elicitation with enhanced prompt", "repetition with prompt", "repetition with enhanced prompt", "metalinguistic feedback", and "non-verbal hints". Under the main type reformulations/recasts, sub-codes were: "isolated recast without prompt", "isolated recast with prompt", "isolated recast with enhanced prompt", "embedded recast without prompt", "embedded recast with prompt", and "embedded recast with enhanced prompt".

ii) The type of error (the language that was produced by the learner).

This theme was classified in terms of: "morphological", "syntactic", "translation error L1 to English L2", "translation error L2 to L1", "translation/meaning error L2 to L2", and "phonological error".

iii) The teachers' reasons for choosing OCF types.

These were coded, following the range of responses given by the teachers, as: "very effective method", "avoid embarrassing students", "to elicit answer from students", "regular error", "to save time", "students' language proficiency level", and/or "I don't know".

3.5.2.2 Analyses of the combinations of codes

Matrices of codes were created, in order to examine combinations of coding categories. For example, the teachers' choices of feedback were analysed according to (as a function of) their reasons for making OCF choices; the teachers' OCF choices was examined according to their perceptions of the students' proficiency.

3.5.2.3 Reliability of the coding

The reliability of the coding was checked using an inter-rater reliability check, which Mackey and Gass (2005) assert is vital to "ensure that the scheme can be used consistently or reliably across multiple coders wherever possible" (p. 242). Thus, the inter-rater reliability was checked for approximately 30% of the transcribed

qualitative data from the interviews and SR sessions. Another individual, was given the definitions for the coding themes and was trained and instructed by the researcher, then coded 30% of the data. The results obtained by the researcher and the assistant were 85% in agreement, and after the researcher had re-coded the data and deliberated upon this again, the figure increased to 90%.

3.6 Pilot study

Introduction

The pilot study was conducted in governmental state schools, in the city of Hail, Saudi Arabia. The four Saudi teachers who agreed to participate in the pilot study all had BA qualifications and they were aged between 30 and 39. Their experience in teaching English ranged from 5 to 10 years. According to the observation data, there were approximately 22 students present in each class.

3.6.1 The purpose of the pilot study

A pilot study was carried out to try the data elicitation tools and amend them accordingly. The same trip to Saudi Arabia was used to find participants to take part in the main study.

Another purpose of the pilot study was to check the feasibility of the design. Student questionnaires and a language proficiency test called X-Lex were used in the pilot study with 6 students. It was found to be too much for this study to administer the X-Lex test with the students. The RQ relating to students' perceptions was removed and, therefore, the student questionnaires and language proficiency test were accordingly removed from the main study.

a. Context and participants: The pilot study was conducted during March/April 2014, and the participants were given a final deadline of 5ᵗʰ April 2014 to inform the researcher if they wished to withdraw themselves or their data from the study. The participants were told that the aim of this study was to investigate teachers' and students' opinions about interaction.

b. Observation, SRs and Interviews: In the pilot study, five observations were initially conducted and analysed. Unfortunately, the sound quality from the audio recording of the first two observations was poor, so they were subsequently repeated. This was then followed by five SR sessions. Next, three interviews were conducted with the teachers, who were then asked to complete four questionnaires.

c. Students' questionnaires: Seven students were chosen randomly from three classes to complete the questionnaires. The main purpose of the student questionnaire had been to help answer an earlier RQ2, which had focused on students' perceptions of, and preferences for, different forms of OCF. Once these questionnaires were collated, it was envisaged that the data would be compared to those of the teachers. However, this RQ was removed from the study in order to focus the scope of the research on the teachers' reasons for choosing different types of OCF. The overall questions in the student questionnaire were similar to those in the teacher questionnaire, as it was also designed to elicit their perceptions, attitudes, and opinions with regard to various forms of OCF (see Appendix H). The only key difference was that the questionnaire was translated into Arabic using a certified translator to aid comprehension.

d. Teachers' questionnaires: The questionnaires were distributed to four teachers and the questions were explained to them. They returned the questionnaire the next day.

e. Student language proficiency test: Six students (aged 16), who all studied at the same grade, were chosen randomly from three different classes to take the X-Lex vocabulary test, to assess the language level of the test-takers (Meara, 1992). It assesses the students' knowledge of 5,000 frequently used words in the English language. The test "consists of 60 items, 40 real words and 20 imaginary words – but test-takers are recommended to complete three tests, giving a total of 180 test items for each vocabulary level" (Meara, 1992, p. 3). Respondents tick the words they think they know, and if they ticked any of the imaginary words, their scores would be reduced accordingly. Thus, those who ticked none or very few of these non-existent

vocabulary items, for instance, were considered to have more reliable scores than those who ticked many of them. Meara argued that the test should not take much longer than five minutes to complete, and longer periods indicate that they were taking too long to make a decision about each individual word. In this pilot study, participants were tested individually, taking approximately fifteen minutes in total to complete it, suggesting it was not perhaps appropriate for these learners (although, Nation and Beglar (2007) suggested that this vocabulary test can be used with students of varying language proficiency levels).

As noted in the rest of this chapter above, the pilot study informed the main study in the following ways:

1) Removing the X-lex vocabulary test.

2) Removing students' questionnaire.

3) The video clips were inserted for each type of OCF.

4) Improving the format for some of the teacher questionnaire questions, such as changing the question regarding teacher's preference for the source of correction from multiple-choice, as it was in the pilot, to ranking in order of preferences.

Chapter 4: Results: RQ1: What are teachers' perceptions with regard to OCF?

This chapter will present the results of RQ1, based on interviews with 10 teachers and subsequent questionnaires completed by 207 teachers. The research question addressed was as follows:

1. What are teachers' perceptions of different types of OCF?

First, the main questionnaire data provided teachers' opinions on how often and when their students' errors should be corrected. Then, data on the effectiveness of each type of OCF according to teachers' views was presented, followed by the teachers' preferences for the source of correction (i.e., who corrects the error). Finally, the impact on teachers' reported preferences for OCF according to certain variables, such as the explicitness of the type of OCF, the type of error, their students' perceived levels of language proficiency, and their students' age, is presented according to the core teachers' interview data, and concluded by a brief summary of the key findings of this chapter. Before moving on to presenting the data to answer RQ1, it should be noted that the demographic data that includes brief information about the participants, such as their age, length of teaching experience, and the aim of their English classes will be presented first.

4.1 Demographic data

General demographic information about the 207 participants that took part in the questionnaire was collated and analysed. This data presented the following details from the teachers: their students' grades (school year group), number of students per class, teachers' age, and length of teaching experience.

4.1.1 Students' grades

Figure 4.1 shows that the number of participants who were teaching students in the lower grades (specifically Years 7 11-12 years, 8, and 9 = aged 12 to 15 years old) was approximately equal to the number of participants who taught students in the higher grades (which refer to Years 10, 11,and 12 = aged 15 to 18 years old). That is, altogether, approximately 75% of the teachers who participated in the online questionnaire were teaching English classes for students in the lower grades, and 73.36% of all the teachers were teaching students in higher grades. This means that some teachers taught both lower and higher year students. Moreover, it seems that there was a fairly even distribution of teachers who taught students across both the lower and higher grades, so the results will be shown for both. Finally, it is also important to note that the total percentage came to more than 100% because some teachers taught more than one year group. Students' year group should be considered an important element that may influence teachers' views with regard to OCF, as will be discussed in Chapter Six.

Figure 4.1: The percentage of students in each year of study (Questionnaire data). [187 =number of teachers who answered this question]
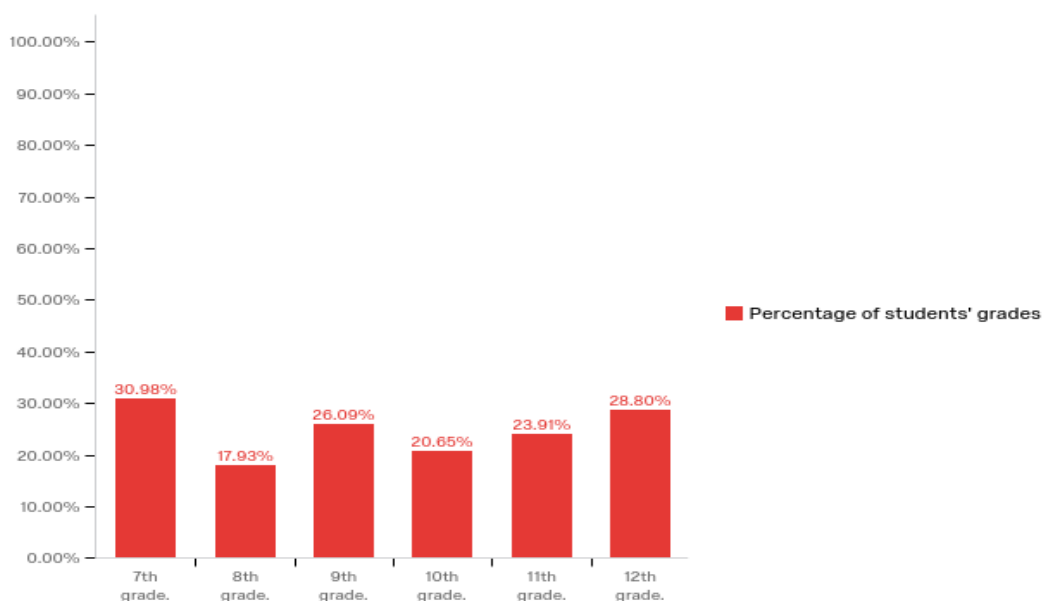
4.1.2 Average number of students per class

The questionnaire data showed that 44.6% of Saudi female classes were comprised of 33 or more students, whereas only about 18% of the teachers reported having 21 or fewer students per class (see Table 4.1). This shows that the number of students in most Saudi classes was high which may affect the class time and consequently teachers' decisions with regard to their ability and perhaps willingness to correct and their choices of which OCF forms to use.

Table 4.1: Average number and percentage of students in each class (Questionnaire data)

Answer	Percentage	Count
1 to 10 students	4.3%	8
11 to 21 students	14.5%	27
22 to 32 students	40.6%	76
33 or more students	40.6%	76
Total	100%	187

4.1.3 Teachers' age

It appears that more than half of the teachers (about 58%) who participated in the online questionnaire were aged between 31 and 40 years old, and only 1.6% were 51 or older (see Table 4.2). It is possible that having this higher proportion of teachers aged 31-40 could influence reported choices with regard to teaching in general and OCF in particular, as it means that these teachers may have studied and trained at particular periods of time which may influence their OCF behaviour.

Table 4.2: Teachers' ages: (Questionnaire data)

Answer	Percentage	Count
21 to 30.	25.7%	48
31 to 40.	57.8%	108
41 to 50.	15%	28
51 or more.	1.6%	3
Total	100%	187

4.1.4 Teachers' length of teaching experience

The questionnaire data showed that the majority of teachers (about 57.5%) had between 6 and 16 years of teaching experience, while approximately 20% had 17 years or more of teaching experience (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2: Teachers' length of teaching experience (186) (Questionnaire data)
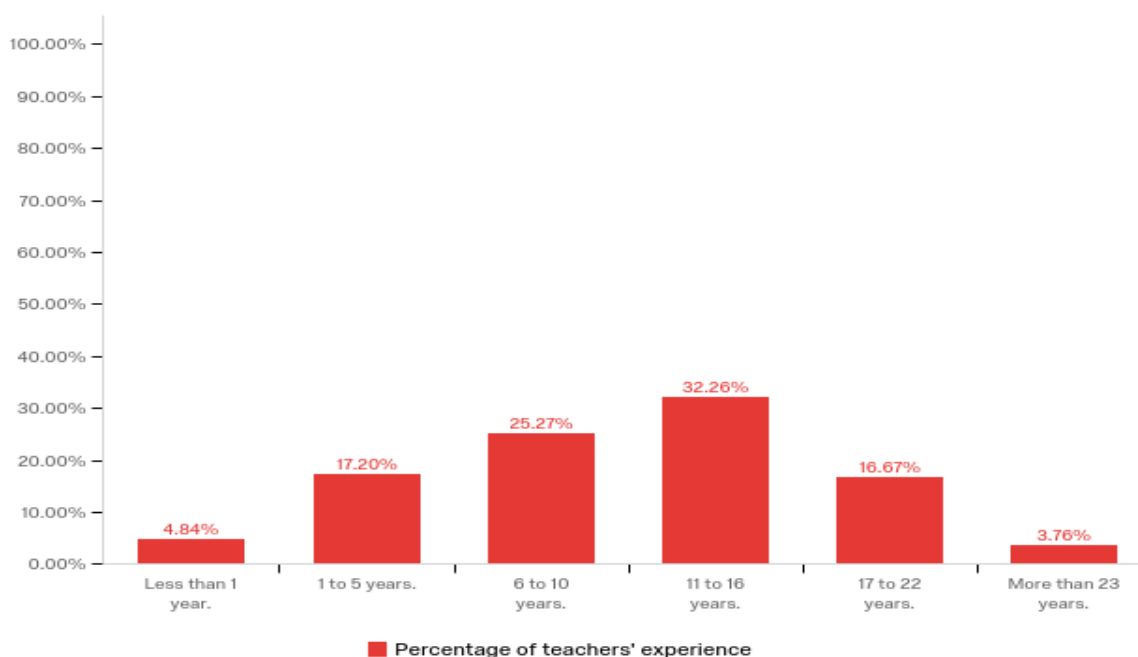
4.1.5 Teaching training sessions

The interview data showed that all of the ten core (i.e., observed) teachers agreed that OCF teaching-training sessions would be important for them to improve their teaching practices. Interestingly, however, the majority of these teachers had not attended any teaching-training sessions in general (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Teaching training courses for the ten focal teachers (Interview).

Teaching training sessions	Number of teachers (observed)
I attended teaching training sessions with/without reference to OCF strategies.	4
I attended training sessions specific to OCF.	1
I didn't attend any teaching training sessions.	6

4.1.8 The aim of the English teaching classes

This section presents some of the data relating to teachers' reported aims of teaching English and associated challenges according to the interview data with the core teachers. This data helps us understand the teaching context in more depth, in order to

contextualise the findings relating to OCF. The views expressed in the interviews tended to broadly coincide with their behaviour in classes as will see in Chapter Five according to the observation data.

Grammar over other skills: In terms of the teachers' views, expressed in the interview, with regard to the aims of their English classes, the majority emphasised the importance of grammar over skills, such as reading, writing, and speaking. For example, "Teaching grammar and vocabulary is the most important and then speaking, reading, and writing come after" (Teacher S).

However, the teachers mentioned several obstacles and challenges that prevented them from achieving their stated aims, such as the expectation to provide speaking activities in their classes. These are now described here.

Time limitation: Some teachers confirmed that the aim of teaching English was to improve students' English skills, though the burden of teaching this within a *"limited time is unbelievable"* (teacher A1). As such, they focus on what is important for exams, such as grammar.

The Ministry of Education had produced a new curriculum based on textbooks that were designed for students by American and British companies, with the primary objective of helping to improve their students' English skills, but the time allowed for teaching was not enough to enable this to happen. (Teacher S)

Teacher A1 elaborated on this during her interview, stating that the exam is grammar based and "speaking skill requires time and we don't have the time so we skipped it and focus on the other skills: grammar and reading."

Personal issues: It appeared that, according to one teacher, some personal issues could affect teachers' behaviour in classes. For example, teacher A3 reported during her interview that the curriculum is mainly focused on speaking and listening. During the interview, she reported that her actual focus on reading (as observed during the classroom observations) was unintentional, and it was due to personal reasons (issues regarding the custody of her son after a divorce) she was not practising what she thinks is appropriate.

Students' language proficiency: Teacher F stated that, for the past three years, the aim of the school's curriculum has been to improve the students' communicative skills, particularly their spoken English. She and Teacher L further explained that, due to the students' poor levels of overall English language ability, it was difficult to get them to communicate orally using English, so instead, many teachers asked their learners to read conversations or passages from their textbooks: "they are not yet ready to make a conversation in the target language because of their language deficiency, and lack of vocabulary capacity so we allowed them to read the conversation from their students' books" (Teacher F). Additionally, teacher L argued that because of their students' deficiency in English, the teachers still needed to explain everything to them.

It seemed that there was a tendency among some teachers to see students' low proficiency as justifying an absence of 'communicative activities'. This may suggest a certain (possibly limited) understanding of the principles of communicative activities. For example, four out of ten reported in the interviews that they were teaching communicatively when they asked the whole class to read the same conversation from their textbooks. There was little evidence in the interviews of teachers talking about activities such as genuine information gaps between learners or between the learners and the teachers.

Data from the questionnaire might provide greater insight into the nature of the teaching approaches from the perspective of teachers with regard, more specifically, to OCF types, as seen in the next section.

4.2 Summary

This section began with the presentation of some demographic data, including participants' ages, experience, typical class sizes, their students' year of study, and went on to also present teachers' views on the aim of their classes. Key findings were: The questionnaire data showed that 40.6% of teachers reported having large class sizes, with 33 students or more per class (see Table 4.1), which may influence their choices of teaching methods in general and OCF in particular. Furthermore, in the interviews, the teachers mentioned different obstacles that prevented them from putting their views into practice, such as time limitations, lack of teaching-training workshops, grammar-based exam, and students' poor language proficiency (see Table 4.3). Some of the interview data suggested an approach to teaching where the teacher is seen as the centre of information and students tend to be viewed as passive learners that do not yet have the proficiency to express real meaning. (This will be further supported by data in Chapter Five from the observations, showing limited student involvement and lack of student talk-time). These contextual factors will therefore be taken into consideration in the interpretation and discussion later (see Chapter Six).

In sum, this introduction provided some brief evidence that the nature of the teaching context was more inclined towards characteristics of form-focused instruction, than more communicative approaches. Following this brief introduction to broad aspects of the teachers' views on English teaching, the next section now provides teachers' views of OCF in particular, to answer RQ1.

4.2 RQ 1: What are teachers' perceptions of different types of OCF? (Questionnaires and interview data)

This section includes data collected through the interviews (which were done face to face) and questionnaires (which were delivered via Qualtrics) about teachers' perceptions of OCF, to answer RQ1: What are teachers' perceptions of different types of OCF?

First, we will show teachers' reported behaviour toward correcting their students' oral errors or not, how often they say they do so, and when they say that the correct oral errors. Second, teachers' reported views for each type of OCF, starting from the most explicit to the least explicit, are presented. Then their views regarding who should

correct their students' oral errors are shared, before a summary of the findings with regard to RQ1. We also examine some of the variables that may influence teachers' reported preferences for OCF, such as the types of their students' errors.

After having presented the data about perceptions in this chapter, we then move to the following chapter to present more findings about what teachers actually do in their classes, according to the observations.

Please note, the number of participants who answered the questionnaire will be shown separately for each item, as numbers responding to the different questions varied.

4.2.1 Teachers' views regarding correcting their students' oral errors

Interestingly, all of the 10 teachers who participated in the interviews believed that correcting their students' errors is very important for their students' learning. This could be a result of the type of teaching they were using, where emphasis was placed on accuracy and the idea that students' erroneous utterances should be corrected.

Table 4.4: Teachers' responses to the statement "My students' spoken errors should be corrected" (Questionnaire data) [187]

Answer	Percentage	Count
Strongly agree	45.5%	85
Agree	35.3%	66
Disagree	11.2%	21
Strongly disagree	3.2%	6
I do not know	4.8%	9
Total	100%	187

According to the questionnaire data, approximately 80% of the participants *agreed* or *strongly agreed* that their students' spoken errors should be corrected (see Table 4.4). It is interesting to note that the results of this survey question, which was answered by 187 teachers, yielded similar results to the interview, where all ten teachers reported that they agreed with correcting all their students' errors. This suggests that the

majority of teachers believed in the importance of accuracy over the flow of communication, whereby errors should be corrected once they occur.

In terms of teachers' reporting about how often they prefer to correct their students' errors, this data similarly showed an enthusiasm for correcting errors. It seems that teachers were very keen to correct their students' errors in that the majority of them reported that they *always* or *usually* give corrective feedback on their students' spoken errors (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: How often do you give corrective feedback on your students' spoken errors? (Questionnaire data) [187]

Answer	Percentage	Count
Always	28.3%	53
Usually	39.0%	73
Sometimes	24.7%	45
Occasionally	8.0%	15
Never	0.5%	1
Total	100%	187

This result concurred with the previous results (see Section 4.2.1 and Table 4.4) indicating the importance of correcting students' oral errors.

The next results illustrate how teachers often correct with regard to different types of oral error.

Table 4.6: Teachers' responses to the question "How often do you correct each of the following types of spoken errors that your students make?" (Questionnaire data)

Type of error	Percentage of teachers (count)					
	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never	Total
Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.	59.7% (111)	25.8% (48)	10.8% (20)	3.2% (6)	0.5% (1)	100% (186)
Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.	17.4% (32)	33.2% (61)	31.0% (57)	17.4% (32)	1.1% (2)	100% (184)
Frequent spoken errors.	29.9% (55)	26.1% (48)	25.0% (46)	15.2% (28)	3.8% (7)	100% (184)
Infrequent spoken errors.	20.2% (37)	21.3% (39)	29.0% (53)	21.3% (39)	8.2% (15)	100% (183)
Individual errors made by only one student	34.1% (63)	23.2% (43)	21.6% (40)	17.3% (32)	3.8% (7)	100% (185)

According to teachers' reported views, it appears that teachers generally correct their students' oral errors with 60% of them stating that they *always* corrected the major oral errors. This concurred with their previous responses, as the majority stated that they *always* or *usually* correct their students' errors, and agreed that giving OCF is

110

crucial (see Tables 4.4 & 4.5). However, only 17.4% reported *always* correcting their students' less serious oral errors (see Table 4.6).

