

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

**EFL INSTRUCTORS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES ABOUT ORAL
CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK**

Bilge Merve ŞENER

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2019

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MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA / 2019

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ÖZET

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETEN ÖĞRETİM ELEMENLARININ SÖZLÜ GERİ BİLDİRİM HAKKINDAKİ İNANISLARI VE UYGULAMALARI

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Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İngilizce Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Neşe CABAROĞLU

Kasım 2019, 97 sayfa

Günümüzde öğretmenler, dil öğretim araştırmalarının ve teorilerinin önerdiklerini uygulayan bireylerden ziyade, kendine özgü öğretim yöntemleri olan aktif karar mekanizmaları olarak görülmektedir. Birçok araştırma, öğretmenlerin uygulamalarını yürütürken inançlarından etkilendiklerini iddia etmiştir (Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1992). Fakat bu düşünce son yirmi yılda değişmiş ve öğretmen inanç ve uygulamaları arasında bazı uyumsuzluklar olabileceği öne sürülmüştür (Baştürkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004).

Bu araştırma, İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğreten üç öğretim elemanının sözlü geri bildirim kullanımı hakkında inanç ve uygulamaları arasındaki uyumsuzluğun sebeplerini araştıran nitel bir örnek olay çalışmasıdır. Bir devlet üniversitesinin Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu'nda çalışan üç öğretim elemanı, sözlü geri bildirim hakkındaki inançları alınmak üzere yarı-yapılandırılmış ders öncesi görüşmeler için seçilmiştir. Görüşmelerde öğretmenlere en sık kullandıkları ve olumlu etkisine en çok inandıkları sözlü geri bildirim türleri, tercih ettikleri sözlü geri bildirim zamanı ve öğrenciyi düzeltmekten kaçındıkları durumlar üzerine sorular sorulmuştur. Öğretmenlerin sözlü geri bildirim uygulamalarını gözlemlemek için her bir öğretmen için dörder saatlik dersler video kamera ile kaydedilmiştir. Sonrasında inançlarına ters düşen uygulamalarını belirlemek için öğretim görevlileriyle hatırlatıcı görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Görüşmeler içerik analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Araştırma sonuçları göstermiştir ki öğretim elemanlarının sözlü geri bildirim hakkındaki inanç ve uygulamaları arasında uyumsuzluklar vardır. Bu araştırma, öğretim elemanlarının sözlü geri bildirim kararlarını ve uygulamalarını değerlendirmesi gerektiğini ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Sözlü Geri Bildirim, İnançlar, Sınıf-içi Uygulamalar, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğreten Öğretim Görevlileri

ABSTRACT**EFL INSTRUCTORS' BELIEFS AND PRACTICES ABOUT ORAL
CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK****Bilge Merve ŞENER****Master Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching****Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Neşe CABAROĞLU****November 2019, 97 Pages**

Until recently, teachers have been viewed as active decision-makers who have their own unique teaching styles rather than individuals who implement what is suggested by language teaching researchers and theories. A number of studies claim that teachers are affected by their beliefs during implementations of their practices (Pajares, 1992; Johnson, 1992). However, this view has been challenged over the last two decades and researchers suggest that there can be mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices (Baştürkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004).

This study reports on a qualitative case study which aimed to identify the reasons for mismatches (if any) between three EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructors' beliefs and practices with respect to their OCF (Oral Corrective Feedback) use. Three EFL instructors working at the School of Foreign Languages in a state university were selected to identify their beliefs about OCF through pre-lesson semi-structured interviews. The questions were about the OCF types that they most frequently used and believed remarkably effective, their preferred timing of OCF and avoidance of OCF. Four hours of video-recording of their lessons were made to observe their OCF practices, followed by semi-structured Stimulated Recall Interviews to justify (in)consistency between beliefs and actual classroom practices. The interviews were subjected to content analysis. The findings of the study revealed that there were discrepancies between instructors' beliefs and practices concerning OCF. The study recommended that instructors evaluate their own OCF decisions and practices.

Keywords: Oral Corrective Feedback, Beliefs, In-class Practices. EFL Instructors

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Bilge Merve ŞENER

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

OCF: Oral Corrective Feedback

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SRI: Stimulated Recall Interview



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

In this chapter, background of the study, problem statement, purpose and significance of the study, limitations and key terms are introduced.

1.1. Background to the Study

Teaching a foreign language is a challenging task during which language teachers need to consider cognitive, psychological and social dimensions of teaching. It is also fundamental for teachers to make appropriate plans and set goals to help students achieve the desired language proficiency. Such a kind of multifaceted task requires language teachers to make pertinent decisions in particular situations to accomplish these goals. One of the important decisions teachers make is providing feedback on learners' errors (oral corrective feedback), which has been a highly researched topic in different settings. Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF) is defined briefly as teachers' reactions to learners' incorrect productions (Ellis, 2006). It has come up with under different terms across various disciplines in language teaching research: negative evidence by linguists, repair by discourse analysts, negative feedback by psychologists, corrective feedback by second language teachers and focus on form in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). As well as being researchable, investigation of corrective feedback both provides theoretical frames to SLA researchers and suggests pedagogical concerns for language teachers (Ellis, 2010) to which the reason for increase in corrective feedback studies can be traced. Basically, the source of discussions on error treatments (i.e. corrective feedback practices) can be attributed to the review by Hendrickson (1978). The questions in the review constructed a standpoint for future studies. He proposed the following questions:

- “Should learners’ errors be corrected?
- Which errors should be corrected?
- When should learners’ errors be corrected?
- How should errors be corrected?

- Who should do the correcting?” (as cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.38)

No clear consensus has been reached on any of those questions despite the fact that numerous studies have been devoted in relation to each inquiry. Some of the researchers advocated the unnecessary of corrections in language development. One of the prominent scholars in this area, Krashen (1982) for example, asserted that giving correction was not necessary and had no positive contribution to language acquisition. He also added that correcting students' errors could discourage learners to use complex constructions because of the fear that students could make mistakes. Additionally, Truscott (1999) (for written correction) subscribed to Krashen, claiming the ineffectiveness of corrections and their potentially harmful effects on students. In a quasi-experimental study, DeKeyser (1993) found no significant differences in terms of language proficiency levels of the two groups, one of which was exposed to regular error correction. There are also contradictory studies that support the effectiveness and necessity of corrections (e.g. Russell & Spada, 2006; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Li, 2010). With respect to the correction types teachers employed, Lyster and Ranta's study (1997) was acknowledged as a prominent work, inspiring other researches in this field. Their categorization of corrective discourse provided a model for the subsequent studies to discuss their relative effectiveness for language development.

As for the timing of corrections, teachers have two options available: to correct their students immediately without allowing them to complete their statements, and to make corrections in a more delayed manner, waiting for students to finish their words or delaying correction to a later lesson (Ellis, 2009). No study has supported the superiority of correcting the errors immediately over delaying correction and vice-versa. However, Ellis (2013) suggests that delaying correction during fluency-based activities can eliminate the possibility of breaking the flow of communication. Accordingly teachers need to consider some factors while deciding on their OCF instructions.

While making decisions in the classroom, teachers are influenced by their beliefs (Borg, 2003). Beliefs are assumptions which give clues about teachers' mental pictures (Pajares, 1992; Golombek, 1998). As a central issue of this study, teacher beliefs have gained significant importance in many language teaching studies (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001; Borg, 1998, 2003). Additionally, it is a widely acknowledged view that there is a relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices (Borg, 2003;

Pajares, 1992). The central role beliefs play on teachers' practices has been clearly evidenced in many studies (Breen et al., 2001; Richards, 1996; Johnson, 1992). Furthermore, beliefs and practices are reported to be mutually interactive (Phipps & Borg, 2009). It can be interpreted that beliefs can guide or bring about a shift in practices while practices are, in turn, likely to have the same effect on beliefs. However, the influence of beliefs on teacher behaviour does not always manifest itself. The reviewed literature contains both studies advocating consistencies (e.g. Jensen, 2002; Vicente & Rasoamalala, 2009; Kamiya, 2016) and inconsistencies between belief and practice (e.g. Ng & Farrell, 2003; Yoshida, 2008, 2010; Dilans, 2016; Roothoof, 2014; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Baştürkmen et al., 2004).