We also collected data about the teachers' reported preferences for *when* to correct errors, as shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: My students' spoken errors should be corrected at the following times (Questionnaire data).

Question	Percentage of teachers (count)						Figures
	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Occasionally	Never	Total	
As soon as error made even if it interrupts the student's speaking	18.4% (34)	26% (48)	21.1% (39)	16.2% (30)	18.4% (34)	100% (185)	
After the student finishes speaking	22.2% (41)	31.9% (59)	23.2% (43)	16.2% (30)	6.5% (12)	100% (185)	
After the activities	9.8% (18)	22.8% (42)	23.9% (44)	18.5% (34)	25.0% (46)	100% (184)	

At the end of class	6.5% (12)	9.8% (18)	16.3% (30)	19.6% (36)	47.8% (88)	100% (184)	

As shown in Table 4.7, 44.4% stated that they "*Always" or "Usually*" correct their students' erroneous utterances as soon as errors are made, even if it interrupts the students' speech. In contrast, only 18.4% stated that they *"Never"* interrupt their students' speech to correct their spoken errors. More than half of the teachers reported that they wait until a student has finished speaking before they correct them most of the time. This seemed to be a *slightly* more preferred option than correcting students immediately. Only 9.8% reported that they should always delay correcting errors until after the whole activities have finished. Over two thirds reported that they only occasionally or never correct their students' errors at the end of the class (see Table 4.7).

In sum then, most teachers appeared to be keen to correct their students' errors once they occur, before or after they finish speaking, rather than waiting until after the activity finish or at the end of the class. This might be because their classes were more focused on form rather than meaning-based, where accuracy was more important than keeping the flow of communication.

We now move on to examining the potential role of each type of OCF for these teachers, according to the questionnaire data.

4.2.2 The effectiveness of each OCF type according to teachers' views

The following figures show the teachers' views regarding the different types of oral error correction, according to the questionnaire data, starting from the most explicit and moving to the least explicit type of OCF.

Figure 4.3: How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Indicate an error committed with recast and explanation, isolated/embedded"? (Illustrated by video clip embedded in questionnaire) [181]
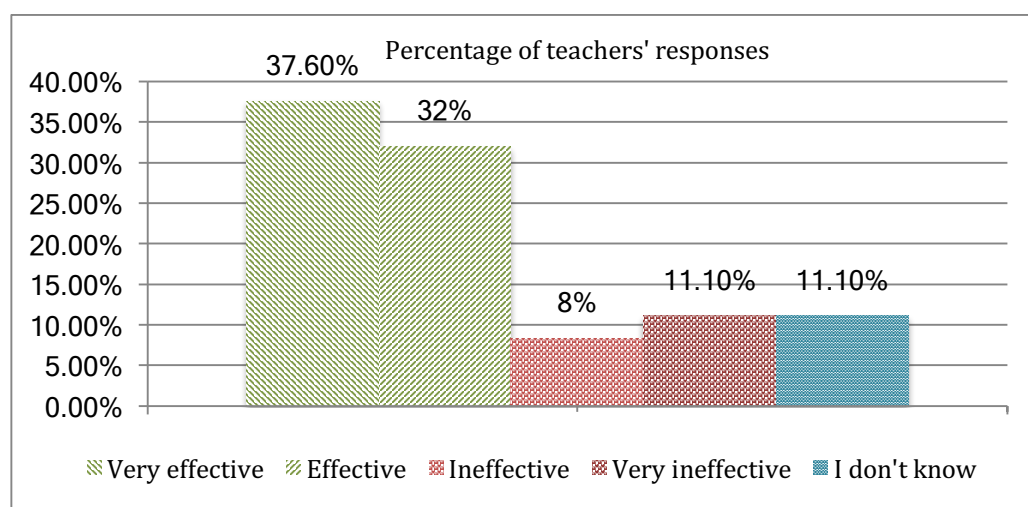
Figure 4.3 shows that 69.6% of respondents believed that "Indicating an error committed with isolated/embedded recast and explanation" is *effective*, while only 19.10% believed it is *ineffective*. This suggests that they consider highly explicit means of OCF to be effective.

Figure 4.4: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction:
"Indicate an error committed with recast, isolated/embedded"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [180]
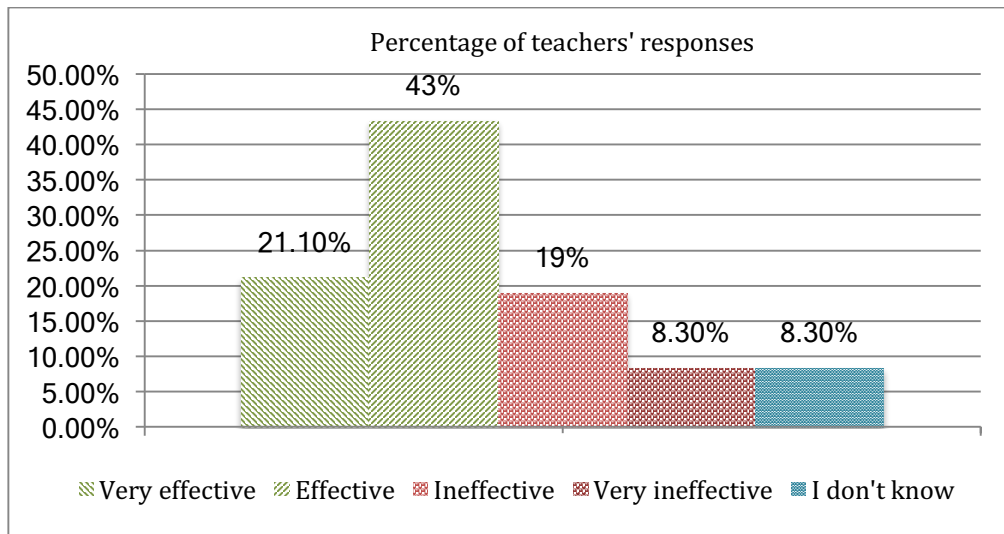
Similarly, 64.1% of participants considered "Indicating an error committed with isolated/embedded recast" to be *effective*, while 27.3% do not (see Figure 4.4). Similar to the previous result, this result shows how effective they believe explicit OCF types to be, though this was rated slightly less highly than the more explicit version that is accompanied by *explanation* (Figure 4.3).

Figure 4.5: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Metalinguistic feedback"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [180]
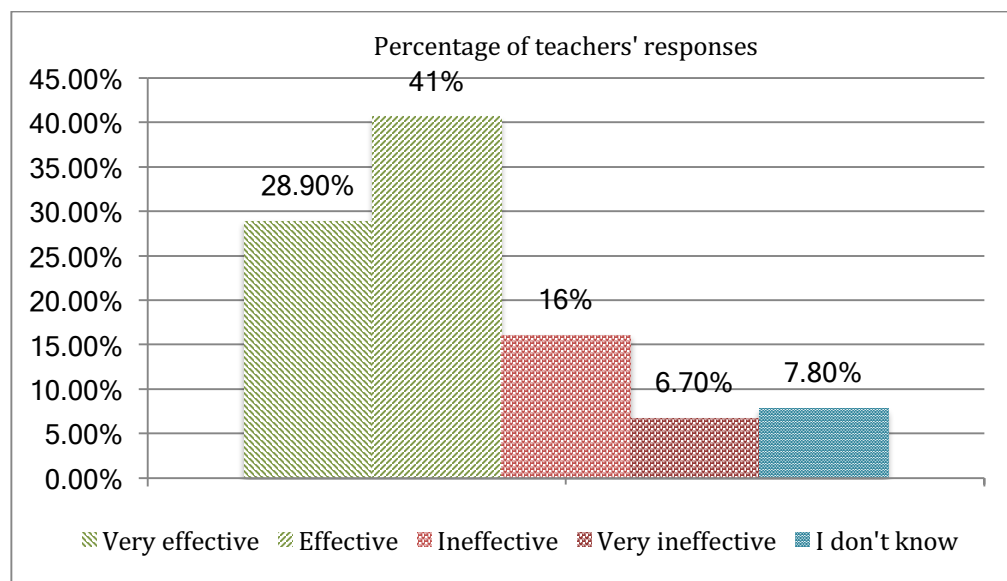
The data showed that most teachers considered metalinguistic corrective feedback as *effective* (see Figure 4.5). Note that this type of error correction does not involve providing the correct form – rather, it involves describing the issue with metalanguage. Nevertheless, about 70% of the teachers still rated this OCF type as highly effective, again illustrating their enthusiasm for direct explicit correction.

Figure 4.6: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Elicitation with enhanced prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [183]
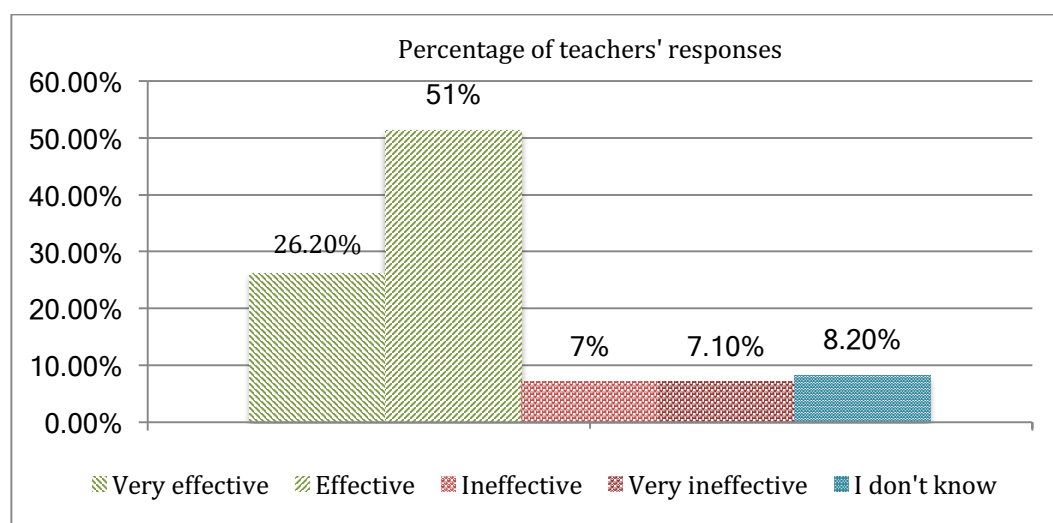
"Elicitation with enhanced prompt" is the teachers' second highest rated type of oral correction after "embedded recast with enhanced prompt", in that 77.2% classified it as *effective* (see Figure 4.6). It seems that teachers believe that eliciting the correct form from their students is effective. This result also shows that the more salient OCF forms (i.e., the most direct and most likely to result in learners producing the correct form) were the ones that are more effective according to participants' views. This was noticeable because "elicitation with enhanced prompt", and "embedded recast with enhanced prompt" were rated higher than "elicitation with prompts", and "embedded recast with prompts" both of which are slightly less explicit means of correcting errors (Figures 4.6, 4.7, 4.12, & 4.13).

Interestingly, the percentage of participants who considered "elicitation with prompt" to be *effective* is only 42.7%, and 43.9% classified it as *ineffective* (see Figure, 4.6). "Elicitations with prompts" are slightly less explicit than other techniques such as "elicitation with enhanced prompt" (see Table 4.6), and so again, this seems to imply that teachers believed that the more salient a method of correction is, the more effective it is.

Figure 4.8: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Repetition with enhanced prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [185]
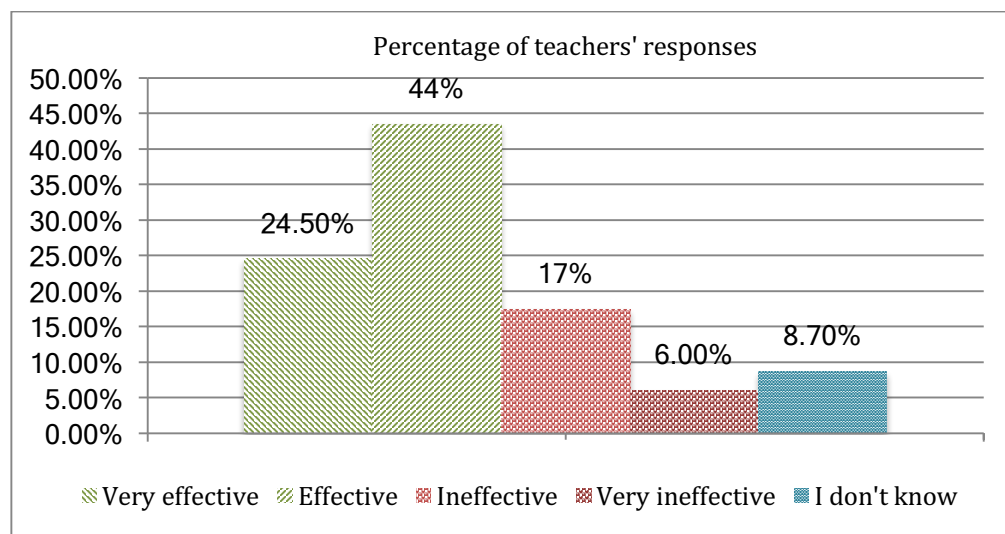
For the "repetition with enhanced prompt" type of error correction, over two thirds of participants considered this method to be either *very effective* or *effective* (see Figure 4.8), again implying that most teachers believe that salient types of OCF - such as those where the error is repeated with a prompt to the learner to notice it and correct it - are effective.

119

Figure 4.9: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction:
"Repetition with prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [184]
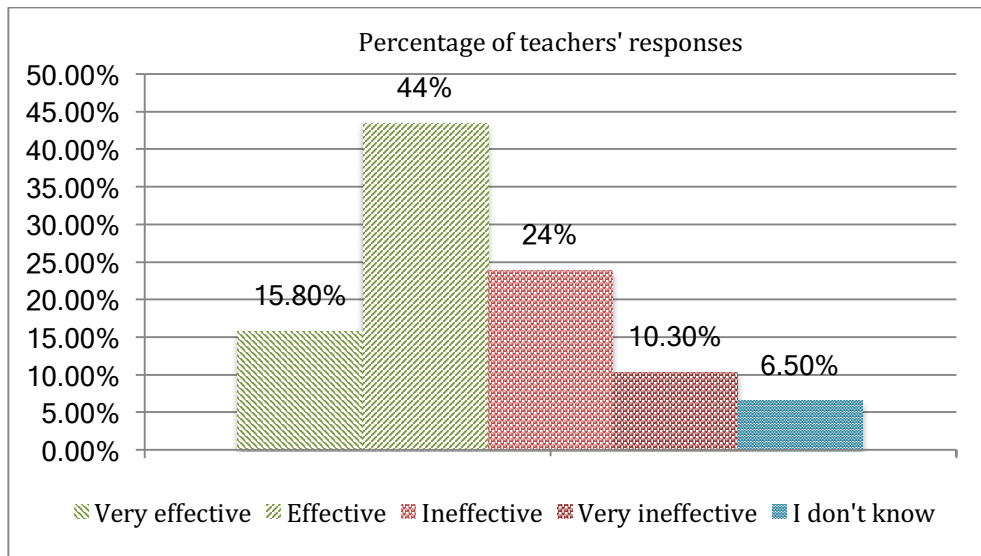
Figure 4.9 above shows that the number of participants who considered the method of "repetition with prompt" *effective* was 59%, with 34% considered it as *ineffective*, suggesting that this OCF type was one of the lower rated types. "Repetition with *enhanced* prompt" was rated higher by the participants than "repetition with prompt" again indicating that the more salient forms of OCF are rated more effective (see Figures 4.8, 4.9).

Figure 4.10: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Isolated recast with enhanced prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [181]
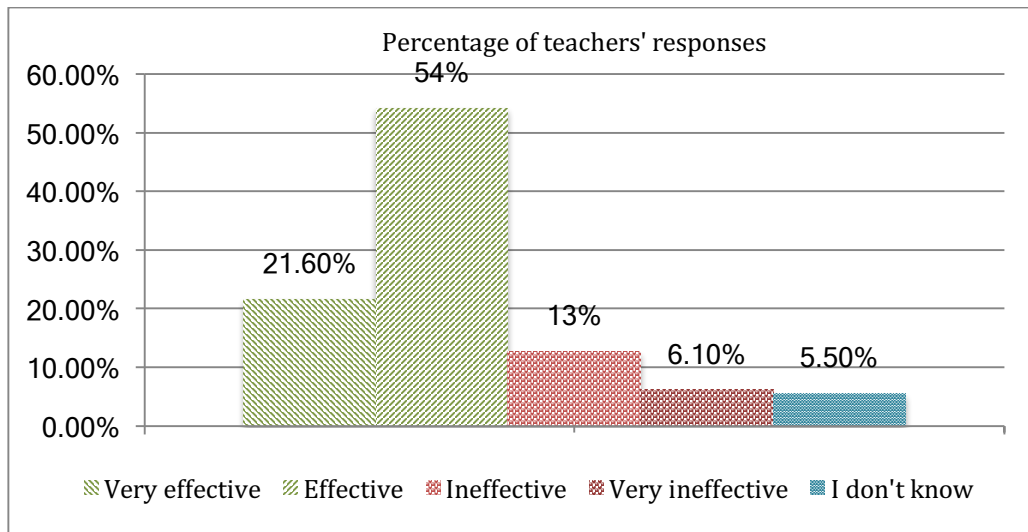
"Isolated recast with enhanced prompt" was found to be the teachers' third highest rated type of OCF, as 75.6% classified it as *effective* (see Figure 4.10). This implies that the more direct form of correction (an isolated recast of the error with a clear prompt to correct it) was the more effective according to teachers' views.

Figure 4.11: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Isolated recast with prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [179]
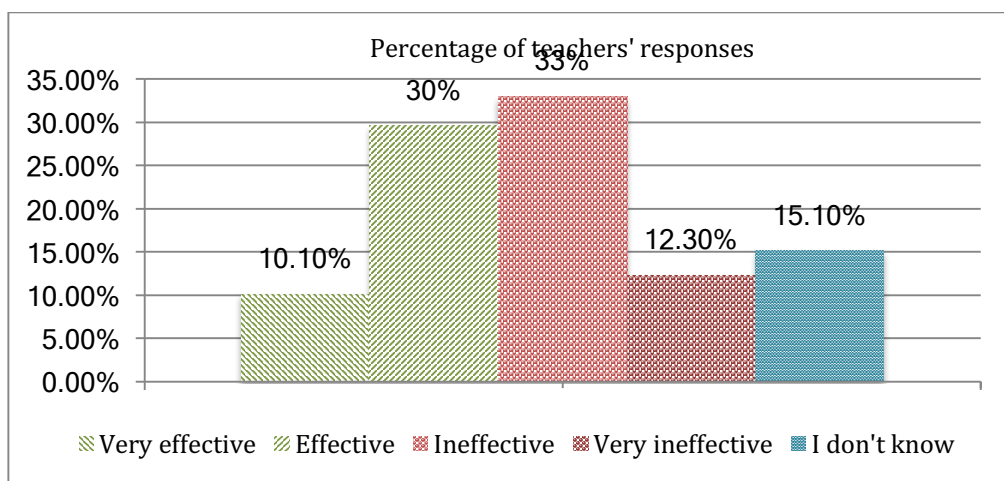
For "isolated recast with prompt", the data showed that whilst 40.1% of participants considered it to be *very effective* or *effective* (see Figure 4.11), the majority did not

121

find it effective (this being the largest proportion of participants compared to all other OCF reported so far). Recasts alone are somewhat less explicit OCF (as discussed in the literature review, as learners may not perceive them as an error) and so participants seem to prefer to see them accompanied with an *enhanced* prompt with them to deem them more effective (see Figures 4.10, 4.11 & 4.12).

Figure 4.12: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Embedded recast with enhanced prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [181]
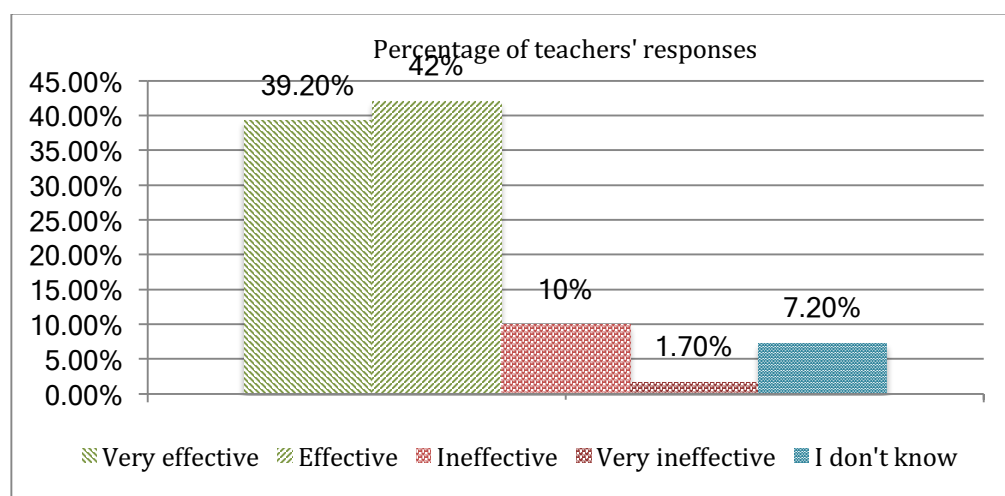
Indeed, "Embedded recast with enhanced prompt" was seen as the highest rated method of oral correction, in that more than three quarters of participants considered it *very effective* or *effective*, and only 11.7% classified it as *ineffective* (see Figure 4.12).