1.2. Problem Statement

With the advance of technology and globalization, oral communication in a foreign language has gained prominence over communication through written texts. This has caused a shift in traditional language teaching (grammar teaching) and instead, communicativeness and interaction in classroom have been emphasized over structural teaching of language. Along with this, oral correction came to stage during the 1970s, and accompanied with many controversies. Since then, oral correction has been investigated under cognitive and social perspectives with various aims: providing teachers a guide for their correctional practices and making a contribution to research about how language is acquired.

One of the early studies on how teachers corrected their students was conducted by Chaudron (1977). In his subsequent study, he (1986) defined oral corrective feedback as “any reaction of the teacher, which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance” (p. 51). It was also simply defined as teachers' reactions to learners' erroneous utterances (Ellis, 2006). Arguments regarding corrective feedback have been grounded on the aspects of its contribution to SLA (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, 2013), type of errors to correct (Russell & Spada, 2006), the most effective types of correction (Mackey & Goo 2007; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lee, 2013; Ammar & Spada, 2006), and timing of correction (Li, Zhu & Ellis, 2016). Controversial findings have been presented for each aspect, precluding researchers from gaining definite and conclusive results. For that reason, it is definitely the teacher in charge who possess his/her own way of practice, make individual decisions and put to

use correction types in different teaching contexts and levels. During the decision process, they are influenced by different mechanisms, one of which is thought to be their beliefs. Teacher beliefs refer to assumptions teachers make about the students, classroom and materials (Kagan, 1992). Previous studies showed that teachers' beliefs had a great impact on teachers' practices (e.g. Breen et al., 2001; Johnson, 1992; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Golombek, 1998; Borg, 2003; Farrell & Kun, 2008). Mori (2011) reported that teachers' knowledge and beliefs about learners, teaching contexts, and about teaching and learning processes gained through their previous experiences as learners, student teachers, and professionals influence the way they teach. Additionally, Borg (2003) asserted that "teachers are active decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalized and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs" (p. 81). Despite their substantial role in practices, it is not necessarily the case that all beliefs are reflected on teachers' practices (Pajares, 1992). Furthermore, some beliefs can contradict to some extent with the practices in classroom (Baştürkmen et al., 2004), which needs further exploration for scientific foundation. Baştürkmen et al. reported that it was wrong to expect a complete match or a mismatch between belief and practice and it was natural to see some inconsistencies. However, there is not much research on the reasons for inconsistency between belief and practice regarding EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructors' use of OCF (Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Mori, 2011; Roothoof, 2014; Kamiya, 2016). More studies need to be conducted to find the reasons for inconsistency between teachers' beliefs and practices (Baştürkmen, 2012). Additionally, in relation to the inconsistency between belief and practice, despite the abundance of EFL settings in the world, nearly all of the available studies have been conducted in ESL (English as a Second Language) settings (e.g. Baştürkmen, et al., 2004; Kamiya, 2016; Mori, 2011). In the Turkish EFL setting, some studies focused on corrective feedback preferences of teachers and students (e.g. Kul, 1992; Tatlıoğlu, 1994; Ustacı & Ok, 2014; Ölmezer-Öztürk & Öztürk, 2016; Uyaniker, 2018) and some investigated the effects and roles of different types of corrections (Büyükbay & Dabaghi, 2010; Uysal, 2010; Elgün-Gündüz, Akcan & Bayyurt, 2012). More recently, Demir and Özmen (2017) attempted to find the differences between native and non-native EFL teachers' OCF practices. However, to the knowledge of the researcher, there has been almost no study seeking the reasons for mismatches between beliefs and actual practices in the Turkish EFL setting (with the exception of Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019 and Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Motivated by this scarcity in the literature, this study attempts to find reasons for mismatch (if any) between beliefs and actual classroom practices of Turkish EFL instructors' OCF use.

1.3. Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The present study focuses on EFL instructors' beliefs and their classroom practices related to OCF. EFL instructors do hold beliefs about OCF, but it is essential to put these beliefs into practice in a real classroom environment. Yet, teachers' (i.e. instructors' in the present study) beliefs do not always match with their classroom practices (Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Farrell & Bennis, 2013). It is necessary to determine why. With these in mind, the study aims to find out whether there are mismatches between EFL instructors' beliefs and their classroom practices in relation to OCF. It is also of interest to find out how those instructors account for the mismatches (if any) between their beliefs and classroom practices. The study focuses on instructors' beliefs about OCF usage, preferred OCF types, preferred timing of OCF, and reasons for avoidance of correction. In line with these, the study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the EFL instructors' beliefs about OCF?
2. What are the actual classroom practices of the EFL instructors' OCF use?
3. Do their beliefs and actual practices of OCF match?
 - If not, how do they explain this mismatch?

1.4. Significance of the Study

The present study attempts to find the reasons for mismatches (if any) between instructors' beliefs and their classroom practices regarding their OCF usage by employing pre-lesson semi-structured interview, video-recordings and semi-structured Stimulated Recall Interview (SRI). In relation to OCF research, most of the available studies revolve around whether, how and when to provide OCF for a more successful language teaching (Ellis, 2013), but what language teachers actually do concerning OCF can enable us to view OCF from teachers' viewpoint. In addition to this, investigating OCF in a real classroom environment may show language teachers to what extent SLA research is applicable in real classroom environment. Accordingly investigating OCF from teachers'

perspectives can make a contribution to the studies which seek the discrepancies and the reasons for these discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices.

There is bulk of research focusing on teacher beliefs (Pajares, 1992; Borg, 2003; Johnson, 1992). Three common assumptions underlie the studies on teacher beliefs in educational research. First, teacher beliefs have a strong effect on perceptions and judgements (Fang, 1996; Pajares, 1992), second, teacher beliefs have an important role in how professional knowledge is transformed into practice (Kagan, 1992) and last, understanding teacher beliefs is of significance to bring on teacher practices and teacher training programs (Johnson, 1992). Additionally, Mori (2011) claimed that teacher beliefs are essentially important as they are strong enough to allow changes to occur in both the current teaching and future teacher training programs. Similarly, Liao (2007) stated that investigating teachers' beliefs may help researchers and teacher trainers improve the current teacher education programs. In addition to this, examining how teachers correct their students assists researchers to view OCF from different perspectives, and thus provides powerful insights for an elaborate understanding of corrective feedback practice (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Researchers perceive teacher practices as a great area of inquiry to provide empirical evidence for second language acquisition, and to inform teachers about language teaching pedagogy (Ellis, 2013).

It is hoped that as a result of this study, instructors will become more aware of the feedback provided, which helps them select the most appropriate correction time and types for different errors and students, encouraging language learning. Additionally, the instructors will have a chance to do self-reflection over their correction practices through SRI, which is likely to bring about pedagogical or linguistic novelties in their corrective intentions. Furthermore, the instructors can give more attention to the subject of OCF to develop themselves in their professions.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

As this is a case study, it makes it difficult to generalize its findings to larger contexts. That is why findings are pertinent to the specified setting and participants. As a second limitation, instructors and researcher's timetables limited the observation time to four hours. More than four hours of observation for each class could have yielded more conclusive and tangible results. Thirdly, there were two different student groups who were studying at the preparatory classrooms in the School of Foreign Languages (i.e.

English Language and Literature (ELL) and Mechanical Engineering (ME) students). One of the observed instructors was teaching ME classroom, which might have affected her OCF instructions. Another limitation is that the researcher's prior familiarity with the participants may have caused her to have bias towards them. Finally, instructors' paralinguistic signals were not taken into consideration.

1.6. Definitions / Key Terms

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): Teaching English in an environment where students do not need to depend on English language to survive.

English as a Second Language (ESL): Teaching English in an environment where students are given opportunities to use the language other than course time.

Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF): Teachers' oral reactions to students' incorrect productions (Ellis, 2006).

Beliefs: Teachers' personal assumptions which are dependent on ideas, thoughts and knowledge gained from evaluation of "what should be done, should be the case and is preferable" (Baştürkmen et al., 2004, p.244).