Figure 4.13: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Embedded recast with prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [182]
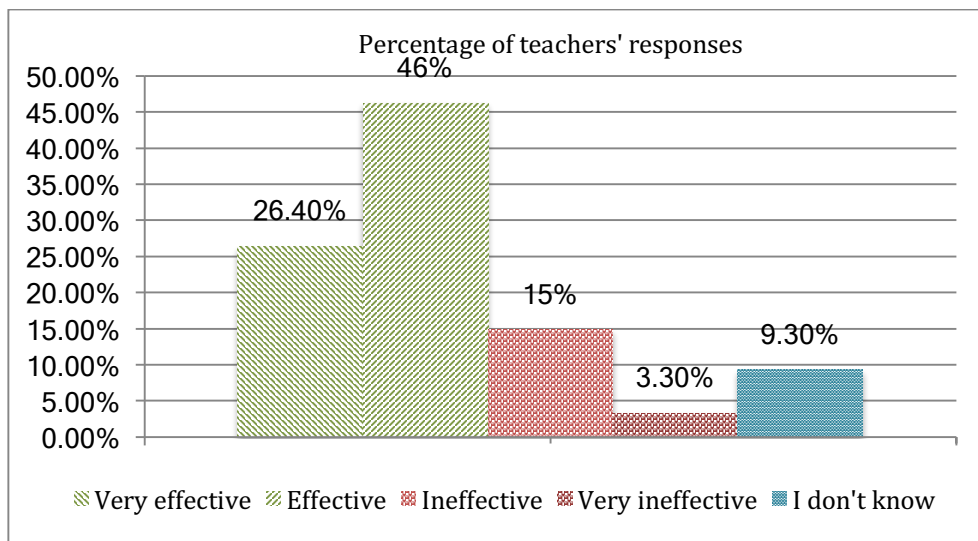
Figure 4.13 further shows that 72.4% of participants considered "embedded recast with prompt" to be *effective*. However, it was noticeable that "Embedded recast with prompt" was rated less effective than "Embedded recast with enhanced prompt" which suggests, similar to the previous results, that the less salient the type of OCF was considered to be less effective by the teachers (see Figures 4.12 & 4.13).

Figure 4.14: Teachers responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Clarification request"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [185]
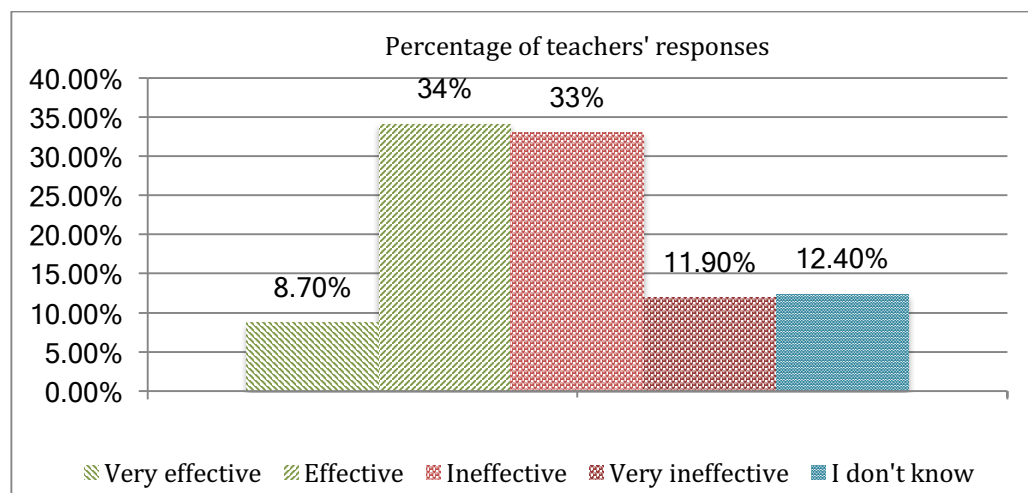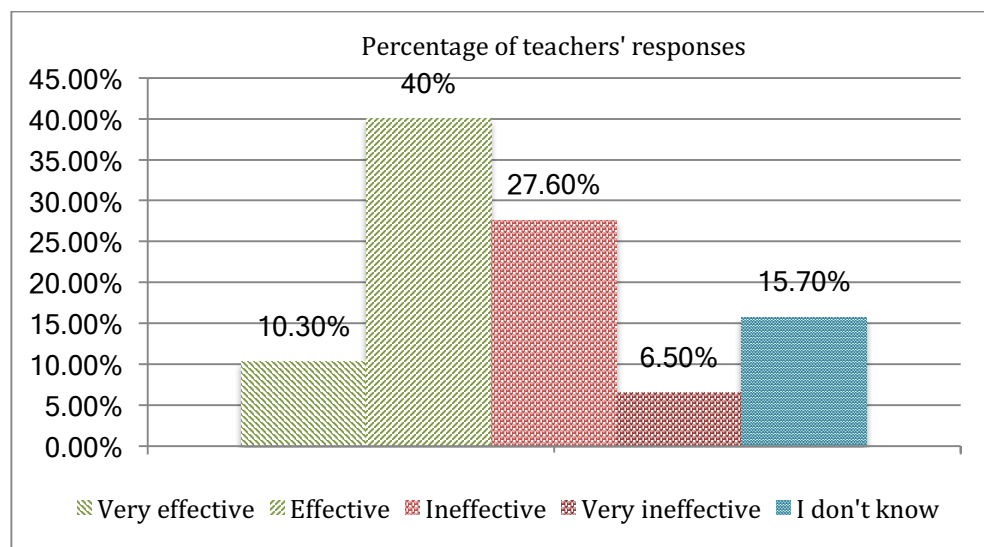
The data also revealed that 50.3% of participants considered "clarification request" to be *effective*, but just as many thought it was *ineffective* or didn't know (see Figure 4.14). This is a slightly less explicit OCF type than others (as clarification requests do not always make it clear what the error was or how it should be corrected), and the lower rating it was given aligns with the slightly lower ratings for "repetition with prompt" and "elicitation with prompt", compared to more explicit and more direct corrections with "enhanced prompts" and/or with "explanation". This further confirms that the less salient the method of correction, the lower ranked it was (see Figures 4.3 through 4.9).

Figure 4.15: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Non-verbal hints"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [179]
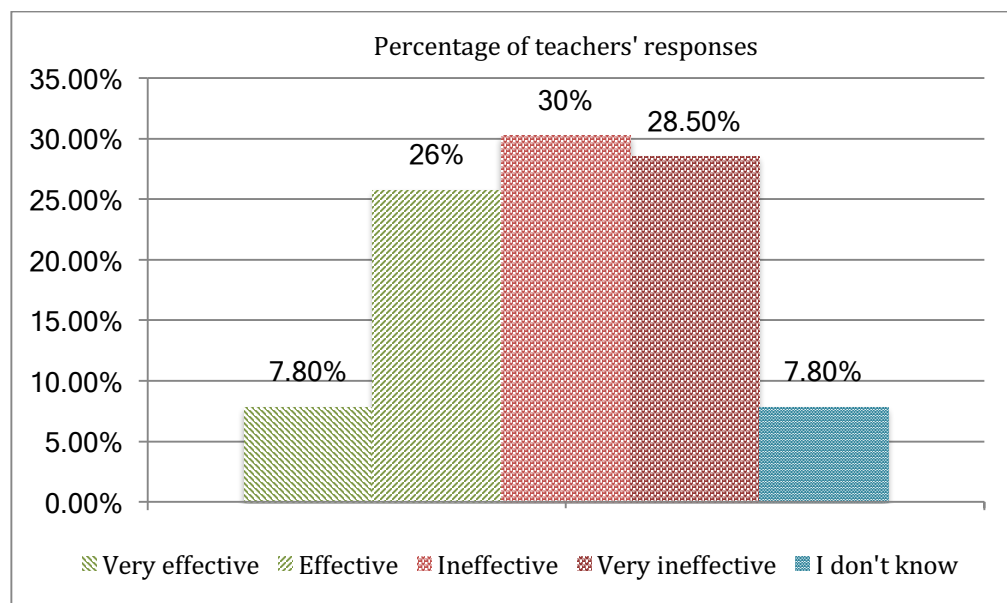

Interestingly, "non-verbal hints" were considered to be the least effective type of oral correction, with only 33.8% of participants considering it *very effective* or *effective*, while more than half classified it as *ineffective* or *very ineffective* (see Figure 4.15). This is possibly because "non-verbal hints" were considered the least salient form of OCF.

(However, as we will see in Section 5.1, the observed teachers used "non-verbal hints" (e.g., using objects or pictures) with translation activities during class observations, and subsequently gave their views in the interviews. According to this *interview* data, all of the 10 observed participants ranked "non-verbal hints" as an *effective* method for correcting students' translation errors such as when their students provide the wrong L1 translation of the L2 word, but not with the grammatical errors. Indeed, the questionnaire focused on grammatical errors only, thus perhaps explaining this discrepancy).

Additionally, Figure 4.16 shows that only 34.4% of the participants considered "isolated recast without prompt" to be *effective* method. This method was one of the lowest rated, similarly to "non-verbal hints" according to the questionnaire data, which could be because they were the least explicit types of OCF.

Figure 4.17: Teachers' responses to the question "How do you rate this type of spoken error correction: "Embedded recast without prompt"? (Video clip in questionnaire). [179]
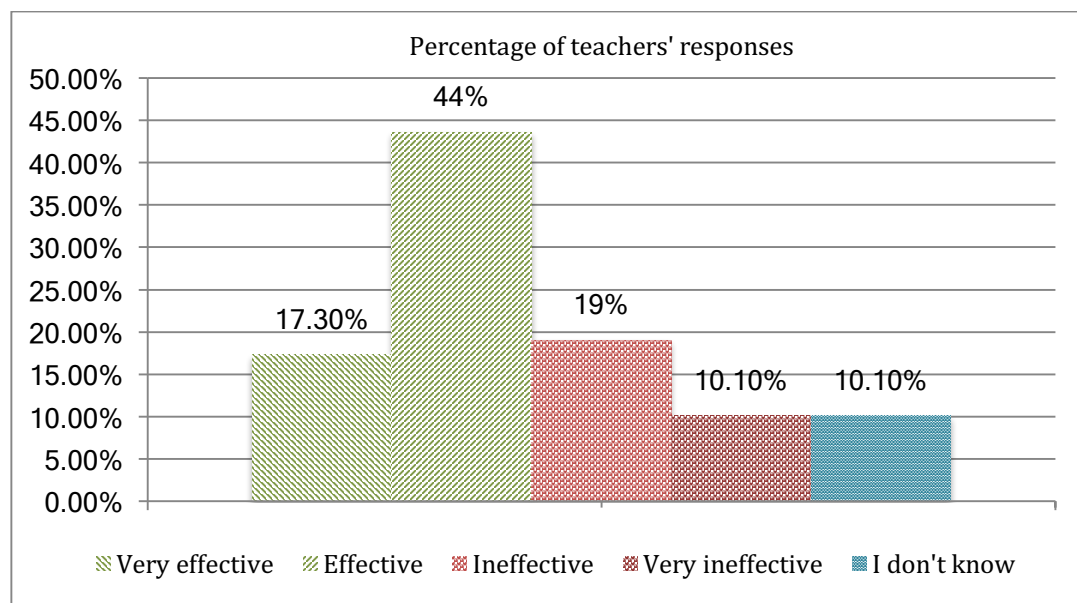

The data further showed that 61.3% classified the "embedded recast without prompt" method as *effective*, while 29.1% considered it *ineffective* or *very ineffective* (see Figure 4.17).

In sum, the general pattern of descriptive statistics suggests that teachers reported favouring more explicit and more direct characteristics of OCF as more beneficial for learning.

Of course, these preferences may vary depending on *who* does the correction (the teacher, peers, or the pupils themselves). The next section examines this issue.

4.2.3 Teachers' preferences for the source of correction (who corrects the errors)

Table 4.8: How do you rank the following persons to correct your students' spoken errors in order of preference? (Video clip).

Question	Percentage (and count)			Total
	1 (most preferred)	2	3 (least preferred)	
Classmates	22.2% (n=35)	45.6% (n=72)	32.3% (n=51)	100% (n=158)
Teachers	34.7% (n=58)	29.9% (n=50)	35.3% (n=59)	100% (n=167)
Students themselves	50.9% (n=81)	22.0% (n=35)	27.0% (n=43)	100% (n=159)

50.9% of teachers stated that the "students themselves" should correct their own errors, being the preferred option (see Table 4.8). A further 34.7% indicated that "teachers" should be responsible, and only 22.2% thought "classmates" would be the best people to correct the students' spoken errors. However, the fact that the majority chose "students themselves" as their most preferred source of correction concurs with participants' views with regard to their ratings of OCF types, in that the majority considered "Elicitation with enhanced prompt" to be the second highest rated correction type after "Embedded recast with enhanced prompt".

4.2.4 Teachers' views with regard to OCF according to interview data

The following data will show participants' views according to the data yielded from the interviews with the ten core teachers, when asked whether they use explicit or/and implicit OCF and why. Then we present data on how their choices of OCF types can be influenced by different variables such as: error type, their students' ages, and their students' perceived language proficiency levels.

4.2.4.1 Implicit vs. explicit OCF types

Explicit OCF: According to the interview data, all ten of the teachers believed that explicit correction (with clear indications that an error had been made and that the learners should correct it) was a very effective method for their students' learning. This concurs with the data from the questionnaires, which revealed that participants showed a greater preference for more salient types of OCF.

However, a number of reasons were also provided for using more implicit methods, as in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Teachers' views on choosing implicit correction (Interview data).

Teachers' reasons for choosing implicit correction	Number of teachers raised each reason
1- Effective for phonological errors	3
2- Time limitations	2
3- To avoid embarrassing my students	2
4- Effective for minor errors	2
5- Effective for regular errors	2
6- Effective with highly proficient students	1
7- I don't use it	3

Implicit OCF: Seven out of ten core participants stated that they use implicit recast. They reported some reasons as shown in see Table 4.9. For instance, Teacher A2 thought that this approach was effective because it avoided embarrassing her students and allowed her to avoid giving too much explanation when something has already been explained before. Moreover, she felt this was more useful with highly proficient students.

On the other hand, three Teachers, Teachers H, F and A4, reported that they do not use implicit correction because it is not effective, since it does not include prompts such as indications and/or stressing a key word. These teachers reported they would not have used implicit recasts for correction nor to maintain the flow of

communication. This might reflect this particular context, with its greater focus on accuracy over communicating meaning.

4.2.4.2 Error type

In their interviews, the teachers were asked whether there was a relationship between their choice of correction method and their students' type of spoken errors and, if so, what it was. All of them responded affirmatively that there is a relationship and they normally correct phonological errors using recasting so students can hear the right utterance, whereas they corrected grammatical errors by means of explanation. Four out of ten reported that there is a relationship between regular/irregular errors, "I use more implicit correction such as recast without indication for regular errors because I have explained it previously, but I need to use more explicit correction with irregular errors" said Teacher S. Only one teacher (N) reported a relationship between her choices and whether the error was major or minor saying she used "more explicit correction with major errors and less explicit correction such as recast without prompt for minor errors". Additionally, all the ten teachers reported that, "using non-verbal hints" to correct their students' errors with regard to their translation of new L2 words into L1, is effective (Note that the next chapter, chapter 5, will show what the teachers did in class and if there was a match with what was reported).

4.2.4.3 Students' perceived language proficiency

We also asked teachers whether their choice of OCF was related to the perceived proficiency of the students. The majority of the teachers believed that there is a relationship between their choice of feedback method and their perception of their students' language proficiency. Seven out of ten claimed to use more elicitations with highly proficient learners while they provided explanations for less proficient learners. Another participant also reported that she uses recasting with highly proficient learners, whilst using explanation with less proficient ones. Only two out of the ten believed that there is no relationship between the type of correction chosen by teachers and their perception of their students' language proficiency. (Note that the observation data presented in next chapter will show whether their reported views match what they really do in their classes.)

4.2.4.4 Students' ages

Interestingly, when asked whether there is a relationship between teachers' choices of OCF and their students' age and how, half of the teachers believed there is no relationship between their choice of feedback and their students' ages. Conversely, half stated that there *is* a relationship between these two factors; among them were four teachers who reported that they were able to give more explanation to younger students than older learners because they assume that "younger learners have less knowledge than older learners", said Teacher H, so they think they need to provide them with more explanations. One of the teachers (F) reported that she uses more non-verbal gestures with younger students than older ones because of "their limited vocabulary ability".

4.2.5 Summary

The key findings of this chapter are now summarized to answer RQ1 about what are teachers' perceptions of OCF according to the interview and questionnaire data and with regard to some important variables, such as the type of error and students' perceived language proficiency levels.

4.2.5.1 Teachers' perception of OCF

The importance of correcting their students' oral errors: The participants' responses to the questionnaires confirmed that many of the Saudi teachers of English surveyed believe in the importance of correcting students' erroneous utterances in EFL classes. Furthermore, the majority of them preferred to correct them during or just after the student had finished speaking, rather than waiting until the end of the activity or the end of the class (see Table 4.7). This finding indicates that the teachers who took part in this study are perhaps bound by a teaching method that prioritises correcting errors, aligning with characteristics of traditional approaches such as focus on forms, rather than more communicative approaches.

The interview data tended to support the questionnaire data, in that it showed the 10 focal teachers also thought that their students' errors should be treated (see Section 4.2.1). This could be linked to the teaching methods they used, which were more focused on form than meaning, as well as the notion that their students should learn to correct utterances to prevent them from developing bad habits.

Source of correction: The questionnaire data also revealed that most of the teachers preferred to prompt students to self-correct, with half of the teachers choosing 'student-self correct' as their most preferred option for the source of correction (see Table 4.8). These findings were also in accordance with the teachers' views that *"elicitation with enhanced prompt"* was the second most effective type of correction (see Figure 4.6).

More explicit OCF favoured over less explicit ones: The key finding from the analysis of the questionnaire data showed that embedded/isolated recasts, and elicitations with *enhanced* prompts were considered the most effective OCF types by teachers. It seems that the more explicit the correction the more effective it is seen to be by teachers (see Figures 4.6 through 4.13). Accordingly, the least explicit corrections, such as embedded/isolated recast *without* prompt, were the lowest ranked (see Figures 4.14 through 4.17). This result matched with the data from the interview data that teachers showed their preference for more explicit oral correction methods than the less explicit ones *without* prompt or explanation (see Section 4.2.4.1).

However, according to teachers' reported views, there were two main variables that may influence teachers' choices of OCF, as will be discussed next.

4.2.5.2 The impact of students' perceived language proficiency on teachers' preferences of OCF types

The majority of the ten interviewed teachers reported that the perceived language proficiency levels of their students related to their OCF choices. For instance, seven out of ten reported using elicitations with high proficient students and explanation with less proficient ones. That said the observation data in the next chapter will show whether these views are in accordance with their actual practices in classes and

whether there were indeed observed connections between their OCF and their perception of their students' language proficiency.

4.2.5.3 The impact of the type of error on teachers' views

The types of errors had an impact on the ten teachers' views, in that all ten thought that there is a relationship between the students' types of oral errors and their own choices of OCF methods. For instance, all the teachers reported that they use recasting with their students' phonological errors. Furthermore, all of them showed a preference for using non-verbal hints to correct their students' translation errors such as when translating L2 vocabulary to L1 but not purely grammatical errors (see Figure 4.15).

Chapter 5: RQ2: What types of OCF do teachers use and why?

This chapter will present and discuss the results in relation to the second main research question for this study (RQ2), which is based on the data gathered from the ten core teachers including 10 interviews, 100 observations, and the 100 SR sessions. The RQ2 is as follows:

2. What types of oral error correction do teachers use and why?
   A. How do learners respond to these different types of OCF?
   B. How do the following factors influence teachers' use of oral error correction?
      I. Teachers' perceptions of learners' proficiency.
      II. Type of language errors.
      III. Teachers' length of experience.

Note that at certain points in this chapter, some data from the previous chapter (from the self-report data in the questionnaires and interviews) are also drawn upon, where clear differences and similarities emerged between the observation and the self-report data. However, one should note that 207 teachers participated in questionnaires whereas the 100 observations were only of the 10 core teachers. Thus, comparing these two sets of data has limitations. Although the 10 core teachers were sent the questionnaire, we cannot directly compare the answers that the ten core teachers gave with their actual observed behaviour in class, as the questionnaires were anonymous.

Before moving to answer RQ2 in detail, the number of errors per class and the teachers' behaviour will be discussed briefly, to give a general picture of the kind of context being investigated.

5.1 Teachers' and students' behaviour in class with regard to students' errors

Although the *total* number of OCFs observed in this study was very large (947 unique error corrections across all observations), Table 5.1 shows that there was, in fact, a very limited number of corrections per class. This could be explained by several factors. The data presented in chapter 4 and these observations suggest there was a low level of freer oral interaction, which can normally create opportunities for oral feedback. Instead, this teaching context tended to have teacher-centred classrooms, with learners taking on a relatively passive role, with large class sizes (see Table 4.1), and limited time available for freer interaction. As will become apparent in this chapter, students usually only spoke to the teacher in response to a question and their answers were normally very short, such as responding to a request or giving the past tense form of a verb. It was noticed that teachers normally give explicit explanation with examples for the grammar rules and non-verbal hints for the new English words before asking their students to give the Arabic translation of the targeted vocabulary. It was very rare that students spoke directly to each other. Thus, the teacher did most of the speaking, while the students were primarily listeners.

Table 5.1: The mean and standard deviation of learners' errors across ten classes for each teacher (Observation data).

Teacher number	Mean number of errors (across ten classes) for each teacher	Standard deviation of number of errors
1	4.6	3.0
2	6.2	2.7
3	5.4	3.0
4	5.3	2.9
5	5.4	2.8
6	5.3	2.6
7	5.6	2.0
8	5.5	2.9
9	5.1	2.7
10	5.9	2.9

It appeared that students rarely made errors in English because they rarely communicated naturally in English with each other or with the teacher. For example, the observation data did not show students using English to narrate a story or engaging in conversation with their peers. Their speaking usually consisted of the teachers asking two of the students to read a printed conversation from their textbook. This was considered to be a speaking activity (as revealed by the SR and interview data), even though it shares more characteristics with a reading activity. This characteristic of the classroom is important to note, as helps explain why phonological errors were probably the most frequently corrected error type (corrected by recasts), as we will see next.

5.2 What types of oral error correction did teachers use and why?

a. Types of OCF that teachers used

The observation data revealed that more than three quarters of the oral corrections were recasts. This generally concurred with the wider group of teachers' views elicited in the questionnaire data, where "embedded recast with enhanced prompt" was the method considered most effective (see Figure 5.1). However, there was little evidence of the teachers using their second most preferred option – elicitation with enhanced prompt (see Figure 4.6). In fact, there were very few elicitations at all.

Figure 5.1: The main types of oral correction used by teachers (observation)
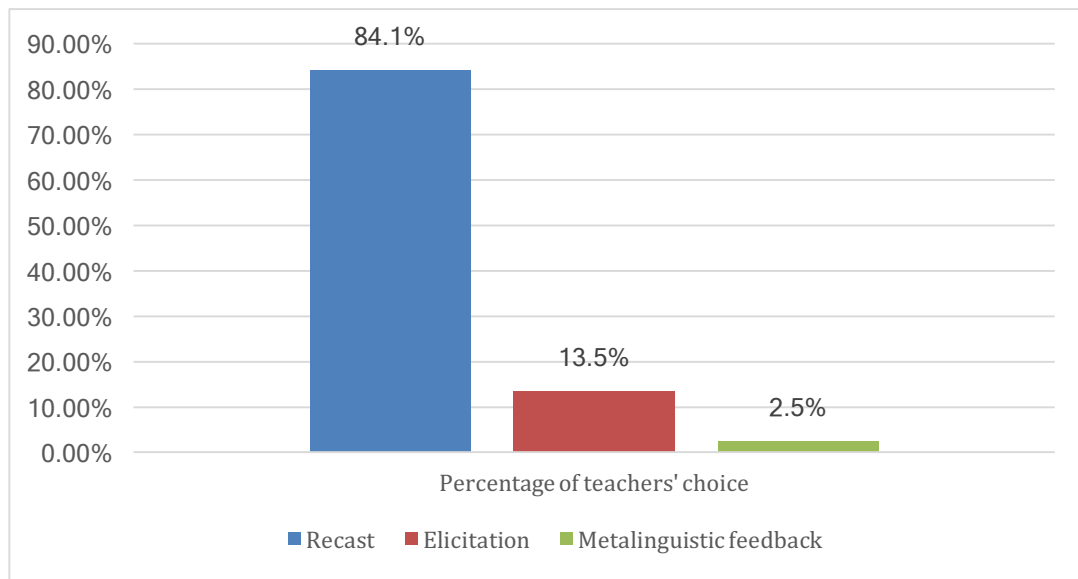
Table 5.2 shows in great detail the percentage of teachers' choices for each OCF including the subtypes.

Table 5.2: Number & percentage for 3 main types of correction (out of 11 total tokens) (Observation)

Type of OCF	Percentage (Count)	Type of OCF	Percentage (Count)	Type of OCF	Percentage
Recast	84.1% (796)	Recast with prompt	67.7% (643)	Isolated recast +prompt	49.3%
				Embedded recast +prompt	7%
				Indication of error + recast +-embedding	11.4%
		Recast without prompt	8.8% (83)	Isolated recast-prompt	7.8%
				Embedded recast-prompt	1%
		Recast with explanation	7.4% (70)	Indication of error +recast +explanation+-embedding	7.4%
Elicitation	13.5% (127)	Elicitation	13.5% (127)	Elicitation	9.7%
				Repetition	2.4%
				Non-verbal hints	1%
				Clarification request	.5%
Metalinguistic feedback	2.5% (24)	Metalinguistic feedback	2.5% (24)	Metalinguistic feedback	2.5%
Total	100% (947)				

Table 5.1 presents all the sub-categories for the types of OCF used by teachers in the classroom. "Isolated recast with prompt" appears to be the most used OCF method, with approximately half of the total corrections, while "embedded recast with prompt", "isolated recast without prompt" were all used in similar proportions, with rates of 7%, and 7.8%, respectively. This contradicts the questionnaire data that showed "*Embedded* recast with enhanced prompt" was the highest rated type of OCF, as the observation suggested that *isolated* recasts were much more frequent. Moreover, although *elicitation with enhanced prompt* was rated as the second most effective correction according to questionnaire data, only about 23% of all oral corrections were elicitations while the majority of corrections were recasts.

In general, it seems that the most explicit recasts were more used by teachers and that matched with the questionnaire and interview data that showed the more explicit the correction the higher rated it was by teachers (see Section 4.2.5.1).

The next results examine the language (L1, L2, or both) used during correction. This issue can, under some circumstances, to the 'directness' of the correction, as use of L1 can serve to reassure a teacher that the message has been conveyed. The language of the correction also relates closely to the nature of the error and type of correction used.

Figure 5.2: Language of feedback (observation)

Language of oral correction

- Arabic and English
- English
- Arabic
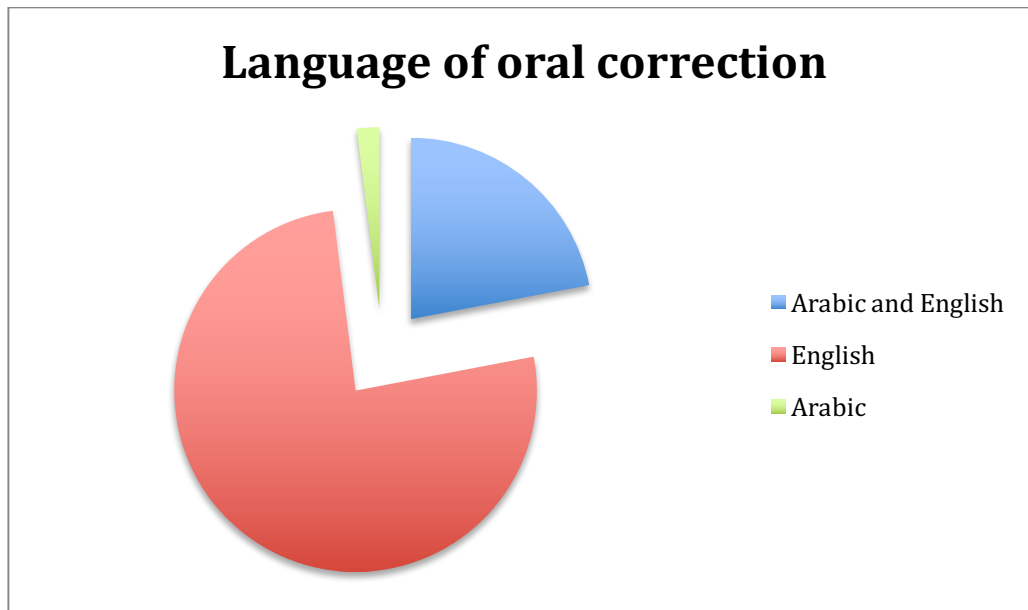
Figure 5.2 shows that the majority of corrections were made in the target language, while only around 22% were in a mix of L1 and L2. This might be because the majority of corrections were recasts (and of phonological errors), so teachers use English mostly to repeat their students' erroneous utterances correctly.

The next section will present data answering the second part of RQ2, specifically why teachers correct the way they do, according to the SR data.

b. Why do teachers correct the way they do?

Table 5.3 shows the reasons, according to the SR data, why teachers used each type of OCF, divided into their broad categories recasts, elicitations/prompts, and metalinguistic feedback.

Table 5.3: Reasons given by teachers for correction - 13 reasons (SR data).

Sub-categories of "Reason for correction"	Percentage (number) of reasons given, for each broad type of correction		
	Recast	Elicitation/Prompts	Metalinguistic feedback
Effective method that provides learners with the correct target language	39% (n=268)	18% (n=40)	21.4% (n=6)
Very difficult, or too difficult and/or new input for learners	18% (n=126)	13.3% (n=30)	14.2% (n=4)
Time limitations	10% (n=72)	2% (n=4)	0% (n=0)
To elicit the correct form from my students	10% (n=70)	44% (n=99)	46.4% (n=13)
Suitable for my students' language proficiency	8% (n=58)	12.4% (n=28)	14.2% (n=4)

Known or regular error	5.5% (n=38)	4.4% (n=10)	3.5% (n=1)
To avoid embarrassing my students	2.4% (n=17)	1.3% (n=3)	0% (n=0)
Minor error	2% (n=13)	1.3% (n=3)	0% (n=0)
I don't know	1% (n=9)	1.3% (n=3)	0% (n=0)
Content error, or not related to my question	1% (n=8)	.4% (n=1)	0% (n=0)
Because I explained this before	1% (n=5)	2% (n=4)	0% (n=0)
Major error	.5% (n=4)	0% (n=0)	0% (n=0)
Not my choice of correction (because peer corrected)	.1% (n=1)	0% (n=0)	0% (n=0)
Total percentage (number) of errors noticed for each type of correction	100% (n=689)	100% (n=225)	100% (n=22)

According to the data generated from the SR sessions (see Table 5.3), the most important reason for using elicitations/prompts (44%), and metalinguistic feedback (46.4%) was *to elicit the correct form from my students*. While the main reason for using recasts (39%) given by the teachers was because they think these were *effective methods* that provide learners with the correct target language. This concurred with the views of the wider set of teachers, in the questionnaires, and also with the views expressed in the interviews where they reported the importance of using explicit recasts and particularly with their students' phonological errors (see Chapter Four).

With regard to students' language proficiency as perceived by teachers, only 8% of recasts, 12.4% of elicitations/prompts and 14.2% of metalinguistic feedback were used because of taking into consideration *their students' perceived language proficiency*. Additionally, only 2.4% of recasts were used *to avoid embarrassing their students*.

In sum, it seems that teachers in the current study mainly used recasts because they believed it is effective for correcting students' errors. When they did use elicitation (which was not at all as frequent as recasts), this was largely reported to be effective so that they could get the learners to produce the correct form.

As recasts were used so frequently, it is important to find out the extent to which students actually notice and act on OCF. As described in chapter Two, some previous literature has suggested that recasts are not always noticed or perceived as corrections and that they are a less effective as a means of eliciting a corrected utterance or benefitting learning. We present data to address this issue in the next two subsections. First, data from the SR shows whether teachers believed that the students actually *noticed* their OCF. Second, students' immediate uptake (whether they corrected their erroneous utterances) was documented, drawing on the observation data.

Table 5.4: Reasons given by teachers for why students noticed their corrections - 7 reasons (SR data).

Reasons given by teachers that the students had noticed a correction	Percentage (and number) of reasons given that corrections had been noticed by the students, for each broad type of correction		
	Recast	Elicitation/Prompts	Metalinguistic feedback
Students' uptake (because of students' immediate and/or late uptake)	40.2% (n=240)	16.4% (n=33)	17% (n=4)
The correction (by teacher or peer) was clear	37% (n=221)	31.3% (n=63)	12.5% (n=3)
Student's high level of language proficiency	9.5% (n=57)	9% (n=18)	12.5% (n=3)
I don't know	6.1% (n=37)	5% (n=10)	0% (n=0)

Student's self-correction following indication by teacher	3.3% (n=20)	38% (n=76)	58.3% (n=14)
Regular or simple error	2% (n=11)	0% (n=0)	0% (n=0)
Students' facial expressions	2% (n=11)	.4% (n=1)	0% (n=0)
Total (Percentage) number of reasons	(100%) n=597	(100%) n=201	(100) n=24

Table 5.4 shows that, according to teachers' views during the SR sessions, "their students' immediate and/or late uptake" was the most prevalent reason why teachers thought their students had noticed their recasts, with this being 40.2% of the reasons. This concurred with the observation data that showed that the majority of corrections were followed by uptake (see section 5.2.1). Meanwhile students' self-correction following an indication from the teacher was the most prevalent reason for why teachers thought that their students noticed their elicitations/prompts and metalinguistic feedback, with 38% and 58.3%, respectively.

The second most popular reason for all the OCF types being noticed by their students, according to teachers' views, was that the teacher/peer had provided a clear correction (with about 37% of the reasons given for noticing recasts, 31.3% for elicitations/prompts, and 12.5% for noticing metalinguistic feedback).

Interestingly, for only 6.1% of recasts and 5% of elicitations/prompts were teachers *unsure* if their students had noticed these corrections or not.

Teachers also gave reasons about why they thought that students had NOT noticed error corrections during the SR sessions. There were very few such instances. These data are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: Reasons given by teachers for why they thought their students may not have noticed their corrections – 3 reasons (SR data).

Reasons for **not** noticing	Number (Percentage) of error corrections **not** noticed, for each type of correction		
	Recast	Elicitation/Prompts	Metalinguistic feedback
1- Low level of language proficiency	92% (34)	86% (6)	100% (3)
3 – Teacher didn't explain well	5.4% (2)	14.2% (1)	0% (0)
2- No uptake	3% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)
Total percentage (number) of each correction type for reasons when the teacher thought the correction had not been noticed	100% (37)	100% (7)	100% (3)

In the few instances where teachers thought their students may not have noticed their corrections, the main reason given was because of their students' low level of

language proficiency. Only one recast was thought to be missed by the student, because there was no uptake as reported by the teacher after hearing the recording during the SR session.

We now compare the number and percentage of instances when teachers thought their students had noticed a correction versus the instances where they thought that their students may not have noticed a correction, according to different types of correction (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.6: The percentage (number) of reasons given by teachers for why students noticed their corrections vs. why students didn't notice their corrections (SR data).

Type of correction	Total percentage (number) of reasons given by teachers	
	Why students noticed	Why students may not have noticed
Recast	68.6% (n=597)	4.2% (n=37)
Elicitation/ Prompts	23.5% (n=201)	.8% (n=7)
Metalinguistic feedback	2.7% (n=24)	.3% (n=3)
Total percentage (number) for reasons for noticing vs. reasons for not noticing	94.5% (n=822)	5.4% (n=47)
Total percentage (number) of all reasons	100% (n=869)	

Table 5.6 indicates that the teachers assumed their students noticed most of their corrections, as there were only a few instances where they thought their corrections might have been missed.

Interestingly, the ratios of whether a correction was noticed or not (according to the teachers' views) were roughly similar across the different types of correction. They ranged between about 4% and 12% of the total instances for each type of correction. That is, 6.2% of recasts, 3.5% of elicitation/prompts, and about 12.5% of metalinguistic feedback were thought not to be noticed by the students, with a grand proportion of about 5.7% overall not being noticed. This does not suggest a concern by teachers that recasts are not noticed by students. If anything, it is metalinguistic feedback (a very explicit OCF, but one that does not necessarily require learners to correct their utterance or provide the correct utterance for them) that makes teachers most likely to think that students may not have noticed the correction. However, given the very low number of instances of metalinguistic feedback, we cannot draw any strong interpretations from this data. It is perhaps surprising that the teachers were slightly more likely to say that a student hadn't noticed a correction when it was an elicitation / prompt than when it was a recast, but again, we cannot draw any strong interpretation from this as the difference is very slight indeed.

5.2.1 How did learners respond to these different types of oral correction?

According to the observation data, students' immediate uptake was taken as another type of evidence of noticing corrections (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7: Number and percentage of students' different types of uptake.

Type of Uptake	Frequency	Percentage out of total corrections provided
Full uptake	623	65.8%
Partial uptake	31	3.3%
No uptake	206	21.8%
Uptake by peer	87	9.2%
Total	947	100.0%

Table 5.7 shows that the majority of the teachers' corrections were indeed followed up by their students' "full uptake", that is students corrected their utterance

appropriately and fully (i.e., in line with the teachers' correction or the expected target utterance).

This finding, to some extent, concurred with teachers' reported views about whether students were noticing the corrections, in that most of their oral corrections were noticed by their students (see Table 5.6). In addition, teachers reported some other indicators of their students' noticing of corrections regardless of uptake. This is probably explained by the fact that 'counts of uptake' are not necessarily a very accurate indication of whether a correction has been noticed and they probably underestimate the actual rate of noticing error correction (see section 2.7.3, literature review). In contrast, teachers may use a wider range of indicators, and in some instances, considered that an error had been noticed even though the student did not audibly produce the correct utterance. To illustrate, see Table 5.4 for the reasons that teachers give for thinking that a student has noticed an error – these include visual signals and a feeling that the correction was clear or the language familiar, sufficient evidence for the teachers that a correction had been noticed.

However, uptake is certainly one indicator, one of the clearest and most objective, that an error correction has been taken note of by a learner. We examine this data in more detail below, as it is important to consider uptake in the light of different types of OCF. Table 5.8 below shows students' uptake with relation to their teachers' type of OCF.

Table 5.8: How students responded to teachers' corrections with regard to the type of correction (Observation data).

Type of correction	Percentage (number) of students' types of responses with regard to teachers' types of correction				
	Full uptake	Partial uptake	Never	Uptake by peer	Total
Recast with prompt	70% (n=450)	3.4% (n=22)	20.4% (n=131)	6.2% (n=40)	100% (n=643)
Recast without prompt	50.6% (n=42)	1.2% (n=1)	47% (n=39)	1.2% (n=1)	100% (n=83)
Recast with explanation	28.6% (n=20)	5.7% (n=4)	37.1% (n=26)	28.6% (n=20)	100% (n=70)
Elicitations/ Prompts	76.9% (n=90)	3.4% (n=4)	6.8% (n=8)	12.8% (n=15)	100% (n=117)
Metalinguistic feedback	95% (n=19)	0% (n=0)	0% (n=0)	5% (n=1)	100% (n=20)
Elicitation+ Recast	20% (n=2)	0% (n=0)	10% (n=1)	70% (n=7)	100% (n=10)
Metalinguistic feedback+ Recast	0% (n=0)	0% (n=0)	25% (n=1)	75% (n=3)	100% (n=4)
Total	65.8% (n=623)	3.3% (n=31)	21.8% (n=206)	9.2% (n=87)	100% (n=947)

The observation data analysis shows that "metalinguistic feedback" was the type of OCF that was most noticed by the students if we consider uptake as an indication of students' noticing, as it had an immediate uptake rate of 95%, while the remaining 5% was accounted for by peer uptake (see Table 5.8). After this, "elicitations/prompts" were regarded as the second most noticed type of correction, with an uptake rate of

78%; this was closely followed by "recast with prompt" at approximately 70%. It also appears that "recast without prompt" was the least noticed form of correction, because 47% were not followed by any uptake. This coincided with teachers' views, from the questionnaire data, that implicit recast (i.e., without prompts) is not effective (if we consider uptake as a mark of noticing). Indeed, the majority of recasts with prompt were followed by full uptakes, which coincided with the majority of the core teachers' views considering recast with prompt as an effective OCF method.

We now consider who corrected students' oral errors.

Figure 5.3: Source of oral correction:
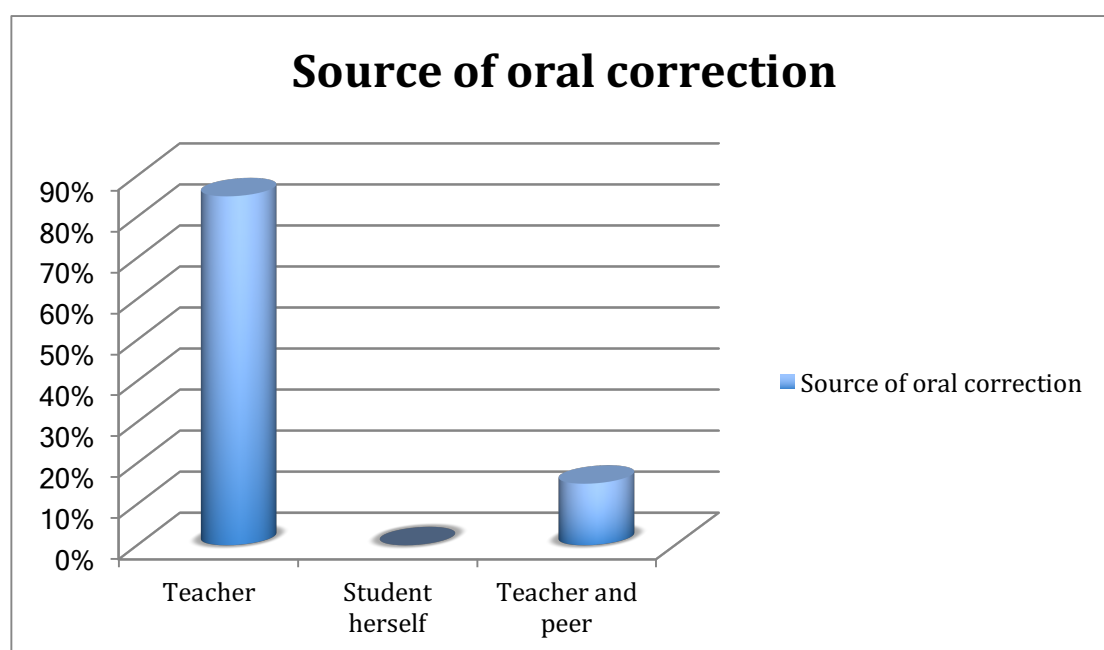
The observation data showed that teachers provided the majority of corrections, while the students did not make any attempt to correct themselves, and in only a few instances did teachers and peers provide corrections together. For example, a teacher would say "No" and allow a peer to recast the error (see Figure 5.3). This general picture aligns with the previous descriptions of this context as being one in which the teacher is the provider of information and students play a relatively passive role in the classroom (see Section 5.1).