Second Language Acquisition (SLA): a research area where researchers are interested in how language is acquired.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

This chapter first introduces the theoretical frame on which this study is based. Then, it covers a brief history of OCF, along with a focus on avoidance of corrective feedback, and types of corrections (i.e. reformulations, prompts, immediate and delayed corrections). Lastly, the studies focusing on match, mismatch and the reasons for mismatches between beliefs and practices are presented, which is considered to be the backbone of this study.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

2.1.1. Teacher Beliefs

Beliefs are “suppositions, commitments and ideologies” (Calderhead, 1996; p.715), which we hold to be true. Because of the complex nature of beliefs and its investigation in different areas, various definitions have been exerted on it. A more detailed description of beliefs refers to “a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action” (Harvey, 1986; p.660, as cited in Cabaroğlu & Roberts, 2000). Richards (1996) claimed that beliefs are reflections of individual philosophies of teaching. Kagan (1992) asserted that teacher beliefs are presuppositions teachers hold about students, classrooms and academic material. Within the frame of the present study, teachers’ beliefs are defined as the individual assumptions teachers make about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are conveyed as “evaluations of what ‘should be done’, ‘should be the case’ and ‘is preferable’” (Baştürkmen et al., 2004, p. 244).

In the past, teachers were perceived to be doers of what research suggested for language teaching, but now they are acknowledged as active instructors implementing their own teaching methods (Borg, 2003). Borg also claims that teachers make instructional decisions reflecting on what they think, know and believe. This acceptance guided researchers to investigate how teachers individually perceive and employ those suggested teaching methods. Therefore, what teachers believe has received considerable

attention in the last decade. The importance given to teacher beliefs underlies three assumptions. First, teacher beliefs have a strong effect on perceptions and judgements (Fang, 1996). It is asserted that beliefs have an influence on how teachers perceive, think and evaluate the students, classroom, materials and themselves (Pajares, 1992). Second, beliefs have an important role in how knowledge is transformed into practice (Kagan, 1992). It means that they are important factors affecting the process of learning how to teach. Last, understanding teacher beliefs is of significance to provide some opportunities to evaluate the current teacher education programs and to develop a new curriculum that aims to provide teacher with the required knowledge, skill and confidence (Johnson, 1994). In addition to the significance of understanding teacher beliefs, it is also essential to identify where these beliefs come from. The following section presents sources of these beliefs teachers applied to during their language teaching.

2.1.2. Sources of Teacher Beliefs

Beliefs are reported to be sourced by a variety of elements such as, teachers' already established practice, teachers' personality, institutional preferences and research-based or educationally-based principles (Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Lortie (1975) claims that teachers' experiences they got when they were language learners may have remarkable effects on their beliefs. The source of teacher beliefs can also be attributed to their teaching experiences, their pedagogical and linguistic knowledge and the materials used (Borg, 2003). Johnson (1994) states that teachers' learning experience, pre-service education and their teaching context are sources of their beliefs. Similarly, Cabaroğlu (1999) asserts that before coming teacher training programs, student teachers hold a number of established beliefs obtained from a variety of sources, such as self-preferences, learning experiences, experience of work in education, reflection, reading and previous courses taken, and observation. Cabaroğlu (1999) further explains that these beliefs function as screens to interpret the content of the available program, observation of classrooms and transformation of this program into teaching and learning activities.

Teachers who were exposed to excessive explicit corrections during their language learning may choose to correct their students in a more implicit way (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Furthermore, teachers' teaching experiences may shape their practices guiding

teachers to apply certain kind of strategies that are experienced to be more practical and beneficial in their teaching context (Farrell & Lim, 2005). A principle or belief that was reported to have a positive influence on language learning may come out not to be effective in practice through experience based on teachers' observing their own teaching and their students learning (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Additionally, Sato and Kleinsasser (2004) worked with 19 Japanese (high school) English teachers and found that teachers' beliefs were led by context, school culture and values. Teacher personality can also be a significant factor affecting their beliefs as teachers have a tendency to prefer the type of tasks or activities that match their personality best. They also would like to try a new teaching approach that they learned in a research paper. In other words, teachers draw on those mentioned elements to construct their beliefs which are significant factors influencing their in-class decisions and practices.

2.1.3. Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

We conducted this study within the framework of Constructivism. Constructivism argues that people construct their own way of understanding and knowledge of the world building on the existing beliefs and assumptions through interaction with the environment and reflecting on the events they have experienced (Richardson, 1997). Constructivist theory of teacher development views the construction of personal theories of teaching as a primary task for teachers. As cited in Cabaroğlu (1999), each teacher is a "constructivist who continually builds, elaborates and tests his or her personal theory of the world" (p.21). It can be interpreted that teachers individually are in a never ending process in which they are making evaluations of their in-class decisions and practices which are dependent on their experiences.

Clark and Peterson (1986) state that teacher beliefs are important elements of prior knowledge "through which teachers perceive, process, and act upon information in the classroom" (p.83). Additionally, Shavelson and Stern (1981) note that what teachers believe influences teachers' in-class decisions and pedagogical practices. Hampton (1994) states that teachers' personal beliefs drive the way they approach teaching. It is also reported that teachers hold some beliefs which have impacts on their perceptions, judgments, and thus their behaviours (Pajares, 1992). Additionally, Phipps and Borg (2009) assert that beliefs and practices are bi-directionally interactive, which means that beliefs drive action; however, experience and reflection on action may lead to change in

beliefs. This symbiotic relationship has also been clearly suggested in many other studies (e.g. Borg, 2003; Johnson, 1992; Breen et al., 2001). In line with this view, Johnson (1992) found clear correspondences between beliefs and practices of teachers during literacy education. However, there were previous studies claiming that the correspondence between beliefs and practices did not always manifest itself. For instance, Pajares (1992) claimed that beliefs are not always trustable to be reflected on behaviour, implying the probable inconsistency between belief and practice. What is more, some beliefs reflected contradictorily on practices (Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Baştürkmen, 2012; Yoshida, 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005), the reason of which needs to be further explored. Baştürkmen et al. (2004) noted that it was not correct to state a full convergence or divergence between belief and practice as some degree of inconsistency was normal and coexistence of consistency and inconsistency was something expected in classroom environment. Baştürkmen (2012) asserted that belief and practice relations should be investigated especially from the perspective of unplanned elements of teaching with experienced teachers.

2.2. Corrective Discourse Model

Corrective feedback is defined as “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (Ellis, 2006, p.28). How teachers deal with student errors has received great attention since the 1960s, when errors were viewed as an indication of students’ language development rather than something which needed to be avoided. There were earlier studies describing the ways teachers do the corrections (e.g. Chaudron, 1986; Fanselow, 1977; Cathcart & Olsen, 1976). However, Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) study served as a corrective discourse model for researchers to investigate different types of corrections, their effects and other correction-related issues. Their study is acknowledged as one of the great works in the literature because it has functioned as a rationale for the subsequent studies which investigate the effectiveness of OCF types. Observing four French immersion classrooms to find the frequency and their relative effectiveness, Lyster and Ranta revealed six different types of OCF. Additionally, in an article by Ellis (2009), corrective moves were provided in a table (p.8) (see Table 1). As categorization OCF types may vary in some studies (i.e. recasts may be taken as explicit type as in Ellis & Sheen, 2006), the grouping made by Ellis (2009, p.8) is taken as a model to provide literature review accordingly.

Table 1.

Corrective Feedback Strategies

Corrective Types	Implicit	Explicit
Input-providing (Reformulations)	Recast	Explicit correction
Output-prompting (Prompts)	Repetition Clarification Request	Metalinguistic Explanation Elicitation Paralinguistic Signal

As shown in Table 1, types of OCF are categorized as input-providing, output-prompting, implicit and explicit types. Detailed definitions of each type are provided in section 2.5. The following section provides a brief history of corrective feedback.