5.2.2 How did the following factors influence teachers' use of oral error correction?

5.2.2.i Teachers' perceptions of learners' proficiency (SR data)

We carried out a Chi-Square test to examine the relationship between the teachers' choice of feedback and their perceptions of their students' language proficiency. Perceived proficiency was provided by the teachers during the SRs, when the teachers were asked what they thought the students' proficiency was, following each OCF instance. The teachers were asked to express the proficiency of the student, in the context of that classroom, as 'high', 'middle' or 'low' proficiency. First, this was calculated using the fine-grained subcategories of OCF (such as recast with prompt, recast without prompt etc.). This relationship was small (Cramer's V= 0.09) (see e.g. Pallant, 2016 for benchmarks for interpreting the magnitude of Chi-square statistics). Another Chi-Square test used the combined data across all three types of recasts collapsed into one category as "recast". Across all three main categories of OCF (i.e. recast; elicitations/prompts; and metalinguistic feedback) also showed a very weak relationship (Cramer's V= 0.06). The test was then repeated with the three main categories of OCF types, but excluding the "I don't know" option. Again, the result was weak (Cramer's V= 0.07).

This set of findings did not correspond with the teachers' views expressed in the interviews, as the majority of teachers expressed a belief that there is a relationship between their perceptions of students' language proficiency and their choice of OCF type (see Chapter Four). For instance, most of the teachers stated that they used elicitations with excellent learners and explanation with poor learners (see Section 4.2.4.3). It may be that it is difficult for teachers to make fast and principled decisions about which OCF to use in the light of how they perceive an individual students' proficiency.

5.2.2.ii Type of language errors (Observation data)

The Chi-Square test results (Cramer's V= 0.33) showed a strong association between the type of OCF and the type of oral errors made by students. The test was re-done by grouping the OCF types into their broader categories: recast; elicitations/prompts; and metalinguistic feedback, which produced a slightly stronger association (Cramer's V= 0.4).

Table 5.9: Percentage (number) of correlation between the type of correction and the type of error (Observation data).

Type of feedback	Lexicon error E>E	Lexicon error E>A &/or A>E	Morphological error	Phonological error	Syntactic error	Understanding/ content error	Total
Recast with prompt	3.4% (n=22)	9% (n=58)	.5% (n=3)	81.2% (n=522)	3.4% (n=22)	2.5% (n=16)	100% (643)
Recast without prompt	2.4% (n=2)	7.2% (n=6)	0% (n=0)	88% (n=73)	0% (n=0)	2.4% (n=2)	100% (n=83)
Recast with explanation	10% (n=7)	10% (n=7)	8.6% (n=6)	25.7% (n=18)	40% (n=28)	5.7% (n=4)	100% (n=70)
Elicitation/ Prompts	13.4% (n=17)	25.2% (n=32)	0% (n=0)	22.8% (n=29)	21.3% (n=27)	17.3% (n=22)	100% (n=127)
Metalinguistic feedback	0% (n=0)	8.3% (n=2)	0% (n=0)	25% (n=6)	62.5% (n=15)	4.2% (n=1)	100% (n=24)
Total	5.1% (n=48)	11.1% (n=105)	1% (n=9)	68.4% (n=648)	9.7% (n=92)	4.8% (n=45)	100% (n=947)

Table 5.9 shows that the majority of the teachers' *recasts with prompt* (81.2%) were used to correct students' phonological errors, while the figure was about 88% for *recasts without prompt*. Interestingly, this concurred with the interview data in that all the ten teachers reported that they normally correct their students' phonological errors by means of recasting (see Section 4.2.4.2). Additionally, it appears that the teachers corrected their students' syntactic errors mostly using *metalinguistic feedback* in 62.5% of cases, while the second most popular method to correct syntactic errors was by *recasts with explanation* in 40% of all instances. Meanwhile, *elicitations/prompts* were used to correct students' lexical errors in 38% of cases.

These data show a clear pattern in terms of the type of correction used for specific types of errors.

5.2.2.iii Teachers' length of experience (Interview and observation data)

In this section, the relationship between the teachers' choice of feedback (during ten observed classes per teacher) and the amount of time they have been teaching will be discussed in relation to the three categories of feedback. The first group contained the 5 (out of 10 teachers) who had between 10 and 15 years of teaching experience (see Figure 5.4).

Teacher A1
- Recast 71.4%
- Elicitation 25%
- Metalinguistic feedback 3.6%

Teacher F
- Recast 69.8%
- Elicitation 27%
- Metalinguistic feedback 3.2%

Teacher S
- Recast 73.7%
- Elicitation 24.6%
- Metalinguistic feedback 1.8%

Teacher L
- Recast 80.3%
- Elicitation 16.8%
- Metalinguistic feedback 2.9%

Teacher A2
- Recast 86.3%
- Elicitation 11.3%
- Metalinguistic feedback 2.5%
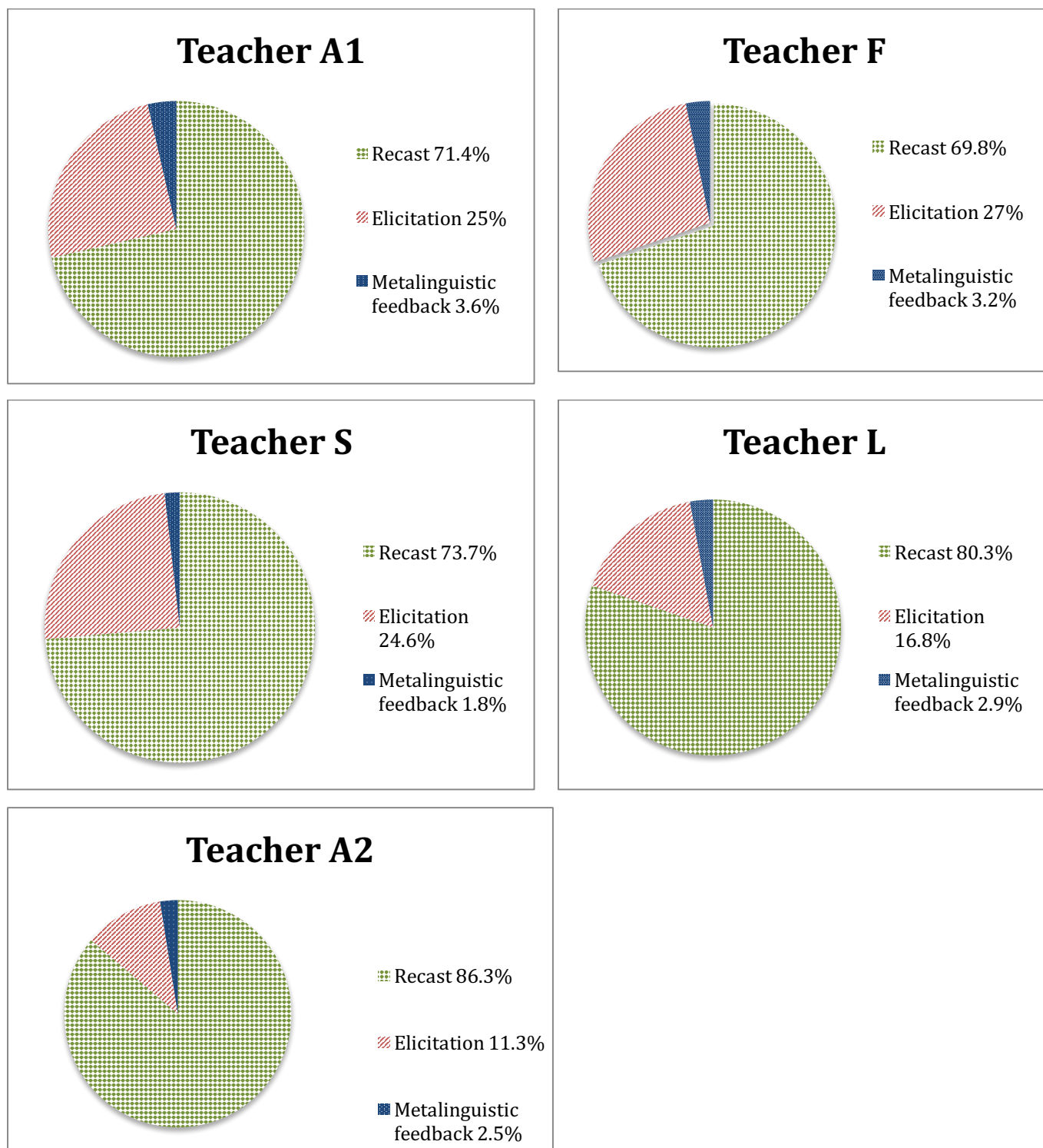
Figure 5.4 shows that, all five teachers with teaching experience of between 10 and 15 mostly used recasts for their OCF. That is, they used recasts to correct a minimum of 69.8% of their students' errors, up to a maximum of 86.3%. Their use of

155

elicitations/prompts ranged from 11.3% up to 27% and metalinguistic feedback was the least used form of feedback, used for between 1.8% and 3.6% of all cases of oral errors.

The second group consisted of 4 teachers who had between 5 and 10 years of teaching experience (see Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5: The relationship between teachers' choice of feedback (observation data) and their length of experience: < 5 and <= 10 years (interview data).
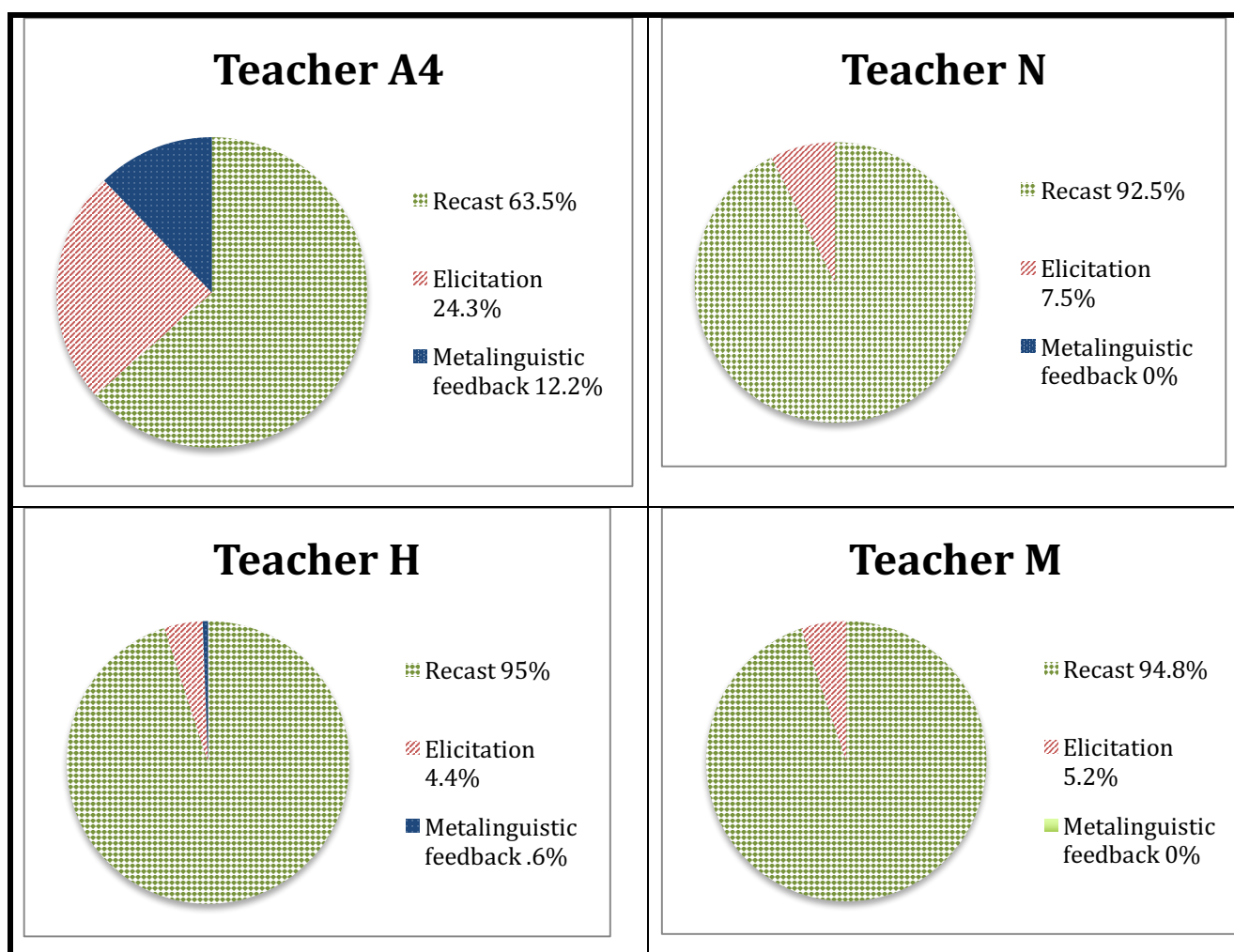
The data for the four teachers with teaching experience of between 5 and 10 years showed that three of the teachers in this group used a similarly high proportion of similar amount of recasts (between 92.5% and 95%), and that recasting was the most frequently used type of OCF, while elicitations/prompts scored between 4.4% and 7.5%. Only one teacher used non-metalinguistic feedback for a mere 0.6% of errors

(see Figure 5.5). Interestingly, although the majority of this group used more recasts and less elicitations and metalinguistic than the group who had more teaching experience, one teacher out of the four teachers in this group used more amounts of elicitations/prompts, and metalinguistic feedback and fewer recasts than the others. She used the least amount of recasts compared to all the other teachers in this current study (63.5%) and 12.2% of metalinguistic feedback, which was the highest percentage for all the teachers in the current study.

Figure 5.6: The relationship between teachers' choice of feedback (observation data) and their length of experience: =/<5 years (Interview data)
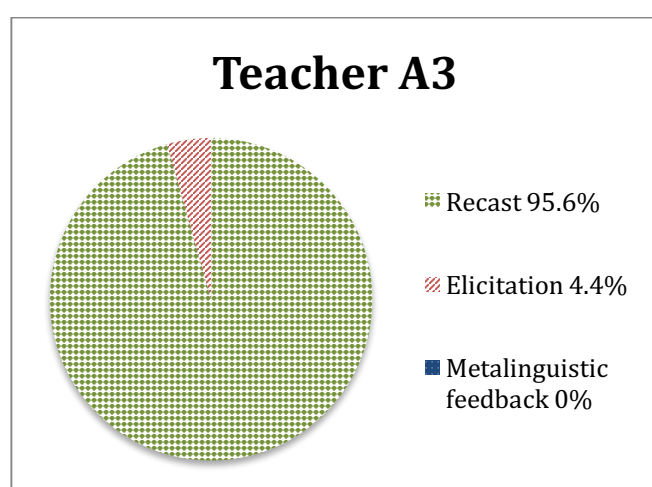
The one teacher who had 5 years of teaching experience nearly always used recasts (95.6%) to correct her students' oral errors and only used elicitations 4.4% of the time (Figure 5.6).

It seems that in general the more teaching experience teachers have the fewer recasts and more elicitations they used, at least descriptively as shown visually in the pie charts in this section. However, there was one exception to this. One teacher in the second group, with 5-10 years' experience, used the fewest recasts of all teachers in this study including the first group who have more teaching experience. She used elicitation about the same amount as the more experienced teachers. This might reflect individual teacher differences in preferences and beliefs, rather than differences that can be ascribed holistically to amount of teaching experience. This could suggest that with these low numbers of teachers involved in the study, it is

157

difficult to make generalisations on the basis of teaching experience, despite the apparently clear trend showing that teachers with less experience tended to use more recasts than elicitations.

5.3 Summary

To summarize, this chapter presented the results based on 100 observations of the teachers and SR interviews to answer the RQ2 investigating what types of OCF are used by teachers in their classes and why. Then the chapter presented data about how students respond to OCF and whether teachers' perception of students' language proficiency, the oral error types, and the length of teachers' experience was related to teachers' choices for OCF strategies. The main results of this chapter are summarised as follows, along with a comment about how this data relates to the data presented in chapter 4 about teacher perceptions and beliefs.

- Recasts with prompts were the most used type of OCF while only few instances of elicitations.
    - This was in line with the teachers' reported preferences for recasts with prompts as effective correction strategies. However, it contradicted with their second most effective OCF method "elicitation with enhanced prompts" (as presented in chapter 4).
- Most corrections were followed by uptake.
    - This generally concurred with teachers' views that they expected the majority of their corrections, including recast, to be noticed.
- There was a noticeable relationship between teachers' choice of OCF type and their students' types of error. For instance, most of the phonological errors were followed by recast.
    - This broadly matched the majority of the 10 interviewed teachers' views.
- There was not an obvious relationship between teachers' choice of OCF types and their perception of their students' language proficiency.
    - This conflicted with most of the interviewed teachers' views that there is a relationship between language proficiency and how errors are corrected. This finding might be because it is difficult for teachers to ascertain a student's proficient and hone the error correction type

accordingly. This finding might also be more simply explained by the fact that there was such a large majority of recasts, correcting pronunciation errors, that it was difficult to find patterns that could explain different types of error correction.

- There is no very clear evidence that there was a relationship between teachers' choice of OCF type and their length of teaching experience, though there was a general trend for teachers with more experience to provide a higher proportion of elicitations (whilst still using recasts – that were generally explicit, with prompts - most of the time). Given the small numbers of teachers involved, this finding may indicate a need for more studies that take other teacher variables, such as personality, into consideration.

Drawing together key findings about teachers' views and OCF in the classroom.

Finally, we provide a summary of the findings about how teachers' actual behaviour, with regard to OCF choices as shown in this chapter, is related to their perceptions of OCF, as shown in chapter 4. We highlight key findings about teachers' viws and perceptions and their actual classroom practices, combining results from the interviews, observations, simulate recall, and the questionnaires to consider the extent to which there are correspondences between the teachers' views and their actual practices in the classroom. We highlight key findings relating to teachers' views and practices about the aim of their lessons, their choice of OCF, and their perceptions of students' noticing of errors.

Aims of lessons, oral interaction, and amount of OCF. The interview data in chapter 4 showed that there were some variations between what teachers think the aim of their English class is in general and their actual behaviour in the classroom. Although most of the teachers mentioned that speaking skills are the most important aim of the curriculum, in their actual lessons speaking (as normally conceived, with students engaging in oral production activities such as information gaps, role plays, or narrations) was given very little focus. This may suggest that the teachers consider making their students read or repeat a written conversation from their textbooks to be a conversational activity, which reveals a potential misunderstanding of how to

improve students' speaking abilities. Classes were based mainly on teaching translation, by emphasising reading comprehension and grammar, rather than speaking activities, perhaps because, as the teachers noted, the examinations tested grammar knowledge and translation, rather than speaking skills. This meant that in total, there were few errors each lesson and these errors mainly related to errors when reading out loud from the textbook.

Explicitness of OCFs in this context. The 100 observations and 10 interviews showed that the majority of teachers reported that they prefer using explicit correction with explanation, and indeed recasts with prompts were used in classes. The types of errors (such as phonological/pronunciation errors), seemed to be associated with the use of the "isolated recast with prompt" OCF type.

Participants reported in the interviews that implicit correction methods, such as recasting *without* prompt, were an ineffective method. Indeed, the observation and SR data also showed that implicit recasts, without prompts, were not highly frequent (see Table 5.2), though it was used occasionally. Teachers gave reasons such as "time limitations", "to avoid embarrassing their students", "with regular errors", and "minor errors" as justifications for using this more implicit type of correction.

The interview data showed that the majority (8 out of 10) confirmed that their choice of OCF is related to their students' language proficiency (see Section 4.2.4.3). For instance, the majority reported their preference for using elicitations/prompts with highly proficient learners during the interviews. However, the Chi-square test result (taken from the SR data) showed a very weak relationship between students' language proficiency, based on the teachers' perceptions, and the teachers' choice of OCF (see Section 5.2.2.i). The overwhelming use of explicit forms of recasts, with about 13% of OCFs elicitations, may have meant that it was not possible to distinguish patterns related to perceived proficiency and OCF types.