2.3. A Brief History of Corrective Feedback

In the 1950s, there was no principled approach to language teaching, and correction was no more than quick treatments made to learners' incorrect utterances (Rizi & Ketabi, 2015). This traditional method, taking language learning as teaching discrete elements of grammar and vocabulary, assumed that ability to communicate was a natural outcome of knowing these components of language. At the end of the 1950s, behaviouristic learning theory predominated language teaching, assuring that language learning is accomplished through memorization and excessive practices of drills designed to keep students away from making errors (Audio-Lingual Method) (Erten, 1993). Errors were viewed as serious threats to language learning and teachers were recommended to treat them immediately. Avoidance of errors caused an impediment on the emergence of error-correction studies, instead; most of the research was based on the source of errors that were considered to impede second language learning. However, with Chomsky who proposed that Universal Grammar (1986) controlled language development, Cognitivist theory mitigated the popularity of Behaviourism. Cognitivist theory argues that learners actively make and test hypothesis about the target language rules until they reach the correct utterances. During this testing process, it is normal to make errors, which is signalling their efforts of language learning and where they are in the language learning process (Erten, 1993). Chomsky held the belief that learners went through similar processes during first and second language learning, thus it was useless to make corrections for second language learning because of the learners' success in

first language as they were not exposed to frequent corrections. Krashen (1982) also put forward that giving correction is not only unnecessary, but also detrimental to language learning (i.e. Affective Filter Hypothesis). This hypothesis accounts for the role of such non-linguistic elements as motivation, self-confidence and anxiety during acquisition and asserts that using correction is likely to enhance the level of those feelings preventing acquisition. However, in the late 1960s, appearance of SLA research as a new area increased the significance given to errors and error correction studies. Along with the understanding of importance of errors, descriptive studies have been carried out on how to deal with student errors (Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In spite of Krashen's (1982) theories, claiming the non-necessity of correction, and affective damage it can have on students (i.e. language anxiety resulting from the fear of making a mistake), error correction became a popular area of research. In particular, the more emphasis has been given for communicativeness and interaction in the late 1970s, the more correction studies have been carried out in language teaching area. From the 1970s to 1990s, the controversies were over the types of corrections, their relative efficiency on learners' uptake (from SLA perspective), timing of corrections and their psychological effects. Because of the possible reason for never-ending discussions with no clear-cut conclusions, the 2000s have been the years of shift to the importance given to what teachers and students actually believe and think (Borg, 2003). Ellis (2009) stated that in the post-method era, language teaching experts tend to be less peremptory for corrective feedback considering its facilitative role as well as its possible damage on students.

2.3.1. Focus on Form

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) refers to use of meaningful communicative activities whose aim is the exchanges of messages to accomplish real-life tasks by using the target language. While doing these tasks, it is assumed that there should be a balance between students' communicative ability (fluency) and linguistic accuracy. Ellis (2009) reported that one way of mediation between form and meaning is to provide corrective feedback (focus on form).

Based on CLT, Long (1991) identified two approaches to teach language as focus on forms and focus on form. Focus on forms refers to teaching previously selected grammar items one by one with the awareness of teachers and students on the target structure

(Ellis, 2015). On the other hand, focus on form aims at drawing learner's attention to the linguistic forms in order to understand the meaning and achieve communication (Long, 1991). Ellis (2016) stated that focus on form attempts to take students' attention to form in meaning-based activities. Long (1991) identified focus on form as "drawing students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (p.44-45). These linguistic elements can be introduced systematically or haphazardly, but the primary aim of the course is to manage communication. It increases the noticeability of linguistic forms, which may assist the process of students' inter-language development (Baştürkmen, 2002). It was reported that concurring attending to form, meaning and use may guide learners to make a cognitive processing among them, which is an important requirement for language learning (Doughty, 2001).

Focus on form can be two types: reactive and pre-emptive. Reactive focus on form takes place when learners stated a sentence containing a non-linguistic element (Ellis, Baştürkmen & Loewen, 2001). Identified also as corrective feedback, it provides learners with negative evidence revealing the student that something is going wrong with the statement, accompanied with a problem in communication. On the other hand, pre-emptive focus on form involves learner or teacher's attention to form even though no communication problem arises. To put it another way, reactive focus on form refers to a performance problem whereas pre-emptive focus on form addresses a gap in students' knowledge.

While applying reactive focus on form in their lessons, teachers need to make decisions on whether they provide or avoid corrections. The following section discusses this point, touching upon the elements affecting this decision process.

2.4. Should Errors be Corrected?

Language teachers necessarily make instant decisions to provide or avoid (withdraw) correction when students produce erroneous statements. Those decisions are difficult and complex as teachers need a concurrent thinking of a variety of issues, such as students' level and personality, aim of the activity, type of error and other variables. Mori (2011) argued that avoidance of correction may be dependent on time limitations, frequency of errors, students' character, level and communicative ability.

According to the reviewed literature, teachers have two main concerns when

making oral corrections: fear of damaging students' feelings and breaking the flow of communication. As aforementioned, Krashen (1982) was not in favour of correcting students' errors with the same concern (i.e. damaging students' feelings). Additionally, Truscott (1999) claimed that instructions with a corrective aim (especially for grammar errors) should be stopped immediately for the following reasons: from the point of view of teachers, teachers may find it difficult to understand the error to provide correction consistently, and to tailor the correction to the students as well as keeping an interactional environment. Students also may not notice or understand the corrective intent, accept and internalize it to their inter-language system. Kamiya's (2016) study, investigating four ESL teachers' beliefs and practices, for example, found that the teachers refrained from making explicit corrections so as not to damage students' feelings. As for the second concern, teachers are likely to break the communicative flow of the lesson when they make excessive corrections on their students. For that reason, it is advised to delay corrections a later time (Ellis, 2013). Ur (1996) stated the obvious need of correction, but she also added that we should not exaggerate this contribution as it could not stop the errors and instead, she suggested investing much time on avoidance of errors rather than correcting errors.

Other studies showed that using corrective forms during accuracy-based activities was necessary, but it was time-consuming to use corrections for fluency-based activities and also harmful for students' language development. Harmer (2007) discusses that when students are engaged in a communicative activity, the teacher should not intervene by "telling students that they are making mistakes, insisting on accuracy and asking for repetition" (p. 44). This view was also supported by Baştürkmen et al.'s (2004) study, which revealed that the teachers held the belief that they tended not to correct their students' errors when they expected their students to be fluent. Another study (Hernandez & Cruz, 2012) revealed that teachers had positive attitudes for OCF, but most of teachers considered it useful only to develop accuracy not fluency. As can be clearly seen in the literature, contradictory claims were put forward in relation to providing corrections or ignoring errors. Ellis (2009) reported that implementation of error correction is challenging because of the competing factors. Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) asserted that teachers, namely the decision-makers, need to consider many factors such as teaching context, student profile, linguistic targets and curriculum objectives when deciding on their corrective feedback instructions. Despite those concerns, the positive role of oral correction in a formal teaching environment is well

evidenced in many studies (e.g. Doughty & Varela, 1998, Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010).

2.5. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

The positive role of error correction on students' foreign language development has been accepted both in theoretical backgrounds (corrective feedback allows learners to engage in the process of hypothesis testing) and with empirical studies (students' desire to be corrected) (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). Acknowledgement of facilitative role of OCF directed research interests towards the ways teachers correct their students or what choices are available when correcting students. (i.e. Cathcart & Olsen, 1976; Fanselow, 1977; Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Mori, 2011). In relation to OCF, the study by Lyster and Ranta (1997), carried out in four French immersion classes, introduced a corrective discourse model for the type of corrections provided commonly: recasts, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification request, repetition, meta-linguistic explanation. Their study also revealed distribution of error treatments, learners' uptake and repair in relation to different corrective types. Then, an article by Ellis (2009) provided a table that shows a categorization of corrective moves: reformulations and prompts. Reformulations are comprised of recasts and explicit correction which directly supply the corrected form of the erroneous utterance, while prompts, including four types (elicitation, repetition, clarification request, meta-linguistic explanation and paralinguistic signals) lead students to self-correct themselves by hinting the error. What made this new version different from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy was inclusion of paralinguistic signals to the list as a type of explicit prompt. Majority of the studies covered have offered a confusing map over the best or the most effective type for language development. No study up to now has claimed the superiority of one type over another. The following section will elaborate upon correction types along with examples. The example conversations given for each OCF type were taken from the observed lessons of the present study.

2.5.1. Recasts

Recasts refer to "the teachers' reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (as cited in Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 48). When compared with other types, recasts have caused much more arguments than the others possibly with the

reason that they are found in many studies as the most frequently used type of correction (e.g. Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lee, 2013; Lyster & Mori, 2006, Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2004) and that they are discussed about its extent of saliency to provide negative evidence (corrective feedback). Regarding its benefits, some studies advocate its positive influence on uptake (Long, 1996) while some others claim them as the least effective type (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Recasts are considered to be compatible with communicative classroom environment as their implicitness helps sustained conversation (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998). Recasts also draw students' attention to meaning and provide assistance "that enable learners to participate in interaction that requires linguistic abilities exceeding their current developmental level" (as cited in Lyster et al., 2013, p.10). The theoretical base for the positive role of recasts is dependent on Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996) which argues that recasts give opportunities to the students to become aware of the gaps in their inter-language systems by making a comparison between two languages in their minds without causing an inference on communication. The following excerpt from a conversation between a student and a teacher exemplifies recasts.

Example: S: He was always insult us.

T: Hmm..., he always insulted you ?

(S: Student, T: Teacher)

2.5.2. Explicit Correction

Explicit correction is defined as a type that supplies the correct form, but contrary to recasts, it is an evident indication of the student's erroneous statement (Lyster & Saito, 2010). The difference between recasts and explicit correction lies in the latter's being more explicit as its name suggests. In the literature, studies about explicit correction are based on its linguistic and pedagogical effectiveness in relation to other types of corrections. The following excerpt provides an example of this type of error correction.

Example: S: and it was empty. (pronunciation error)

T: No, it is not emPty, it is empty.

2.5.3. Elicitation

In elicitation, the correct form is directly elicited. It is conducted in three ways: 1) Teachers elicit part of the utterance, pausing on the erroneous part purposefully, to enable student to complete the utterance correctly. 2) Teachers ask “how do we say X in English? 3) Teachers want students to reformulate his/her utterance (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The conversation below depicts an example of elicitation.

Example: *S : Cheese can raise your blood pressure. (wrong pronunciation)*
 T : Cheese can raise your _____??

2.5.4. Repetition

Repetition is the re-expressing of the “student’s ill-formed utterance, adjusting the intonation to highlight the error” (Ellis, Baştürkmen & Loewen, 2001, p.288). In other words, the teacher simply asks the learner to repeat his/her statement. This kind of feedback can sometimes be misleading as it is no more than teachers’ simple repetitions with a non-corrective intent. The following excerpt exemplifies this type of error correction.

Example : *S : ... it is about first impression. (pronunciation error)*
 T : it is ABOUT first impression?

2.5.5. Clarification Request

It indicates “either that the students’ utterance has been misunderstood by the teacher or that the utterance is ill-formed in some way and that a repetition or reformulation is required” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.47). Teachers can also ask what do you mean by X to lead the student to clarify what was said (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Some studies excluded this kind of feedback because of its tendency to cause accuracy and comprehensibility problems. In other words, teachers sometimes may not use clarification request with a corrective aim, but with an aim to hear well what the student said. The following excerpt between a teacher and student shows an example of clarification request.

Example : *S : ... it is a balancing diet.*
 T : what did you say ?
 S : A balanced diet.

2.5.6. Meta-linguistic Feedback

As another type, meta-linguistic feedback consists of comments, information or questions related to the well-formedness of student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). It is an allusion of a problem in the utterance, leading students to find and self-correct. It usually reveals some "meta-language that refers to the nature of the error or a word definition in case of lexical errors." (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p.47). The following excerpt depicts this kind of feedback.

Example : *S : as if I am ill.*
 T : So in a sentence like this, we use past tense because it is not real.

2.5.7. Paralinguistic Signals

In Ellis' article (2009), paralinguistic signal is identified as gestures or facial expressions which indicate a linguistic problem in a student's sentence. The conversation below provides an example of paralinguistic signals.

Example : *S : Most of them were effected.*
 T : hmm... ? (the teacher shakes her head.)

To provide an overall picture, Table 2 depicts types of OCF and their definitions. It also reveals examples of conversations for each type of corrective feedback. It is constructed based on the definitions and examples of corrective moves provided in Ellis (2009) and Lee (2013).

Table 2.

A Taxonomy of OCF Strategies

Corrective Feedback Strategy	Definition	Example
1. Recast	The corrector reformulates all or part of a student utterance.	S: I have to find the answer on the book? T: In the book.
2. Repetition	The corrector repeats the learner utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress.	S: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you? S: I'll show you.
3. Clarification Request	The corrector indicates that he/she has not understood what the learner said.	S: What do you spend with your wife? T: What? (Or, Sorry?)
4. Explicit Correction	The corrector indicates an error has been committed, identifies the error and provides correction	S: On May T: Not on May, in May. We say, 'It will start in May'.
5. Elicitation	The corrector repeats part of the learner utterance but not the erroneous part and uses rising intonation to signal the learner should complete it.	S: This tea is very warm. T: It's very..... ? S: Hot.
6. Metalinguistic explanation	The corrector gives meta-language to lead the learner to the correction.	S: There are influence person who. T: Influence is a noun.
7. Paralinguistic signals	The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error.	L: Yesterday I go cinema. T: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past)

2.6. Reformulations and Prompts

Since the beginning of error correction studies in the early 1970s, the literature has had great amount of work supporting the positive role of oral corrections in students' linguistic ability (e.g. Doughty & Varela, 1998, Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis et al., 2006; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010), with the further corroboration of some meta-analyses (e.g. Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006; Lyster & Saito, 2010). Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguished six different OCF types, which formed a base for the subsequent studies to compare their overall effectiveness. Drawing on that study, numerous studies were carried out to measure the relative effects of different types of oral treatments (Lyster, 2004; Ellis et al., 2006; Ammar & Spada, 2006;

Loewen & Nabei, 2007; Yang & Lyster, 2010; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019). In his article, Ellis (2009) provides two categories as reformulation (i.e. input-providing types) and prompts (i.e. output prompting types). Reformulations (recast and explicit correction) and prompts (repetition, elicitation, clarification request, meta-linguistic information, para-linguistic signals) are ways of corrections with one difference between them. This difference lies in the fact that the former provides the utterances directly without enabling some time for students' self-correction, but the latter guides students to make a self-repair by implying a problem in the sentence. The controversies are mostly about what type is better to put to use for successful teaching. Rather than reformulations, recasts and prompts have been the subject of many studies to test their effectiveness in various contexts they were being practiced. It is reported that recasts have links with the working memory, which enable learners to make a cognitive comparison with their native and target language, and prompts have relations with the long term memory that ensure the process of retrieval of knowledge (Yang & Lyster, 2010).

Some studies advocated larger benefits of prompts compared to recasts grounding on some theoretical bases while some others made a contradictory claim. Long (1996) argued that recasts supply both positive and negative evidence keeping the focus of meaning as well as linguistic forms. Contrary to him, Lyster and Ranta (1997) asserted that teachers should provide prompts rather than reformulations because prompts force learners to conduct a deeper cognitive processing. In other words, when learners attempt to get involved in the self-correction process, a strong association occurs in memory and ensures a deeper level of understanding. The following section introduces some theories in favour of employing prompts to provide correction.

2.6.1. Skill Acquisition Theory

Skill acquisition theory is about strengthening of oral skills with practice in a meaningful context, which brings about the emergence of existing declarative knowledge (knowledge about how language works) and skills (Lyster et al., 2013). It argues that meaningful practice in communicative context help learners activate their existing declarative knowledge (De Keyser, 1998) and gradually move from a slow and arduous use of language to a more fluent and automatic one. This process is believed to be achieved through the use of prompts.

2.6.2. Socio-cultural Theory

Socio-cultural theory suggests that learning takes place through participation rather than acquisition. According to this theory, students need to get involved in conversations (social interaction) to learn the target language (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). In this interactional environment, being corrected creates opportunities for learners to move from other-regulation to self-regulation process. It occurs when “the learners come to be able to perform a language feature through the scaffolding provided by an interlocutor when they are not able to do so independently” (as cited in Ellis & Sheen, 2006, p.597) According to this theory, a single type of corrective feedback that fits all students cannot be proposed as corrections should be accommodated to developmental level of individual learner. Contrary to cognitive theories, socio-cultural frame advises teachers to make use of a variety of correction types tailoring them in accordance with their students’ needs. Accordingly, there is no best type of correction to provide in all cases, but it is advised to make use of prompts to allow students’ self-repair. When students fail to correct themselves, input-providing types can be provided.

2.6.3. Studies in favour of Prompts

In their quasi-experimental study to discuss the effects of recasts and prompts, Ammar and Spada (2006) worked with three ESL groups (one control group and two experimental groups) to identify their success in using possessive determiners, and found prompts and recasts as equally effective for high proficiency levels whereas prompts gave more benefits to low-proficiency levels. Recasts were found to be dependent on students’ proficiency level. Additionally, in their meta-analysis (based on the analysis of fifteen studies that met a set of criteria), Lyster and Saito (2010) found bigger effects of prompts.

Lyster (2004) investigated the effects of Form-Focused Instruction (FFI) accompanied by recasts, prompts and no feedback on four different immersion classrooms with young learners. The study determined larger effects of prompts (with FFI) in comparison with recasts. He argued that guiding learners to make a self-correction during a communicative task was likely to assist the proceduralization of linguistic forms that were already acquired beforehand. He further added that using recasts would also be more beneficial if the learner was not familiar with the target form in advance or the target form was beyond the level of the learner.