Students' awareness: The teachers confirmed during the SR sessions that their students noticed most of their corrections. Only a few errors (about 5%) went unnoticed, according to the teachers. Indeed, aligning with this to some extent, the

observation data showed that the majority of teachers' corrections were followed by students' full uptake: 65.8% of students responded with full uptake, 9.2% were taken up by peers, 3.3% of students responded with partial uptake, and only in about 21% of cases was no immediate uptake recorded (see Table 5.7). However, this does mean, as noted above, that a small proportion of corrective feedback was not followed by uptake and yet teachers believed that the corrections had been noticed, using a range of evidence about pupils drawing on their prior experience with the class.

Type of oral error and its relation with OCF: The observation data showed a relationship between the teachers' choice of OCF type and their students' types of oral errors. The Chi-square test (Cramer's V = 0.313) indicated a strong relationship between the teachers' choice of feedback and their students' types of errors (see Table 5.9). 81% of recasts with prompts and 88% of recasts without prompts were used to correct the students' phonological errors. Differing from this somewhat, just under half of all recasts with explanations (48.6%) were used to correct students' oral grammatical errors, and elicitations/prompts tended to be used more for grammatical errors than for phonological errors, and 62% of metalinguistic feedback was used to correct the students' syntactic oral errors (rather than phonological errors). Thus, this data supported the teachers' views expressed during the interviews, in which all of them agreed that there was a relationship between the type of correction and type of error and all stated that they usually use recasts to correct their students' phonological errors and explanations for their students' grammatical errors (see Section 4.2.4.2). It appears that there were both matches and mismatches between the teachers' views and their OCF practices in class. Matches included alignment about the perceived effectiveness of explicit types of error correction and different types of OCF being useful for different types of errors. A mismatch seemed to lie in the teachers' idea that proficiency determined OCF choice, but in practice this was not observed. The next chapter will further discuss the results in the light of previous research.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6 Introduction

This chapter presents an extensive analysis of the main results from the previous chapters 4 and 5 and considers them in light of the literature review. The structure is as follows: first, I provide a brief summary of the data collected on teachers' perceptions about the general aims of teaching English, before discussing their perceptions of, more specifically, OCF types according to the data collected through the questionnaires and interviews. Then, teachers' choices of OCF in their classes and their students' immediate uptake are discussed, drawing upon the classroom observations. The question of why teachers correct their students' errors in the way they do will then be reviewed in relation to the students' language proficiency (as perceived by the teachers), the targeted language features, and the teachers' teaching experience, according to the observations and SR data. After that, teachers' perceptions and behaviour with regard to OCF will be discussed in terms of the matches and mismatches between their views and in-class behaviour. This will be followed by a brief summary of the main points emerging from the findings.

6.1 Teachers' teaching behaviour as opposed to their views

This section briefly discusses the general teaching context and approaches, based on teachers' views and actual practices, to serve to situate and enrich our understanding of teachers' perception and choices of OCF that will be discussed later. According to the interviews and observation data, it appears that there was a mismatch between what teachers wanted to practice (in general in the classroom) and their actual behaviour. For instance, teachers in the current study reported that the aim of their lessons was to improve their students' communicative skills, yet the observations showed that their classes were mostly grammar and translation focused. For example, teachers were the centres of providing information and students' errors were corrected once they occurred, leaving students generally to be passive learners. That is to say, there were many activities that required a limited amount of or no speaking, and that brought limited involvement of students in the classes. This was similar to findings of previous studies conducted in the Saudi context (see e.g., Alharbi, 2015). As a result,

by minimising their speaking time, there was less opportunity for students to make errors in their speech overall, as noted previously in the thesis (see Table, 5.1). However, teachers reported several obstacles to doing their practice as they would prefer, such as the grammar-based final exam, large class sizes, and limited time for teaching, which were also found in studies such as those by Alshammari (2012), Al-Seghayer (2014a), and Li (1998), and which might cause teachers to focus on grammar and translation over other skills. For example, teacher A1 reported that time limitations are one of the greatest obstacles that prevent her from allowing students to speak freely using English. This is because she is required to cover all the necessary activities from the curriculum in each class, including teaching students the grammatical rules. This corresponds with the views of teachers in Sinprajakpol's (2004) study, as reviewed by Basturkmen (2012), where it was found that the burden of the requirement to covering everything in the curriculum can make it more difficult for teachers to ensure their ideal behaviour aligns with their classroom behaviour (Basturkmen, 2012).

However, it seems that some teachers in the current study were aware that students reading a conversation from a book was not a speaking activity but, as teacher F explained, they continue assigning this activity because of their learners' limited vocabulary abilities. The fact that the reading activity was misconstrued as a speaking activity by some teachers may also explain why most of the students' oral errors were phonological errors and why most of the OCF observed was related to correcting errors made when 'reading out loud'.

6.2 Teachers' perceptions of OCF

The data from the 10 interviews matched that of the 207 questionnaires with regard to the teachers' views on the importance of correcting all their students' errors to improve their language learning. This result was consistent with other studies, such as Fayyaz and Omar's (2014) interview-based study and the recent meta-analysis study by Brown (2016), in which researchers showed that, in a more form-focused context (similar to that of the current study), the importance of correcting learners' errors was heavily stressed. For instance, in Fayyaz and Omar's (2014) study, a participant who

taught in a form-focused context emphasised the importance for their students' learning of teaching grammatical rules explicitly and correcting their errors.

Conversely, it seems that in a more communicative context, such as in Mori's (2011) observational study, results contradict the current study's results on this issue. For instance, participants in Mori's study were not interested in correcting their students' errors because they felt it was more important to create a comfortable atmosphere for learners, to encourage them to participate with more confidence. This was similar to studies by Lee (2013) and Kamiya (2016). Lee (2013) found that teachers did not agree with the need to correct all their students' erroneous utterances, though, they did believe in the benefits of error correction and the importance, where they *did* make corrections, of amending students' errors for them as soon as they occurred (rather than later). Kamiya's (2016) study of teacher participants' views on correcting errors also showed that participants did not agree with correcting all of their learners' oral errors all the time, and observations showed that in practice they corrected about half of their students' verbal errors.

In sum, as noted in the literature review, most of the previous studies that have investigated teachers' choice of OCF types were conducted in a more communicative-based approach and so the current study makes an important contribution to our understanding of teacher beliefs about error correction in more form-oriented contexts.

6.3 Teachers' correction strategies and motivations with regard to OCF

As the observation data shows, the majority of OCF types used by the participants in the observations were recasts. This is in line with previous studies, where recasts were found to be the most commonly chosen type of correction amongst teachers (See e.g., Al-Faki, 2013; Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2014; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothooft, 2014; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008). As noted above, most of the previous studies that looked at teachers' selection of OCF types were conducted in a more communicative-based context (as noted by Brown, 2016), so it is interesting that the current study, set in a more grammar- and translation-based context, also found the same preference for

recasts in class. The SR data revealed that in 39% of all errors the teachers used recasts because they deemed it to be a very effective method. This view is supported by the findings of Mackey and Philp (1998) suggested that students made use of recasts regardless of whether they produced the correct version immediately after the recast (uptake).

However, the view that recasts are effective somewhat conflicts with other studies' findings, where teacher participants argued that recasting was less effective than other OCF types for developing students' learning. In those studies, teachers reported mainly using recasts for *other* reasons (besides believing it to be the least effective strategy), such as time constraints (as recasts are 'fast'), to avoid embarrassing their students or to avoid interrupting the flow of the communication (observed by e.g., Roothooft, 2014; Yoshida, 2008, both studies carried out in more communicative teaching contexts than the current study). In the current study, the SR data showed that only 2.4% of recasts were used to avoid embarrassing students, and 10% were due to time constraints, and no one mentioned using recasts to avoid interrupting the flow of their students' speech.

Nevertheless, the current findings on the most used OCF type being recasts, matched Brown's (2016) meta-analytic finding that the majority of total corrections in previous research were recasts, *regardless of the context*. Furthermore, Brown found that only 9% were recasts-with-explanation, closely reflected in the current study where 7.4% were recasts-with-explanations. That said, it should also be noted that the current study showed an even higher frequency of recasts, whereby about 84% of corrections were recasts and fewer were prompts/elicitations (see Table 5.2) compared to Brown's (2016) meta-analysis study of 24 studies recast was the most used correction at 57% the average across all the studies he analysed.

Although Brown found that recasts were the *most* frequent OCF type overall, regardless of teaching context, he did find some differences in the *proportion* of OCF types as a function of the context. Regarding the impact of FL and SL instruction on teachers' choices of feedback, Brown found that, in the FL context, instructors used fewer recasts and more prompts compared to SL contexts. Although the current study

did not compare the FL under investigation with a SL context, it is noted that the majority of teachers' corrections in this FL context were recasts rather than prompts (see Figure 5.1, and Table 5.2). As Brown noted, it is necessary to have more studies carried out in different contexts, such as those in FL contexts and those with a tendency towards a focus on form rather than more communicative (Brown only included two form-focused studies in his sample of studies), in order to draw conclusions about whether different proportions of OCF types are observable on the basis of a context being 'FL' or 'SL'.

In terms of *who* corrects errors, in the current study it was found that the majority were corrected by teachers (see Figure 5.3). This is likely associated with the traditional view, prevalent across Saudi schools, which promotes the idea that students' errors should be corrected when they occur to prevent them developing bad habits and that regards the teacher as the model and key provider of information (see Harmer, 2003, 2007).

6.3.1. Students' noticing of the OCF, according to the observation and SR data

This section discusses whether and why students noticed their teachers' corrections, both according to the teachers' views expressed in the SR sessions and according to students' actual uptake of the correction according to observation data.

The data from the 100 observations and SR sessions showed that the teachers expect their students to notice most of the corrections they make. In line with this expectation, the majority of the teachers' oral corrections were followed by their students' uptake according to observations (see Tables 5.7 and 5.8). The main reasons teachers assumed the majority of their oral corrections were noticed are now discussed, organised for the different types of OCF.

In terms of elicitations/prompts and metalinguistic feedback, "students' self-correction following indication" was regarded as the most important evidence for students noticing the OCF according to the SR data, indicating that students had noticed the corrections, according to the teachers' perceptions. This result matched

the observation data where 76.9% of elicitations/prompts and 95% of metalinguistic feedback were followed by accurate uptake by students (see Table 5.8).

In terms of recasts, students' immediate and/or late uptake was considered the main reason teachers thought that their students had noticed their recasts (see Table 5.5). The observation data showed that the majority of corrections (mainly recasts) were indeed followed by students' immediate uptake (see Table 5.8). For instance, recasts with prompts (a more explicit approach to OCF) were followed by students' immediate uptake 71% of the time.

However, it was notable that recast *without* prompt (a more implicit approach to OCF) was only followed by uptake just over 50% of the time. This might be because explicit feedback has been considered to be more efficient for learners to notice easily when compared with implicit correction (Kim & Han, 2007). This data contradicted results from Lyster and Ranta (1997), where *no* learners noticed recasts, according to their immediate uptake, in a study carried out in a communicative context where maintaining interactional flow was a prominent feature of the classrooms. Indeed, Panova and Lyster (2002) and Lyster and Ranta's (2013) article in response to Mackee and Goo (2013), noted the importance of features *within* recasts, such as intonation, which subsequently made it more noticeable for learners, when compared with implicit recasts. This aspect was found in the teachers' views and choices according to the interview and observation data for the current study. Although previous studies have suggested that students' uptake following recasts could be optional or that recasts offer few opportunities for self-correction (Goo & Mackey, 2013, p.148; Panova & Lyster, 2002), the results of the current study showed that the majority of corrections were followed by students' immediate uptake, even though most of the corrections were recasts. Therefore, one may postulate that recasts may be more likely to be noticed by learners, and therefore be more effective, in more form-focused contexts than more communicative-based contexts, such as where recasts have been mostly used for interactional purposes (as in Kim & Han, 2007 and Roothooft, 2014).

The next section will further discuss briefly the reasons why recast was the most used in the current study and discuss this in light of previous research.

6.3.1.1 Why was recast the most used form of correction?

The data from the 10 interviews and 100 SR sessions with the ten core teachers showed recast with prompt was the most used type of OCF form and the majority of these recasts with prompt were noticed by students (see Tables 5.2, and 5.8). Teachers undervalued the importance of implicit recasts and stressed the importance of and a preference for recasts with prompts, especially in the case of phonological errors. These views were matched with their actual practices as 8.8% of corrections overall were implicit recasts, while 67.7% of corrections were recasts with prompts (see Table 5.2).

The reason for this preference for recasts with prompts is perhaps the context. In such a form-focused context, the teachers are very likely to have already provided explanation of rules and therefore believed it was sufficient to use recasts for corrections (without needing to re-explain the grammar point) and that a prompt would be trigger the learners to recall the form that had been previously explained. For example, in the current study, it was observed that teachers produced the knowledge explicitly, such as explaining to students how an 's' should be added for plurals with specific examples. This was then followed by activities designed to encourage students to practice until they learnt how to use this new form, and so recasts were mainly used to improve automatisation, aligning with SAT (see DeKeyser, 2007).

In contrast, in studies based in more communicative contexts, such as that by Yoshida (2008), teachers used recasts more than other forms for different reasons, mainly to avoid triggering negative feelings and to keep the flow of the speech. Similarly, Roothooft's (2014) and Kamiya's (2016) participant teachers wanted to create a comfortable atmosphere in which learners could communicate easily and this was consistent with the fact that they used recasts more than the other methods. Kamiya (2016), Roothooft (2014) and Yoshida (2008), all carried out in more communicative contexts than the current study, showed that recasts were mainly used to avoid

embarrassing students and maintaining the flow of the students' speech. In contrast, in the current study teachers self-reported that only 2.4% of recasts were used to avoid embarrassing their students and teachers' main motivation to use recasts was that they are an effective OCF method, especially with phonological errors (see Section 4.2.4.2 and Table 5.3).

In sum, teachers in the current study provided reasons about their use of recasts that did not align with most of the data from communicative-based studies and this divergence could be due to the different teaching contexts, as noted by Basturkmen (2012). However, as already noted above, more research in focused-form contexts is necessary to be able to make more confident claims about the role of the context on use of OCF types.

Other important factors, such as the type of error, instructors' teaching experience, and students' perceived language proficiency, that may influence teachers' views and choices of OCF types, are now considered.

6.3.2 The type of error

The observations, SR sessions, and interview data showed that the teachers' views on the effectiveness of recasting for phonological errors reflected their actual use of recasts to address most of their learners' pronunciation errors (see Table 5.9 and Section 4.2.4.2). Indeed, a Chi-square test showed strong associations between teachers' choice of OCF and the type of error (see section 5.2.2.ii). This may also explain why the majority of corrections (almost 80%) were in the target language, because the majority of corrections were recasts about pronunciation (see Table 5.2). In addition, the ten interviewed teachers assumed that the majority of their oral corrections were noticed and indeed immediate uptake occurred in 79% of cases (see Table 5.8). In contrast to this finding, Mackey et al.'s (2007) study of 25 Arabic students, including SR interviews with 11 learners and two instructors, found that learners often misunderstood OCF when it was targeting pronunciation errors. Additionally, the learners in that study noticed the corrective feedback more when it was targeting lexical or grammatical errors.

The observation data in the current study, showing that phonological errors were the most targeted type of error, also contradicted Brown's (2016) meta-analysis study that showed that in a FL context, grammatical errors were the most targeted type of error in FL contexts. This divergence may have been due to the fact that the classes observed in the current study were focused on reading out loud from written materials, and so the *opportunity* to make grammatical errors may have been reduced compared to the studies included in Brown's meta-analysis, where freer interaction was more prevalent, thus providing occasion for grammatical errors to be made and corrected.

6.3.3 Teachers' teaching experience

The interview and observation results suggest that the length of teaching experience influenced, to some extent, teachers' choice of OCF. This is because when the teachers with more than 10 years of teaching experience were grouped together they were found to use a greater proportion of elicitations and metalinguistic clues. Yet, there was one teacher who had between 5 and 10 years of teaching experience who used elicitations/prompts and metalinguistic clues more than the others. Nevertheless, in line with the main trends in the data, the teacher who had the least teaching experience (about 5 years) was the one who used the most recasts. The majority of her corrections were recasts and, because most phonological errors were corrected by recasts, this meant that most of her corrections were targeted at students' pronunciation. This was in accordance with Brown's (2016) findings where the less teaching experience an instructor has, the more they target pronunciation errors. Although some broad trends were found, more data are needed to corroborate these patterns – the small number of teachers with different amounts of teaching experience makes it difficult to draw firm conclusions about the role of length of experience.

6.3.3.1 Teachers' training workshops

Attendance at training workshops was not found to have a clear influence on teachers' OCF, due to the limited number of teachers in the current study who had attended such workshops (4 out of 10). It was found that the only one who attended a training session related specifically to error correction used similar proportions of OCF

techniques to the other teachers who had a similar amount of teaching experience. That contradicted Brown's (2016) meta-analysis study that suggested teachers who participated in fewer teaching-training sessions might use fewer prompts/elicitations. However, it is hard to draw generalizations, so, as recommended by Brown (2016), future studies are recommended to investigate the effectiveness of teacher training sessions, comparing well-trained instructors with those who have had no previous training, and to compare beginner teachers with experienced teachers in terms of OCF.

Nevertheless, each teacher emphasized the importance of OCF-related workshops in increasing their awareness of this topic. The observations and interviews suggested that the teachers' lack of training could be an important cause for the discrepancies between their teaching goals, such as strengthening speaking skills, and their teaching practices. For instance, the majority of the teachers reported that speaking activities were an important part of their lessons, but hardly any speaking actually took place in the observed classes. This could be explained by a lack of knowledge, as one of the teachers reported that it is too difficult for students to engage in conversational activities because of their limited vocabulary knowledge.

Aiding teachers by providing high quality teaching-training courses would be likely to develop their reflections on their actual practices and their students' needs (see Peacock, 2001; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Borg, 2011). Both Peacock's (2001) and Mattheoudakis' (2007) observational studies suggested the effectiveness of teaching training courses for improving instructors' insights into their own teaching methods. Similarly, participants in Borg's (2011) interview-based longitudinal-study also emphasised the usefulness of the teaching programmes that they attended for developing their teaching abilities in general and for strengthening their knowledge of OCF in particular. According to Borg, teacher training courses need to help teachers align their thoughts and actual behaviour in the classroom.

The data from the current study may also have indicated a misunderstanding of the communicative approach, as teachers reported that they needed to wait until their students' language was sufficiently fluent to allow them to speak English (i.e. allowing students to engage in conversations using English with their classmates).

This result was similar to those of previous studies such as Li (1998) in South Korea and Alshammari (2012) in Saudi Arabia. Alshammari (2012) also found misconceptions in teachers with regard to the communicative approach to language teaching within form-focused contexts in her observational and interview-based study.

Another variable, namely students' perceived language proficiency, that may influence teachers' choices for OCF is now discussed.

6.3.4 Students' language proficiency, as perceived by teachers

The observation and interview data showed dissimilarities in general between the teachers' views and their actual practices with regard to their students' language proficiency. For instance, in the interviews they stressed the importance of using elicitations/prompts with high proficiency learners, and using recasts with explanation with their less proficient learners; however, the Chi-square test showed that there was no strong association between students' language proficiency, as perceived by teachers, and the teachers' choices of OCF forms (see Section 5.2.2.i). This finding matched the results of Ahangari and Amirzadeh's (2011) study in Iran showing no significant relationship between students' proficiency and teachers' choice of correction, as recasts were the most frequently used type of correction across all three groups of learners of different levels of language proficiency (though slightly fewer recasts were used with high proficiency learners than less proficient). This result contradicted Brown's (2016) broad conclusions from his meta-analysis, as he found connections between teachers' choice of correction and learners' level of language proficiency, finding that instructors used more recasts with more proficient students than with less proficient ones.

As noted above, data from interviews in the current study showed that the majority of teachers, 7 out of the 10 core participants, stated that they preferred to use prompts/elicitations with high proficient learners and correction with explanation. Only one teacher reported her preference for using recast instead of prompts/elicitation with high proficient learners, whereas the remaining two

respondents reported no relation between their preference of OCF forms and their students' perceived language proficiency.

6.4 The relationship between teachers' perceptions and practices, with regard to OCF

This section briefly draws out two key strands of the discussion so far, related specifically to how teachers' perception was related to their behaviour in classes with regard to OCF.

The current data showed some discrepancies between teachers' views and their practices, in accordance with previous studies such as that carried out by Basturkman, et al. (2004), who found discrepancies between teachers' cognition and aspects of their teaching, such as their choice of OCF types. According to the observations, interviews, and SR data in the current study, there were mismatches between the teachers' views and their classroom practices. For example, teachers stated that they undervalued the importance of recasts in favour of elicitations to prompt students to self-correct. However, in their actual practice, the majority of their corrections (about 74%) were recasts and only a small percentage (about 23%) was elicitation/prompts. Nevertheless, they did stress the importance of using recasts to correct phonological errors, and indeed many of their corrections were related to pronunciation errors, and so in this sense their stated views aligned with their in-class practice.

Another mismatch was between the teachers' views and actual practices with regard to their students' perceived language proficiency, which was in accordance with other observational studies like those by Baker (2014), Basturkmen (2012), Basturkmen et al. (2004), and Feryok (2008).

In fact, discrepancies between teachers' views and practice of OCF is to be expected to some extent, because correction is not a planned classroom activity, unlike other aspects of instruction that can be prepared in advance and so can be prepared to align with teachers' aspirations for the lesson (Basturkmen, 2012).