In another study, Dilans (2010) attempted to identify the effects of recasts and prompts on vocabulary development in a community college. The ESL adult participants were grouped as recasts, prompts and control groups (one group receiving recasts, the other group receiving prompts and a control group with no feedback). The study showed that prompts and recasts were equally effective in short term, but prompts were more advantageous in the long term for vocabulary development.

Brown (2009) compared the first and second year university students' perceptions of effective language teaching and found that second year students whose level was better than first year students' had a preference for prompts rather than reformulations while first year students did not have that much desire to be prompted.

Yang and Lyster (2010) attempted to find the effects of feedback and Form Focused Instruction on 72 Chinese ESL students' accuracy of regular and irregular past tense forms. It was found that effects of prompts were greater in comparison to recasts with the case of regular past tense forms, but prompts and recasts had the same effect in developing accuracy of use of irregular past tense forms.

Ellis (2007) conducted a study on the relative effectiveness of recasts and metalinguistic feedback on two different grammatical forms, comparative "er" and past tense "ed". After one hour of communicative tasks, it was reported that the group which were exposed to metalinguistic feedback performed in comparatives better than in past tense forms while recasts did not have any effects compared to control group.

Finally, in Yoshida's study (2010), although two teachers had expressed the benefits of prompts over recasts, they made use of recasts more than prompts. Reasons accounted for this mismatch were to achieve effective time management and to provide a supportive classroom environment. The same mismatch was asserted in Roothoof's study (2014). In spite of the teachers' statements in favour of using prompts to guide students to self-correct, teachers were observed to employ recasts.

From the studies reviewed thus far, we can conclude that reformulations serve as a tool which helps learners notice linguistic forms while prompts perform the consolidation of available knowledge and skills. Lyster et al. (2013) claimed that it is better to employ different types of OCF than constant use of only one type. Both forms can have a strong effect on language learning; however, the literature suggested that some other variables such as target structure, students' level, instructional focus, contextual factors could be impeding or enhancing elements to determine one type's effectiveness over another. In conclusion, no single type of oral correction that fits all

teaching contexts has been proposed yet.

Corrective feedback research has also disagreements on timing of corrections. The controversies are towards whether to provide immediate or delayed correction for students' errors. The following section argues what pedagogical and SLA research suggests for timing of corrections.

2.7. Immediate and Delayed Correction

For timing of corrective feedback, immediate and delayed feedback have been subjected to controversial discussions most of which are drawn on a practical way to correct errors. Immediate correction is to offer a correction right after the erroneous statement has been uttered while delayed correction is to correct the students after the activity has been completed, or when the student complete all his/her statement. There is no strong evidence supporting that immediate correction of errors can offer more benefits to learners in terms of improving their language than delaying correction at a later time. Ellis (2013) reported that immediate correction can contribute to learners' procedural knowledge while delayed correction informs learners about meta-linguistic knowledge as it encourages learners to reflect on the corrections they received. However, the study of Baştürkmen et al. (2004) asserted that immediate feedback during fluency work can interrupt students and thus using delayed feedback can be better to achieve fluency.

Different SLA theories have various perspectives about the ideal time to provide corrective feedback. Long (1996) asserts that corrective feedback in the form of negotiation of meaning facilitates learning by assisting learner to notice the gap between erroneous statement and the target language. He further argues that especially recasts allow learners to conduct a comparison between target and native language while maintaining the meaning, thus the most propitious moment to correct is the immediate time when students faced with the form, even in a communicative activity (Arroyo & Yılmaz, 2018; Lyster, 2004; Ellis et al., 2006).

From another perspective, Socio-cultural Theory claims that corrective feedback should be tailored, graduated and contingent (Ellis, 2009). The first feature means that it should be provided appropriately in accordance with students' levels and needs. The next one, "graduated" refers to adjusting the correction type from indirect to the direct one based on the amount of assistance. The last one (i.e. contingent) points to the

provision of corrective feedback only when it is needed and withdrawal of it when it is not essential any more (Arroyo & Yilmaz, 2018). This theory supports use of immediate correction, not delayed correction, as learning is believed to take place on the exact time when students need assistance during the interaction.

Li et al. (2016) reported that the profound effect of corrective feedback on language acquisition was proven with many meta-analyses (e.g. Russell & Spada, 2006; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Lyster & Saito, 2010). They also mentioned the existence of other meta-analysis that investigated the mediating factors affecting the role of correction such as teaching context, observed structure, type of feedback and learner variables.

As aforementioned, Audio-Lingual Method suggested teachers to provide immediate correction with students in order not to allow errors to locate in students' mind. Making errors was perceived as an impeding element for language learning. More humanistic methods, however, advocated positive and non-judgemental assessment to ensure a positive self-image on language learners. On the other hand, upcoming of CLT led the researchers to find an appropriate correction type to provide in accordance with the activities that target fluency or accuracy. Scrivener (2005), for instance, advised teachers to make delayed correction during a fluency activity. He explained that teachers were advised to note down the errors students made, and then focus on those errors after the activity was over. From pedagogical perspective, it is also advised to make use of immediate correction if the activity aims at improving students' linguistic accuracy, and to provide a delayed correction if the target is for fluency and length of students' production. Contrary to this, some SLA perspectives advocate the positive role of immediate correction during fluency activities for language development. One claim by Long (1996) suggested that immediate recasts are likely to provide an opportunity for learners to conduct a comparison between their non-target forms and correct target language forms. This comparison process provides learners to make a form-function comparison, which subsequently established in students' inter-language system (Li et al., 2016). In relation to this, Transfer Appropriate Processing (TAP) theory supports the usage of immediate correction. This theory is elaborated upon in the following section.

2.7.1. Transfer Appropriate Processing

TAP claims that we can put to use our language knowledge only when similar cognitive processes are gone through in learning and retrieval process (Lightbown,

2008). That is why we may not be communicative enough when taught in isolated linguistic forms. Li et al. (2016) explain that when provided immediate correction, students, whose main focus is to communicate, involve in a process they need to receive or produce the target language. This process encourages their learning. They further argued that “in accordance with TAP, the learning that takes place in such a context will be available for subsequent use in spontaneous communicative events” (p.278). In contrast, when corrected by delayed correction, students experience a temporal disjunction between the act of communicating and the receiving of correction so that the processing involved does not take place under real conditions, which contributes to metalinguistic understanding rather than the development of linguistic competence.

As well as theories supporting immediate correction, there are contradictory claims suggesting that students learn better when their complete attention is on meaning. In this case (Preparatory Attention Theory), students are not necessarily to divide their attention between form and meaning and thus providing delayed correction is a better decision (Li et al., 2016). Additionally, VanPatten (1996) asserts that it can be cognitively difficult to pay spontaneous attention to form and meaning. In task-based instruction, it is advised to delay correction during a communicative activity in order not to violate the flow of the communication. It is further argued that provision of immediate correction during tasks may take learners’ attention from tasks to linguistic forms, which is likely to deflect the aim of the lesson.

Studies about timing and type of correction advocated different types to employ, hindering researchers to agree on the best. As explained earlier, teachers make decisions affected by their beliefs, experiences and other factors when they are teaching. In line with this, the following section introduces the studies that are in favour of match between beliefs and practices.

2.8. Teacher Belief and Practice Match in Language Teaching

As aforementioned, previous studies showed that there is a relationship between what teachers believe and do in language teaching (e.g. Borg, 2001; Borg, 2003; Johnson, 1992; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Golombek, 1998; Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Kun, 2008; Phipps & Borg, 2009). In relation to the issue of the similarities and differences between what teachers do (i.e. practice) and what they believe (i.e. beliefs), a variety of terms have been used in the literature. Some examples

of these terms are: consistency / inconsistency, match / mismatch, congruity / incongruity, convergence / divergence, correspondence, conformity and discrepancy between belief and practice.

On the other hand, rather than expressing a one to one (complete) contradiction between beliefs and practices, Baştürkmen et al. (2004) stated a half (partial) consistency between beliefs and practices. They noted that a complete match or mismatch are not necessarily be achieved by the teacher. None of the available reviewed studies thus far have claimed a complete contradiction or a strong conformation between belief and practice and instead, they proposed some decisions or practices which may conflict or accord with their stated beliefs. The rationale for this claim can be based on the teaching occasion itself. In other words, teaching is affected by many other mechanisms, like the teaching context, student factors (age, level, personality), target language and teachers' personality, which may hinder teachers' implementations of their beliefs (Baştürkmen, 2012; Mori, 2011).