6.5 Summary of key findings

The key results of the current study are summarized as follows:

- The observation data showed a limited number of oral errors per class (see Table 5.1), which reflects the impact of more traditional form-focused teaching, which includes placing the teacher as the centre of information, limited involvement from students, a heavy reliance on written texts, and an emphasis on accuracy.

- The ten core Saudi teachers who participated in this study reported some important obstacles that may have resulted in a weak match between their overall views on desirable approaches and aims for language teaching and their practice. These obstacles limited their ability to put their views into practice, such as time-limitations and the grammar-based exam. These obstacles have been observed in other FL contexts (see e.g. Li, 1998).

- Teachers' reported views, according to the questionnaire data, showed embedded recasts with enhanced prompts was their most preferred OCF type. This result matched the observation data in that the majority of corrections were recasts, similar to previous studies that were carried out in more communicative- (i.e., meaning-) focused contexts (see e.g. Al-Faki, 2013; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2014; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothooft, 2014; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008).

- Questionnaire data showed that elicitations with enhanced prompts were rated the second most effective method by teachers; however, this result contradicted the observation data as only few elicitations were used.

- The majority of corrections were followed by students' immediate uptake, and the SR data showed that teachers assumed their students had noticed the majority of their corrections very often based on the fact that the learner had produced uptake. However, the teachers also assumed the pupils had noticed most of their oral corrections (see Table 5.6) regardless of whether or not it was with uptake drawing on other indicators from their classes such as the ease of their OCF for their students (see Table 5.4).

- Unlike in most previous studies which have been meaning-based, where recast was mostly used to maintain the flow of communication and to avoid triggering negative feelings (see e.g. Kamyia, 2014), the current study found recast was mainly used because it was thought to be effective to promote

174

students' learning (see Table 5.3). However, in the current study, recasts were mainly *with* prompts, making them more likely to be recognisable than more implicit types of recasts (without prompts). In addition, the form-focused context probably made it more likely that the recasts would be noticed as OCF.

- Phonological errors were found to be the most targeted type of error and were corrected by recasts. This result contradicted Brown's (2016) meta-analysis study that showed grammatical errors were more targeted in a more form-focused context. However, due to the limited number of more form-focused context studies that have been conducted (only two), it is difficult to draw generalizations.

- The interview and observation data demonstrated that there was some match and some mismatch between teachers' views and their practices. For instance, the observation data showed no relationship between teachers' choice of oral correction and their students' perceived language proficiency, which contradicts teachers' reported views that they thought there was a relationship. However, it could be difficult for teachers to make quick decisions based on, for example, their students' level of language proficiency when providing unplanned aspects of their teaching, such as OCF (Basturkmen, 2012).

The next chapter concludes by further distilling the key results, as well as discussing the limitations of the current study, providing some recommendations for future research and teacher practice.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

The aim of the study was to investigate what types of OCF teachers used, and why, in a relatively neglected context, where English is taught as a FL to young adolescents, using little spontaneous oral interaction and a main emphasis on teaching grammar, translation and accuracy, with a heavy reliance on written texts. The study was necessary as previous studies on OCF have tended to be conducted in more communicative-based contexts involving more meaningful oral interaction, with older learners/adults. Such research had found recast to be the most common form, largely due to that fact that it is thought to reduce interruptions to the flow of communication, even though some evidence has suggested it is not the most effective kind of OCF in terms of being noticed as a correction, promoting uptake, or benefitting longer term learning.

To this end, the study investigated 207 Saudi female teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards OCF in the EFL intermediate and secondary school context in Saudi Arabia, drawing on data from questionnaires, interviews and SR. The study also provided an in-depth exploration of ten teachers' classroom practices with regard to OCF, focusing on the examination of five factors: type of OCF used, students' immediate uptake, teachers' perception of their students' language proficiency, the types of errors made, and the extent of their teaching experience. For each of these factors, the relationship between teachers' perception and their actual practices, particularly with reference to OCF, was explored.

This Conclusion presents the key results, a discussion of the limitations of the current study, and some recommendations for FL teachers' practice and future research in this field.

7.1 General conclusion

This section will present the key findings of the study.

All the data, from interviews, observations, SR sessions and questionnaires, showed that recasts were the most frequently used type of OCF. Even though recast is not

always considered to be the most effective type of OCF, in terms of eliciting uptake from learners or in terms of learning gains on tests administered after an OCF intervention (see e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997), recasts seems to be, nonetheless, the most frequently used OCF, in line with many other language education contexts (Al-Faki, 2013; Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2014; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothooft, 2014; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008).

However, the teachers' reasons for using recasts revealed differences to previous research. Unlike previous studies such as that by, for example, Yoshida (2008), where teachers reported that they used recast mainly to avoid triggering negative feelings and to maintain the flow of communication, the current study showed that the main reason these teachers used recasts was because they felt it to be very effective in helping learning. It seems that recasts could be more beneficial in a more form-focused context, than in contexts that are more oriented towards oral interaction and the communication of meaning, because in form-focused contexts recasts are more likely to be reliably perceived as OCF (rather than as interactional moves or conventions to keep communication going). This idea is corroborated by Kim and Han's (2007) study, where results showed recasts for corrective-purposes in form-focused contexts were more effective, in terms of students' awareness of recast, than recasts used for interactional purposes.

The study revealed important findings about parallels and discrepancies between teachers' views and their actual practices, building on previous studies (e.g., Basturkmen, 2012). For instance, one parallel was that most of the teachers, in the questionnaires and the interviews, stressed the importance of correcting all students' errors and that was in accordance with the ten teachers' behaviour as observed in class (corroborating previous research such as that by Feryok, 2008).

Another important parallel was observed in that most teachers stressed the effectiveness of more explicit types of recasts, and this was in line with what they used in classes, as most of the recasts were recasts *with* prompts such as isolated recast with prompt thus increasing the salience of the correction.

177

An additional parallel was observed between teachers' choices for a particular type of correction for particular types of errors, in that the ten core teacher participants stressed the importance of recasts for correcting their students' phonological errors, which was consistent with the observation that most of the students' pronunciation errors were corrected through recast.

The final key parallel that is worth highlighting is that the majority of the observed recasts were followed by students' uptake (repeating the correct form), which matched teachers' perceptions, as the majority of teachers in the interviews reported that they mainly used recasting because they felt it is effective for learning. This was further corroborated by the SR data where the majority of corrections were assumed by the teachers to have been noticed by the learners (mostly due to the amount of uptake, but also for other reasons such as the teacher believing that the student understood the particular feature being corrected).

Note, however, that the findings about a strong belief in the effectiveness of recasts and the amount of effective uptake observed do not fully correspond with previous findings from studies that were carried out in more communicative contexts. Such studies have often found that recasts were not the most effective method of correction and could be ignored by learners, but were used to promote conversational flow. It has been argued that the reason for this difference in findings with previous research might be the type of context – the overall focus-on-form in the lessons in the current study meant that recasts were likely to be noticed and understood to be a correction.

Some discrepancies were also found between teachers' views and their practices. The key example of this was that the majority of teachers reported that they thought that there was a relation between their choice of OCF and their students' perceived language proficiency, but the observation and SR data did not show such a relation. This could be because it might be difficult for teachers to make a quick decision, during unplanned classroom interaction such as OCF, about which type of correction matches their views about their students' perceived language proficiency.

7.2 Limitations of the study

The focus of the current study inevitably meant that it was not possible to investigate other factors related to OCF. Some of these limitations are now discussed.

The aim of the current study was limited to examining teachers' perceptions, and so students' perceptions were excluded so as to target focus on gaining insight into teachers' view about OCF and to gather a very substantial body of data (100 observations) about their behaviour in class.

Another key limitation of the study is that it did not test the impact (effectiveness) of different types of OCF on students' actual learning. Although it provided evidence about learner uptake, as one indication that OCF is effective, it is hard to draw generalizations based only on students' uptake rates. This is because, as argued by Goo and Mackey (2013), different types of OCF make different requirements in terms of uptake and so uptake cannot necessarily measure learning: in the case of recasts, students' responses are optional; elicitations, on the other hand, prompt learners to respond and so 'force' uptake. To really check about the effectiveness of OCF, data needs to be collected about longer-term learning, which could not be done in the scope of the current study.

A further limitation was that no independent measure of language proficiency was administered, due to practicalities such as time and resource constraints. It had been originally planned that the X-Lex vocabulary test be used as a crude indicator of language proficiency; however, this was omitted to allow more time to focus on the teachers' *perceptions* of their students' proficiency (which was in fact of most interest to investigate teacher's reasons behind OCF) and other aspects of error correction during classroom practice.

One practical challenge, which could have limited the quality of the data, was the audio recording quality, as sometimes it was difficult to identify students' errors when their voices were not clear. However, using the observation checklist helped to minimize this problem.

Student silence is an important issue that needs further investigation. Investigating such silences had to be excluded from the current study because instances of it were not recorded systematically, and because the main focus was on the type of OCF used and the type of student errors. More studies are therefore needed with more structured observations to record the silence.

Another limitation is that most of the errors observed were pronunciation errors, and this could have influenced the type of OCF used (i.e., largely recasts). As the majority of corrections were recasts, with relatively few examples of other types, it is hard to make claims about which type of OCF was systematically more noticed than the others. Similarly, it would be useful to carry out more observations in a wider type of classes, so as to explore whether a wider range of other error types can occur in this context (such as translation errors) and whether this influences the types of OCF used. For example, the observation data suggested that teachers tended to use non-verbal hints with translation activities, which was supported by data from the interviews, as all ten teachers indicated their preference to use non-verbal hints with translation errors but not with grammatical errors.

A final but important limitation was that there were only ten core participants, with different lengths of teaching experience and amount of teacher training workshops: the small number of participants made it difficult to make generalizations linking their practice with their previous experience. For instance, only one attended three teacher training workshops, the majority of participants attended one or two, and three of them did not attend any, so these aspects should be taken into consideration for future studies.

7.3 Contribution to knowledge and recommendations for future research

The current study, combining various quantitative and qualitative methods, made an important contribution to our understanding of FL teachers' perceptions and use of OCF, in the Saudi context and that could be generalised to other similar FL contexts. The study raises important issues about the impact of the nature of the teaching context on the number and type of errors made by students, teachers' motivations for choosing different OCF types, teacher perceptions of whether students noticed when

they were corrected, and the impact of variables such as the length of teachers' experience on their choices of OCF. Understanding these issues can be beneficial to the knowledge of FL teachers' perceptions and practice with regard to OCF in the Saudi context, and other similar FL contexts.

The current study shed light on the impact of more form-focused teaching on OCF behaviour. Such teaching approaches include characteristics such as teacher-centred information, a lack of student involvement, and limited amounts of relatively spontaneous oral interaction. These characteristics could be the main cause of the limited number of errors found per class. Similarly, the emphasis on reading (grammar-related text) out loud, with limited interaction or spontaneous speaking, could be the reason the majority of error types were *phonological*. This research contradicts previous research showing that grammatical errors were the most common in more form-focused contexts (see e.g., Brown, 2016). However, Brown indicated that it was difficult to draw generalizations, since there have been limited studies conducted in more form-focused contexts. Therefore, conducting more studies to add to the results of the present work in more form-based contexts can be helpful to increasing our understanding of the impact of the context on the type of errors and OCF.

The current study also provides important findings about teacher beliefs about OCF. Recasts were the most frequent OCF type, similar to many previous studies from more meaning-oriented contexts (see e.g., Al-Faki, 2013; Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Brown, 2016; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Kamyia, 2014; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Roothooft, 2014; Safari, 2013; Yoshida, 2008). Yet, contrary to findings that recasting is not always the most effective compared to elicitations (see e.g., Ellis, 2007; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Sato, 2010) but is often used to maintain the flow of interaction and creating a comfortable atmosphere (Kamiya, 2016; Roothooft 2014; Yoshida, 2008), teachers in the current study reported using recasts because they see it as being effective for learning, particularly for phonological errors. In this context, recasts tended to be explicit, as they were accompanied by prompts, highlighting an important difference with most of the studies cited above where recasts were more likely to be more implicit.

The current study produced another important finding in that uptake was not the only indicator used by teachers to show them that their students had noticed a correction. For instance, teachers reported that if they felt the correction was clear, such as when recasting phonological errors, they did not need further evidence that the student had noticed. This provides further support (i.e., teacher perception data) for the idea that noticing can take place with or without uptake, in line with findings by Mackey and Philp (1998). The teachers' views that recasts are effective (regardless of whether they are followed by uptake or not) contradicts previous research indicating that recasts are more likely to be perceived as repetition (or as a conversational device) rather than as a correction (see Section 2.5). However, data on *learner* perceptions are needed to support this finding.

The current study showed a general trend of teachers using more recasts when they have less teaching experience and more prompts when they have more teaching experience. However, it is hard to draw such a conclusion based on only ten teachers, and further studies with more teachers with different lengths of teaching experience can give insight into the relationship between the length of experience and teachers' choices of OCF.

In sum, given the small number of teacher participants in the interviews and SR, the low number of errors observed overall, the high proportion of one type of error (pronunciation), the high proportion of just one OCF type (recasts), and the high proportion of one type of teaching activity (reading out loud to practise grammar), more studies are certainly needed to check the findings from the current study. In particular, studies are needed to investigate teachers' behaviour with regard to OCF and to measure the effectiveness of OCFs for learning, whilst also taking into consideration the role of the broader teaching context, such as the tests, curriculum and general teaching aims and approaches.

7.4 Implications for teacher practice

In light of the comprehensive data gathered, including 100 classroom observations with follow-up SR sessions and 207 questionnaires, this study provides insight into

teachers' thinking with regard to their behaviour, in particular their choice of OCF and the factors that influence these choices. It shed light on the generally form-focused teaching context that tends to be adopted in Saudi Arabian secondary schools.

The study's findings could help teachers and policy makers to consider the possible impact of class time-limitations, lack of teacher training, lack of teacher understanding of the nature of genuine 'speaking activities' (rather than reading out loud), the passive role of students in class, and the grammar and accuracy focussed exams. In their totality, these characteristics may explain the low amount of oral interaction observed in classes, which led to a low amount and limited range of spoken error and OCF types. They are also characteristics that some teachers face in other FL contexts, thus the study could have implications beyond the Saudi secondary school context.

The amount and range of oral interaction and, therefore, of beneficial OCF that would accompany this, could perhaps be improved by investigating the effects of changes in policy and practice. These changes could include changing the aim and content of EFL exams to assess all skills equally (i.e. including speaking) and holding training sessions to help teachers reflect on and understand their teaching practices, and in particular unplanned aspects of their teaching such as OCF.

References

Ahangari, S., & Amirzadeh, S. (2011). Teaching Iranian EFL learners at different levels of proficiency. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 29, 1859-1868.

Al-Faki, I. M., & Siddiek, A. G. (2013). Techniques Used by Teachers in Correcting Students' Oral Errors in an Omani Boys School. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 3*(10), 1770-1783.

Alharbi, H. (2015). Improving Students' English Speaking Proficiency in Saudi Public Schools. *International Journal of Instruction*, *8*(1), pp. 105-116.

Al-Sadan, I., A. (2000) Educational assessment of Saudi Arabian Schools, Assessment in Education: Principles, policy, & practice, *7*(1), 143-155.

Al-Seghayer, K. (2005). Teaching English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Slowly but steadily changing, In Braine, G. (Ed.), *Teaching English to the world: History, curriculum, and practice*, (pp. 123-142). New York: Routledge.

Al-Seghayer, K. S. (2014a). The four most common constraints affecting English teaching in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *4*(5), 17-26.

Al-Seghayer, K. S. (2014b). The actuality, inefficiency, and needs of EFL teacher-preparation programs in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 3*(1), 143-151.

Alrashidi, O., & Phan, H. (2015). Education context and English teaching and learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: An overview. *English Language Teaching*, *8*(5), 33-44.

Alshammari, E. (2012). *An investigation into Saudi teachers' perceptions of CLT and students' preferences for teaching practices*, (Unpublished master's thesis).

University of Essex, Colchester.

Al-Surmi, M. (2012). Learners' noticing of recasts of morpho-syntactic errors: Recast types and delayed recognition. *System*, *40*(2), 226-236.

Baker, A. (2014). Exploring teachers' knowledge of second language pronunciation techniques: Teacher cognitions, observed classroom practices, and student perceptions. *TESOL Quarterly*, *48*(1), 136-163.

Basturkmen, H. (2012). Review of research into the correspondence between language teachers' stated beliefs and practices. *System*, *40*(2), 282-295.

Basturkmen, H., Loewen, S., Ellis, R. (2004). Teachers' stated beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics, 25*(2), 243-272.

Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(1), 9-38.

Borg, S. (2011). The impact of in-service teacher education on language teachers' beliefs. *System*, *39*(3), 370-380.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.

Brown, D. (2016). The type and linguistic foci of oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research, 20*(4), 436-458.

Cheng, L. (1999). Changing assessment: Washback on teacher perceptions and actions. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *15*(3), 253-271.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences*, (2nd Ed.). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

David, A. (2008). Vocabulary breadth in French L2 learners. *The Language Learning Journal, 36*(2), 167-180.

DeKeyser, R. (2007) Introduction: Situating the concept of practice. In DeKeyser, R. (Ed.), *Practice in a second language* (pp. 1-18). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. and Taguchi, T. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing*. Oxford: Routledge.

Egi, T. (2007). Interpreting recasts as linguistic evidence: The roles of linguistic target, length, and degree of change. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *29*(04), 511-537.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, *1*(1), 3-18.

Ellis, R., Loewen, S., Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *28*(02), 339-368.

Elyas, T. (2008). The attitude and the impact of American English as a global language within the Saudi education system. *Novitas-ROYAL*, *2*(1), 28-48.

Farrell, T., and Kun, S., (2008). Language policy, language teachers' beliefs, and classroom practices. *Applied Linguistics* 29(3), 381-403.

Faruk, S. (2014). English Textbooks and the Objectives of ELT in Saudi Arabia: Gaps and Rationale. *Scientific Bulletin of the Politehnica University of Timişoara Transactions on Modern Languages*, *13*(1), 47-56.

Faruk, S. (2013). English language teaching in Saudi Arabia: A world system perspective. Scientific Bulletin of the Politehnica University of Timişoara Transactions on Modern Languages, *12*(1-2), 73-80.

Fayyaz, S., and Omar, H. M. (2014). A study of contextual situatedness of English language teachers' beliefs and practices about the form-focused instruction: A case study in Sandakan district, Sabah. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *134*, 201-212.

Feryok, A. (2008). "An Armenian English language teacher's practical theory of communicative language teaching." *System, 36*(2), 227-240.

Field, A., and Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics*. 4th ed. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Gass, S., M., and Mackey, A. (2017). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research* (2ⁿᵈ ed.). New York: Routledge.

Gass, S. M., and Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In Bill, V., and Jessica, W. (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction*, (pp. 175-199). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gass, S., M., and Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Assoc. Pub.

Goo, J. and Mackey, A. (2013). The case against the case against recasts. *Studies in second language acquisition, 35*(1), 127-165.

Gurzynski-Weiss, L., and M. Baralt (2014). Exploring learner perception and use of task-based interactional feedback in FTF and CMC modes. *Studies in second language acquisition, 36*(1), 1-37.

Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Harmer, J. (2003). Popular culture, methods, and context. ELT, 57(3), 288-294.

Kaivanpanah, S., Alavi, S. M., and Sepehrinia, S. (2015). Preferences for interactional feedback: differences between learners and teachers. *The Language Learning Journal, 43*(1), 74-93.

Kamiya, N. (2016). "The relationship between stated beliefs and classroom practices of oral corrective feedback." *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 10*(3), 206-219.

Katayama, A. (2007). Students' perceptions of oral error correction. *Japanese Language and Literature, 41*(1), 61-92.

Kim, J-H., and Han, Z. (2007). Recasts in communicative EFL classes: Do teacher intent and learner interpretation overlap. In Alison, M. (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition*, (pp. 269-297). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lasagabaster, D., and Sierra, J. M. (2005). Error correction: Students' versus teachers' perceptions. *Language Awareness, 14*(2-3), 112-127.

Lee, E. J. (2013). Corrective feedback preferences and learner repair among advanced ESL students. *System, 41*(2), 217-230.

Li, D. (1998) "It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine: Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea," *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(4), 677-703.

Loewen, S., Li, S., Fei, F., Thompson, A., Nakatsukasa, K., Ahn, S., and Chen, X. (2009). Second language learners' beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(1), 91-104.

Loewen, S., and T. Nabei (2007). Measuring the effects of oral corrective feedback on L2 knowledge. In Alison, M. (Ed), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies*, (pp. 361-377). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lyster, R. (1998). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *20*(1), 51-81.

Lyster, R. (1998). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *20*(1), 51-81.

Lyster, R. (2004). Differential effects of prompts and recasts in form-focused instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *26*(3), 399-432.

Lyster, R., and Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *19*(1), 37-66.

Lyster, R., and Ranta, L. (2013). "Counterpoint piece: The case for variety in corrective feedback research." *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 35*(1), 167-184.

Lyster, R., Saito, K., and Sato, M. (2013). "Oral corrective feedback in second language classrooms." *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 1-40.

Lyster, R., & Saito, K. (2010). Oral feedback in classroom SLA. *Studies in Second*

Language Acquisition, *32*(2), 265–302.