Considering the growing interest in OCF studies, there have been great numbers of studies pointing out the match between beliefs and practices (e.g. Jensen, 2002; Kamiya, 2016); however, the number of research focusing on the mismatch between beliefs and practices is also substantial (e.g. Ng & Farrell, 2003; Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Roothoof, 2014; Dilans, 2016). The forthcoming paragraphs discuss the studies in favour of belief and practice match for different language teaching areas (not necessarily for OCF) and introduce some studies focusing on belief and practice match regarding OCF usage.

Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, Lloyd (1991) attempted to determine the relationship between belief and practice regarding reading comprehension instruction, working with 38 teachers through one hour interviews (at different times) and classroom observations. They reported that teacher practices were related to their stated beliefs about reading comprehension strategies.

Johnson's study (1992) attempted to identify the beliefs of three ESL non-native teachers' second language teaching practices in literacy context. Having obtained the data of 30 teachers' consistent theoretical beliefs, he made a comparison of beliefs and practices of three teachers identified as having different theoretical orientations. He contended that the teachers who were holding established theoretical beliefs provided literacy instruction in accordance with their beliefs. Jensen's (2002) study, which was

reported in Roothoof's (2014) article, noted a clear match between teachers' beliefs and practices.

Another study (Farrell & Kun, 2008) sought three teachers' beliefs and practices concerning use of Singlish (Singapore Colloquial English) through observations and semi-structured interviews. The scholars gave reference to two studies in the literature, asserting the teachers' expressions that use of Singlish for general communication was acceptable, but in the school context, it could be harmful for students' writing. The results confirmed that most of the three teachers' practices conformed to their beliefs. The three primary school teachers stated that the frequent corrections for use of Singlish might damage their students' learning. In line with this belief, the teachers did not correct all Singlish words, taking their students' confidence and flow of the course into consideration.

Kamiya (2016) conducted a study investigating differences between four ESL teachers' stated beliefs and practices of teaching and OCF. Drawing on 50 minutes of observation and in-depth interviews with teachers who have varying years of teaching experience, he found a consistency between belief and practice to a large extent, as well as a few practices found as inconsistent with teachers' beliefs. By and large, the ESL teachers' beliefs and practices were found to be in agreement with each other regarding OCF usage. Kamiya argued that teaching experience is not a big factor explaining the reason of inconsistency between beliefs and practices since one of the experienced participants were observed to have clear divergences. However, the teachers expressed that they were worried about damaging students' feelings and thus they avoided explicit correction, which was also observed in teachers' practices (except for one teacher).

In Ölmezer-Öztürk's (2019) classroom research, both consistencies and inconsistencies were revealed regarding teachers' corrective feedback beliefs and practices in Turkish EFL context. In their attempts to investigate four experienced and four relatively inexperienced teachers' beliefs and practices, they utilized a questionnaire, semi-structured interviews and observations (2 hours for each teacher) in the context of a university preparatory school. They found consistency between the teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of the amount of feedback they provided (except one teacher), but for the other areas like timing and types of corrections, they were not as consistent as they were in the amount of feedback.

Maloney and Berman (2004) investigated one teacher's beliefs about interaction in classroom and they found a consistency between belief and practice. The teacher left

great amount of time for students' oral production as he clearly stated in the interview. Because of the concern for damaging communicative flow, he never interrupted the students and instead, he noted down the errors to correct them later.

2.9. Belief and Practice Mismatch in Language Teaching

The profound effect of teachers' beliefs on their practices has been noted in many studies (Borg, 2003; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Breen et al., 2001; Johnson, 1992; Pajares, 1992; Farrell & Lim, 2005). Their practices are indicators of their beliefs and vice-versa. A case study by Rahman, Singh and Pandian (2018) attempted to investigate two teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the implementation of CLT. They claimed that teachers' beliefs about CLT were significant factors affecting their instructional practices. However, this may not always be true especially for incidental aspects of language teaching in which teachers find it difficult to estimate the possible problems (Roothoof, 2014). Pajares (1992) claimed that beliefs may not always be trustable evidences of actual practices. Borg (2003) accepted the effects of beliefs on teachers' practices, but further argued that it did not mean they would be totally reflected on teachers' pedagogical decisions and theoretical instructions. Furthermore, Baştürkmen et al. (2004) noted that it would be unrealistic to expect a full convergence or divergence between beliefs and practices especially for teachers' spontaneous decision-making instructions. There are numerous studies providing evidence for mismatch between beliefs and practices for OCF usage as much as the studies claiming the harmony between beliefs and practices. The forthcoming paragraphs discuss some studies which found mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices.

Roothoof (2014), investigating ten EFL teachers' beliefs and practices regarding OCF, administered a questionnaire to ten teachers after one or two hours of observations of each teacher. Seven out of ten teachers expressed some concerns for damaging the communicative environment when they provided excessive corrections. Only two teachers made less immediate corrections, which were in accordance with their statements. The other two teachers provided great amount of corrections and that revealed a contradiction to their statements. One teacher was in favour of correcting only the errors which cause problems in communication. She, however, corrected the errors even when those errors did not violate communication. Regarding the types of corrections the teachers preferred, four of them believed in the benefits of using prompts

compared to reformulations. They employed recasts, which were not revealed in their questionnaires. In terms of the amount of feedback they provided for grammar errors, only two teachers' estimations for the rate of corrections were found to be consistent with their practices. Only five of the teachers were partially aware of the feedback. To sum up, the overall results suggested a tendency for inconsistency between belief and practice.

Farrell and Bennis (2013), motivated by Baştürkmen's (2012) call to compare novice and experienced teachers for unpredictable elements of language teaching, investigated teacher beliefs and practices regarding language teaching. Their study was a qualitative case study based on three hours of post and pre lesson interviews and three hours of non-participant observations in one week of data collection process. Corrective feedback usage was partly included in the study, the results of which were reported to detect both convergence and divergence between teachers' beliefs and practices. Despite the fact that the more experienced teacher's beliefs were mainly linked with his practices, some irrelevance was observed, too. They claimed that divergence between teacher beliefs and practices could be found, which was usual, as teachers were required to fit in the realities of the classroom. Also, time constraints were among the reasons for divergence. Their study was against the evidence that a large extent of consistency between belief and practice became more salient with the case of experienced teachers.

In Lee's (2013) study, sourced by questionnaires, observations and follow-up interviews to investigate corrective feedback preferences and learners repair among advance ESL students, the teachers strongly agreed with the facilitative role of immediate error correction, but in the classroom, they did not prefer to correct all errors. Conversely, in Junqueira and Kim's study (2013) (drawing on observations, stimulated recall interviews with two ESL teachers), despite teachers' beliefs on the inefficacy of corrections, the teachers provided corrections for most of the students' errors. The teachers accounted for this mismatch not with the effect of teaching experience and training, but with the teachers' own language learning experience.

The study by Baştürkmen et al. (2004), showing a partial similarity to the present study in terms of its aims, focused on the extent of belief and practice match of three ESL teachers with varying years of experience from 1 to 15. The data sources comprised of observations (changing from 40 to 60 minutes for each teacher) of teachers practicing the same activity, cued response scenarios and stimulated recall interviews. The focus on form episodes were identified in four categories as type of

episodes, linguistic focus of episodes, the reason for focusing on forms, and the way these episodes are managed. Following the observation process, in-depth interviews, cued response scenarios and stimulated recalls were administered to three teachers to compare their beliefs and practices. They found both consistencies and inconsistencies regarding the practice of focus on form. They were consistent about the way focus on form was achieved. However, teachers' strong preferences to be in favour of using prompts to lead students to self-correction were observed to be contradictory to what they practiced. In fact, they made use of recasts rather than prompts. Teachers stated that they would not prefer to provide immediate correction if the wrong forms did not interfere with the on-going communication whereas they corrected their students even if there was no incomprehensibility. The study detected more inconsistency between beliefs and practices especially with the case of inexperienced teachers, highlighting the role of teaching experience when beliefs were being transferred into practice.

Ng and Farrell (2003) conducted a study which pointed out the differences between beliefs and practices of four teachers regarding grammar teaching and error correction in a secondary school context. The researchers found out clear mismatches between their beliefs and practices especially for OCF provision although their beliefs on grammar teaching conformed to their practices.