Mackey, A. (2012). *Input, interaction, and corrective feedback in L2 learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mackey, A., Al-Khalil, M., Atanassova, G., H., M., and Logan-Terry, A. (2007). Teachers' intentions and learners' perceptions about corrective feedback in the L2 classroom. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *1*(1), 129-152.

Mackey, A., Gass, S., and McDonough, K. (2000). How do learners perceive interactional feedback? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *22*(4), 471-497.

Mackey, A., and Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research, methodology and design*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Mackey, A., & Philp, J. (1998). Conversational Interaction and Second Language Development: Recasts, Responses, and Red Herrings? *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(3), 338-356.

Mattheoudakis, M. (2007). Tracking changes in pre-service EFL teacher beliefs in Greece: A longitudinal study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23*(8), 1272-1288.

Meara, P. (1992). *EFL vocabulary tests*. Wales University, Sawansea Centre for Applied Language Studies: ERIC Document Reproduction Service N. ED.

Milton, J. (2009). *Measuring second language vocabulary acquisition*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Mori, R. (2011). Teacher cognition in corrective feedback in Japan. *System*, *39*(4), 451-467.

Nassaji, H. (2007). Elicitation and reformulation and their relationship with learner repair in dyadic interaction. *Language Learning, 57*(4), 511-548.

Nation, I., and D. Beglar (2007). "A vocabulary size test." *The Language Teacher, 31*(7), 9-13.

Noor, N. M., Aman, I., Mustaffa, R., and Seong, T. K. (2010). Teacher's verbal feedback on students' response: A Malaysian ESL classroom discourse analysis. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 7*, 398-405.

Olson, J. (1981). Teacher influence in the classroom: A context for understanding curriculum translation. *Instructional Science, 10*(3), 259-275.

Panova, I., and Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly, 36*(4), 573-595.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, *29*(2), 177-195.

Pearson, K. (1900). On the criterion that a given system of deviations from the probable in the case of a correlated system of variables is such that it can be reasonably supposed to have arisen from random sampling. *Philosophical Magazine Series*, *50*(302), 157–175.

Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on noticing the gap: Nonnative speakers' noticing of recasts in NS- NNS interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *25*, 99–126.

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). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rassaei, E. (2013). Corrective feedback, learners' perceptions, and second language development. *System, 41*(2), 472-483.

Roberts, M. (1995). Awareness and the efficacy of error correction. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1-63). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Roothooft, H. (2014). The relationship between adult EFL teachers' oral feedback practices and their beliefs. *System, 46*, 65-79.

Roothooft, H., and Breeze, R. (2016). A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback. *Language Awareness*, *25*(4), 318-335.

Safari, P. (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), 1165-1175.

Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission. (2006). *Educational system in Saudi Arabia*. Washington DC, Saudi Cultural Mission. Retrieved September 1, 2018, from: http://www.sacm.org/Publications/58285_Edu_complete.pdf

Sheen, Y. (2004). Corrective feedback and learner uptake in communicative classrooms across instructional settings. *Language Teaching Research*, *8*(3), 263-300.

Stæhr, L. S. (2008). Vocabulary size and the skills of listening, reading and writing. *Language Learning Journal*, *36*(2), 139-152.

Theodrsdttir, G. (2018). L2 teaching in the wild: A closer look at correction and explanation practices in everyday L2 interaction. *The Modern Language Journal, 102*, 30-45.

Yoshida, R. (2008). Teachers' choice and learners' preference of corrective feedback types. *Language Awareness*, *17*(1), 78-93.

Appendices

Appendix A

Consent form for participants translated to Arabic

"

:

.

☞	☞	.
☞	☞	.
☞	☞	.
☞	☞	.
☞	☞	.

_____   _____   _____

Head of school name [printed]   Signature   Date

_____   _____   _____

Researcher   [printed]   Signature   Date

Project contact details for further information:

Researcher's name: Eman Alshammari,   email address: emma501@york.ac.uk

Supervisor's name: Dr. Emma Marsden,   email address: emma.marsden@york.ac.uk

Appendix B

Observation Schedule for the pilot study

1. School name: ……………………………..

2. Teacher name: ……………………………

3. Name/number of students' classes that you teach:

…………………………………………….………………………………...

Source of feedback:	C 1	C 2	C 3	C 4	C 5	C 6	C 7	C 8	C 9	C 10	C 11	C 12	C 13	C 14	C 15	Notes: Other feedback sources
▪ Instructor																
▪ Student																
▪ Other (note at right)																

Type of feedback:																		Notes: Other examples of feedback types
▪ Implicit Recast																		
▪ Explicit Recast:																		
➢ Corrective recast																		
➢ Communicative recast																		
➢ Isolated declarative recast																		
➢ Isolated interrogative recast																		
➢ Incorporated declarative recast																		
➢ Incorporated interrogated recast																		
▪ Metalinguistic explanation																		
▪ Confirmation request																		
▪ Clarification request																		
▪ Repetition																		
▪ Nonverbal cue																		

▪ Other (note at right)																	
Target of feedback																	Notes: Other examples of errors
▪ Content or comprehension																	
▪ Pronunciation																	
▪ Morphology																	
▪ Syntax																	
▪ Translation A-E or E-A																	
▪ Translation E-E																	
▪ Other (note at right)																	

Appendix C

Observation Schedule for the main study

1. School name: …………………………….

2. Teacher name: ……………………………

3. Grade/number of students in the class:
…………………………………….…………………………..

Source of feedback:	C 1	C 2	C 3	C 4	C 5	C 6	C 7	C 8	C 9	C 10	C 11	C 12	C 13	C 14	C 15	Notes: Other feedback sources
▪ Instructor																
▪ Student																
▪ Peer																
▪ Peer+Instructor																
Type of feedback:																Notes: Other examples of feedback types
➢ Isolated recast-prompt																
➢ Isolated recast+ prompt																
➢ Isolated recast+ enhanced prompt																
➢ Embedded recast- prompt																
➢ Embedded recast+ prompt																

➢ Embedded recast+ enhanced prompt																		
➢ Indication of error+ recast																		
➢ Recast+ explanation - +embedded																		
➢ Confirmation request																		
➢ Metalinguistic explanation																		
➢ Repetition- prompt																		
➢ Repetition+ prompt																		
➢ Repetition+ enhanced prompt																		
➢ Nonverbal cue																		
➢ Other (note at right)																		
Target of feedback																		Notes: Other examples of errors
▪ Content or comprehension																		
▪ Pronunciation																		
▪ Morphology																		
▪ Syntax																		

▪ Translation A-E or E-A																		201
▪ Translation E-E																		
▪ Other (note at right)																		
▪ Uptake																		
▪ Full uptake																		
▪ Partial uptake																		
▪ No uptake																		

Appendix D

SR Questions

Instructions:

We are now going to listen to the recordings from the class. I am interested in what you were thinking at the time your students were making errors in their oral utterances and when you were correcting these errors. What I would like you to do is to tell me what you were thinking, what was in your mind at that moment?

You can pause the recorder at any time. If you want to tell me something about what you were thinking, you can press the 'pause' button. If I have a question, I will press 'pause' and ask you to talk about that part of the recording.

- Why did you use this type of correction in this situation?

- Can you remember what you were thinking in this situation?

- Do you think the student noticed your correction in this situation? Why?

- Can you tell me what you thought when the student said that?

 -Why did you ignore the student's error here?

- Can you remember what you were thinking when the student said that/those word(s)?

Appendix E

Interview questions for teachers

Part I: Personal questions:

1. School name: (Please state) ……………………………..

2. Teacher name: (Please state) ……………………………

3. Name/number of students' classes that you teach (Please state)
……………………………………………….…………………………...

Part II: General interview questions:

1. How long have you been teaching?

2. Could you describe the goals and content of the course that you are currently teaching?

3. Have you ever been to an English-speaking country (UK, Canada, USA, Australia, etc.)?

Yes ___ No ___

If yes, Why? ………………… How long have you been there? _____

4. Have you ever been to a country where you spoke English (Japan, Malaysia, Singapore, etc.)? Yes ___ No ___

If yes, how long did you stay there? _____

5. Do you think correcting students' oral errors is useful for your students' learning? Why or why not?

6. How do you think you should correct your students' oral errors (e.g. implicitly or explicitly)? Why?

Implicit correction - such as when you repeat a student's error using the correct utterance without telling her that she made an error. This type of implicit correction is called implicit recasting. For example: S: I goed to the park.

T: I went to the park too yesterday.

However, recast can be used explicitly if you stress the error or raise your intonation, for example, to make it explicit.

For example: T: I goed? The teacher highlights the student's grammatical error by using intonation.

Explicit correction "can involve a direct indication that an utterance is incorrect and/or the use of metalinguistic terminology to indicate the nature of the error" (Loewen, 2012).

For example: T: "Go" is an irregular verb, so do not add "ed" to the verb. You need to use the past tense form "went".

7. How often do you use implicit recasting to correct your students' errors? Why or why not?

8. How often do you use explicit recasting to correct your students' errors? Why or why not?

9. How effective do you think implicit and explicit recasts are?

10. What types of feedback do you think are effective? Could you explain?

11. Do you adapt your feedback according to the type of oral error that a student makes? Could you explain?

12. Do you think you need to adapt your feedback according to your students' differing levels of language proficiency and age? (if yes, can you explain how?)

13. Do you think you need to adapt your feedback according to the type of language being corrected? (if yes, can you explain how?).

14. Have you attended any workshops or sessions related to error correction?

14 a. If yes, how many? How effective did you find them?

14 b. If no, why? Do you think you need to attend teacher-training sessions on oral error correction? Do you think they are effective?

Appendix F

Questionnaire for Teachers (Pilot study)

The purpose of this study is to investigate teachers' and students' opinions about interaction. I would very much appreciate your participation by filling in this questionnaire, which should take you approximately twenty minutes to complete. This research aims to improve teaching methods in Saudi English classes. Thank you.

Part 1 – Personal information:

1. School name: (Please state) ……………………………..

2. Teacher name: (Please state) ……………………………

3. Name/number/level of students' classes that you teach (Please state)
………………………………………….…………………………..

Please tick the information that applies to you. Make sure you mark only one.
4. Age: 21-29 ( ), 30-39 ( ), 40-49 ( ), 50-59 ( ), 60 or over ( ).

5. How long have you been a teacher of English? (Please state)

……………………………………………………………………………

Part 2 – Main questions:

Please tick the information that applies to you. Make sure you mark only one.

1. My students' spoken errors should be corrected.
A) Strongly agree ( ).
B) Agree ( ).
C) Disagree ( ).
D) Strongly disagree ( ).

E) I do not know (   ).

2. How often do you give corrective feedback on your students' spoken errors?

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

※My students' spoken errors should be treated at the following time.

3. As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts the student's speaking (   ).

A) Strongly agree (   ).

B) Agree (   ).

C) Disagree (   ).

D) Strongly disagree (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

4. After the student finishes speaking (   ).

A) Strongly agree (   ).

B) Agree (   ).

C) Disagree (   ).

D) Strongly disagree (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

5. After the activities (   ).

A) Strongly agree (   ).

B) Agree (   ).

C) Disagree (   ).

D) Strongly disagree (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

6. At the end of class (   ).

A) Strongly agree (   ).

B) Agree (   ).

C) Disagree (   ).

D) Strongly disagree (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

※How often do you treat each of the following types of errors in your oral communication classes?

7. Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

8. Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

9. Frequent spoken errors.

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

10. Infrequent spoken errors.

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

11. Individual errors made by only one student.

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

※How do you rate each type of spoken error correction below?

Teacher: Where did you go yesterday?

Student: I **go** to the park.

12. Could you say that again?

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

13. I go? (Repetition: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice.)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

14. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

15. Yesterday, I.....(Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

16. I went. (Recast: The teacher corrected the erroneous production without repeating the whole sentence and without pointing out the mistake).

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

17. I went? (Recast: The teacher corrected the erroneous production with extra emphasis to prompt learners to reply to the correction).

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

18. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not give corrective feedback on the student's errors.)
A) Very effective ( ).
B) Effective ( ).
C) Ineffective ( ).
D) Very ineffective ( ).
E) I do not know ( ).

19. You went to the park? (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form with extra emphasis to prompt students to reply).

A) Very effective ( ).
B) Effective ( ).
C) Ineffective ( ).
D) Very ineffective ( ).
E) I do not know ( ).

20. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)
A) Very effective ( ).
B) Effective ( ).
C) Ineffective ( ).
D) Very ineffective ( ).
E) I do not know ( ).

21. Ok you went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error).
A) Very effective ( ).
B) Effective ( ).
C) Ineffective ( ).
D) Very ineffective ( ).
E) I do not know ( ).

※Can you choose one of the following persons to correct your students' spoken errors according to your preferences? (Tick one please).

22. Classmates (   ).

A) Strongly agree (   ).

B) Agree (   ).

C) Disagree (   ).

D) Strongly disagree (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

23. Teachers (   ).

A) Strongly agree (   ).

B) Agree (   ).

C) Disagree (   ).

D) Strongly disagree (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

24. Students themselves (   ).

A) Strongly agree (   ).

B) Agree (   ).

C) Disagree (   ).

D) Strongly disagree (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

Appendix G

**Questionnaire for teachers with short video-clips inserted via Qualtrics
(for the main study)**

The purpose of this study is to investigate teachers' and students' opinions about interaction. I would very much appreciate your participation by filling in this questionnaire, which should take you approximately twenty minutes to complete. This research aims to improve teaching methods in Saudi English classes. (Notice any correction refers to any treatment of students' errors either by giving hints, correcting without pointing out the error to the students, or/and correction with explanation. These are all different types of corrections, and when the questionnaire asks about oral correction in general this means any type of oral corrective feedback) Thank you.

Part 1 – Personal information:

Please choose your current students year of study: (You can tick more than one answer)

    1. Grade level for your students:

7th ( ), 8th ( ), 9th ( ), 10th ( ), 11th ( ), 12th ( ).

    2. Average number of students in each class: (Tick one answer please)

| 1) ( ) 1 to 10 students. |
| 2) ( ) 11 to 21 students. |
| 3) ( ) 22 to 32 students. |
| 4) ( ) 33 or more students. |

    3. Your age: (Tick one answer please)

| 1) ( ) 21 to 30. |
| 2) ( ) 31 to 40. |
| 3) ( ) 41 to 50. |

4) ( ) 51 or more.

4. How long have you been a teacher of English? (Tick one answer please)

1) ( ) Less than 1 year.

2) ( ) 1 to 5 years.

3) ( ) 6 to 10 years.

4) ( ) 11 to 16 years.

5) ( ) 17 to 22 years.

6) ( ) More than 23 years.

Part 2 – Main questions:

Please tick the information that applies to you. Make sure you mark only one.

5. My students' spoken errors should be corrected.

A) Strongly agree ( ).

B) Agree ( ).

C) Disagree ( ).

D) Strongly disagree ( ).

E) I do not know ( ).

6. How often do you give corrective feedback on your students' spoken errors?

A) Always 100% ( ).

B) Usually 80% ( ).

C) Sometimes 50% ( ).

D) Occasionally 20% ( ).

E) Never 0% ( ).

※My students' spoken errors should be treated at the following time. Rank the following times for corrections in order of preferences from 1 to 4. Notice that 1 represents the most preferred time and 4 represents the least preferred one.

7. As soon as errors are made even if it interrupts the student's speaking ( ).

8. After the student finishes speaking ( ).

9. After the activities ( ).

10. At the end of class ( ).

※How often do you treat each of the following types of errors in your oral communication classes?

11. Serious spoken errors that cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.
A) Always 100% ( ).
B) Usually 80% ( ).
C) Sometimes 50% ( ).
D) Occasionally 20% ( ).
E) Never 0% ( ).

12. Less serious spoken errors that do not cause a listener to have difficulty understanding the meaning of what is being said.
A) Always 100% ( ).
B) Usually 80% ( ).
C) Sometimes 50% ( ).
D) Occasionally 20% ( ).
E) Never 0% ( ).

13. Frequent spoken errors.
A) Always 100% ( ).
B) Usually 80% ( ).
C) Sometimes 50% ( ).
D) Occasionally 20% ( ).
E) Never 0% ( ).

14. Infrequent spoken errors.

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

15. Individual errors made by only one student.

A) Always 100% (   ).

B) Usually 80% (   ).

C) Sometimes 50% (   ).

D) Occasionally 20% (   ).

E) Never 0% (   ).

※How do you rate each type of spoken error correction below? (Notice: Watch the inserted video for each OCF type).

Teacher: Where did you go yesterday?

Student: I **go** to the park.

16. Are you sure? Yesterday, I..... (Elicitation with enhanced prompt: The teacher prompts the student to correct and complete the sentence by using her/his intonation with extra prompt.) (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

17. Yesterday, I..... (Elicitation with prompt: The teacher prompts the student to correct and complete the sentence by using her/his intonation.) (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

18. GOED! Are you sure? (Repetition with enhanced prompt: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice with prompt). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

19. GOED? (Repetition with prompt: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing his/her tone of voice). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

20. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher gives a technical linguistic information or clues about the error without giving the correct form) (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

21. Could you say that again (Clarification request)? (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective ( ).

B) Effective ( ).

C) Ineffective ( ).

D) Very ineffective ( ).

E) I do not know ( ).

22. The teacher shoed facial expression to indicate that an error committed (Non-verbal hints). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective ( ).

B) Effective ( ).

C) Ineffective ( ).

D) Very ineffective ( ).

E) I do not know ( ).

23. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback with explanation: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with indication an error committed and explanation). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective ( ).

B) Effective ( ).

C) Ineffective ( ).

D) Very ineffective ( ).

E) I do not know ( ).

24. Not goed "went". (Indication an error committed with recast/+-embedding: The teacher repeats the student's whole/partial utterance in the correct form with pointing out the student's error). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective ( ).

B) Effective ( ).

C) Ineffective ( ).

D) Very ineffective ( ).

E) I do not know ( ).

25. You mean WENT? (Isolated recast with enhanced prompt: The teacher corrected the erroneous production only with emphasis on the error and prompt). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

26. WENT? (Isolated recast with prompt: The teacher corrected the erroneous production only with emphasis on the error). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

27. Went. (Isolated recast without prompt: The teacher corrected the erroneous production without repeating the whole sentence and without pointing out the mistake with any verbal or non-verbal prompts). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

28. You WENT to the park. (Embedded recast with prompt: The teacher repeats the whole student's utterance in the correct form with emphasis on the error). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).

B) Effective (   ).

C) Ineffective (   ).

D) Very ineffective (   ).

E) I do not know (   ).

29. You mean, you WENT to the park. (Embedded recast with prompt: The teacher repeats the whole student's utterance in the correct form with emphasis on the error and prompt). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).
B) Effective (   ).
C) Ineffective (   ).
D) Very ineffective (   ).
E) I do not know (   ).

30. You went to the park. (Embedded recast without prompt: The teacher repeats the whole student's utterance in the correct form without emphasis on the error). (video-clip is inserted)

A) Very effective (   ).
B) Effective (   ).
C) Ineffective (   ).
D) Very ineffective (   ).
E) I do not know (   ).

※How do you rank the following persons to correct your students' spoken errors? Rank the following persons in order of preferences from 1 to 3. Notice that 1 represents the most preferred person and 3 the least preferred person.

31. Classmates (   ).

32. Teachers (   ).

33. Students themselves (   ).

34. Please list any suggestions with regard to the study (optional)?

....

....

....

....

....

Appendix H

Students' questionnaire translated into Arabic (for the pilot study)

.

*

*

....

.

*

*

*

"**Teacher:** Where did you go yesterday?

Student: I **go** to the park."

14. I go? (Repetition: The teacher highlights the student's grammatical error by using intonation).

)

15. I went there yesterday, too. (Implicit feedback: The teacher does not directly point out the student's error but indirectly corrects it).

)

16. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation).

)

17. Yesterday, I..... (Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence).

)

20. I <u>went</u> to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form and highliting the corrected word).

)

18. Really? What did you do there? (No corrective feedback: The teacher does not
)

19. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake).

)

20. I went to the park. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error).

)

Appendix I

"Vocabulary test used in the pilot study"

Some studies have been conducted to evaluate how efficient the vocabulary test is, as an indicator of an individual's language proficiency level, as well as determining to what extent this test can be successful in measuring language ability. An example of this is a study by Stæhr (2008), whose aim was to investigate the relationship between vocabulary size and the listening, reading, and writing abilities of EFL learners. The participants were 88 ninth grade students from Denmark, who had been learning English for about seven years and came from 6 different schools. The results showed that there was a strong correlation between students' language skills - their reading skills in particular - and the size of their vocabulary. This indicated that the vocabulary test was an accurate measure of language proficiency. Stæhr (2008) further argued that the main reason for this strong relationship between learners' reading skills and the size of their vocabulary was because, if they scored highly in the vocabulary test, then it would be more likely that they understood many of the items that appeared in the reading text itself.

Furthermore, a study by David (2008) on first year undergraduate learners of French as a FL, up until their final year of university, was designed to gain insight into how their vocabulary improved during that time. Learners took the X-Lex vocabulary test to assess the breadth of their vocabulary knowledge. The results showed that students' vocabulary size increased during their period of study and a clear improvement was observed as they progressed from the first grade to the last year of university as graduate students. However, with regard to the current study, the X-Lex proficiency test indicator was removed from the main study, and the influence of students' language proficiency on teachers' choices of OCF was examined purely based on teachers' own perceptions of their students' language level.