Breen et al. (2001) focused on how teachers justified their work in classroom. It was acknowledged that behind teachers' instructional decisions, there were underlying individual beliefs and principles they held to be true. They asserted that as teachers gained experience, they constructed their own practical skills, the sources of which were based on interaction and complex factors existing in teaching environment. Grounding on this rationale, the study investigated how 18 experienced ESL teachers justified their practices in an Australian context through five interviews (one is after the video-recording of the lesson) and observation grids teachers graded the reasons behind their practices. The participants were teachers of adult and young learners. The study revealed that the same principles held by the teachers could reflect variously on their practices and that the same practices could be dependent on different beliefs. Additionally, it is reported that teaching experience can be a significant factor for belief and practice match as the more beliefs are entrenched in teacher, the more likely that they can be observed on practices. This means that the relationship between belief and practice may become stronger with gaining teaching experience.

In sum, despite the strong relationship between belief and practice, guiding similarities between the two, there may also be mismatches between what a teacher believes and what she/he actually performs in the classroom. The issue of mismatch between belief and practice can be perceived by the language instructors as something should be avoided or a kind of failure and an undesirable act regarding their professions. However, it was reported that most of the teachers were not conscious about the extent of match between their belief and practice (Farrell & Lim, 2005).

The reviewed literature revealed a variety of topics ranging from vocabulary teaching (e.g. Hksar, 2012) to literacy instruction (e.g. Johnson, 1992), focus on form practices (e.g. Baştürkmen et al., 2004), communicative language teaching (e.g. Rahman, Singh & Pandian, 2018), grammar teaching (e.g. Ng & Farrell, 2003; Farrell & Lim, 2005) corrective feedback (e.g. Catchart & Olsen, 1976; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019) with respect to the belief and practice relations. The studies' outcomes were contradictory for the relationship between beliefs and practices. Baştürkmen (2012) attributed the contradictory results to case studies. Some studies explained the mismatches between beliefs and practices with time restrictions and practicality issues (i.e. contextual factors) (e.g. Borg, 2003; Yoshida, 2008, 2010) while others attributed those mismatches to teachers' experiences (e.g. Breen et al., 2001; Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Baştürkmen, 2012) and competing belief systems (Phipps & Borg, 2009). The following section elaborates upon these studies.

2.9.1. Reasons for Mismatches between Beliefs and Practices in Language Teaching

The relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices has received considerable attention over the past decade. Findings related to this issue are mostly obtained from case studies, and more studies need to be conducted (Baştürkmen, 2012). Concerning the reasons for mismatches between beliefs and practices, a variety of explanations have been accounted by different studies (i.e. not all of them are about OCF), such as teaching experience (Gatbonton, 2008; Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Baştürkmen, 2012; Breen et al., 2001), contextual factors (Borg, 2003) recognition of error correction practices (Junqueira & Kim, 2013) time constraints (e.g. Ng & Farrell, 2003; Farrell & Lim, 2005) classroom management issues (Yoshida, 2008). Additionally, Fang (1996) reported that studies based on multiple data sources have a tendency to show an inconsistency between belief and practice.

With respect to the OCF, Baştürkmen et al. (2004) reported that the reasons why teachers' beliefs and practices do not always match could be attributed to conflicting beliefs systems, beliefs in the process of construction, and knowledge that they acquired through theories or experiences (i.e. theory-based or experience-based beliefs).

Özmen and Aydın (2015) focused on fourth year student teachers' (in a university teacher training program) stated beliefs, stated practices and the relations between the two in relation to OCF. They found some degree of mismatch between their beliefs and stated practice, grounding the reason on the lack of teaching experience and paucity of opportunities to practice it in teacher training programs. Borg (2003) proposed that implementation of knowledge into practice could be dependent on contextual factors. In Baştürkmen's review (2012), the reasons for the mismatch between beliefs and practices were explained as follows;

- Teachers' espoused (explicit) or implicit beliefs,
- Situational constraints like curriculum needs, time etc...
- Core and peripheral beliefs,
- Competing multiple belief systems,
- Beliefs in the process of construction,
- Applied research methods to detect the match or mismatch (mostly case studies)

Baştürkmen (2012) argued that teachers' espoused beliefs (explicit) were easy to be expressed by teachers while implicit ones were hard to be obtained with interviews as they were not voiced but could only be observed in actions. Therefore, data collection process was necessarily to be nourished by a number of elements to differentiate between espoused and implicit beliefs because implicit ones were more likely to reveal practice.

Situational constraints mean the obstacles related to teaching context like, time limitations (i.e Farrell & Bennis, 2013) and classroom management issues (i.e. Yoshida, 2008) and examinations (i.e. Borg, 2003; Phipps & Borg, 2009). For instance, Yoshida (2008) claimed that two teachers expressed the benefits of prompts over recasts; however, they made use of recasts more than prompts. The teachers accounted for this mismatch with the reasons of managing time and contribution of recasts for an assistive

classroom environment. Furthermore, Baştürkmen (2012) proposed researchers to investigate the level of consistency between beliefs and practices especially for the unexpected parts of teaching process (i.e. as a contextual factor), like teachers' instant decisions in relation to different methodologies, their interaction in class and focus on form practice. Johnson (1992) noted that the complexities of classroom life can prevent teachers from attending their beliefs and providing instruction which is line with their beliefs. Breen et al. (2001) pointed out that the reasons behind why teachers could not implement what they believed were teachers' concerns for learners, language, and classroom management.

Core and peripheral beliefs are two belief systems; the former denotes to the beliefs that are resistant to change and influence instructional decisions more than peripheral beliefs which are theoretically-based and easy to be adapted to various contexts (Phipps & Borg, 2009). Phipps and Borg (2009) attempted to find out three teachers' beliefs and practices about grammar teaching. They conducted observations and interviews with three EFL teachers (four one-hour interviews) in a lengthy data collection procedure over 18 months. The detected reasons for inconsistencies between belief and practice were about students' expectations, level, motivation and responsiveness. Furthermore, classroom management and responsibility for monitoring errors were accounted for the reason for inconsistencies between beliefs and practices. For instance, one of the teachers avoided making group work activities despite her statement for the significance of group work for student learning. She accounted for this mismatch with the relative efficacy of teacher-student interaction over student-student interaction. She based her statement on the reason that employing group work was likely to endanger her classroom management. As another example, one of the teachers stated that she deprecated and disfavoured rule-based grammar-teaching, which she actually intended to do. That revealed a contradiction to her statement, the reason of which she attributed to students' expectations. They also grounded the reason for inconsistencies between belief and practice on core and peripheral beliefs, asserting the former was more likely to influence teacher decisions and more difficult to change while the latter was more flexible.

Competing belief systems can be explained with the fact that beliefs in one area may fall behind beliefs in another. To illustrate, beliefs about language teaching pedagogy could take precedence of beliefs about SLA (Baştürkmen et al., 2004).

As aforementioned, the fact that beliefs have an influence on teacher practices has provided a strong rationale for the studies controlling the level of extent between belief and practice. In Baştürkmen et al.'s (2004) and Breen et al.'s (2001), teaching experience was shown as an element mediating this extent. They asserted that beliefs of novice teachers were not completely set in a teacher's mind, and probably not revealed in the practices as they were still been in the process of construction. Similarly, Zheng (2013) reported that beliefs backed up both theoretically and experientially could be represented on actions.

The last reason Baştürkmen (2012) accounted for the inconsistency between belief and practice was dependent on type of methodologies applied in data collections. It was noted that studies based on combination of various data collection tools (i.e. in-depth interviews and classroom observations) revealed more inconsistency. In other words, the degree of inconsistency between belief and practice was higher in the studies which were backed up more than one data collection tool.

2.10. Summary

As explained earlier in this chapter, our study focused on mismatches (if any) between EFL instructors' beliefs and practices about OCF use. The covered literature thus far has revealed that there are a variety of studies regarding the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices. Some of these studies advocate the correspondence between beliefs and practices while some other studies are in favour of inconsistency between beliefs and practices. The following chapter introduces methodological procedures of the present study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the methodological procedures for the study are presented. Then, the participants, setting, research tools employed during data collection and the process of data analysis are explained.

3.1. Research Design

We designed and conducted a small-scale case study in order to identify EFL instructors' beliefs and classroom practices concerning OCF. Defined as an inquiry examining a contemporary event in its natural context (Yin, 1994), a case study provides rich and powerful insights for a specific phenomenon despite its disadvantage as having less objectivity and being difficult to generalize the findings. Yin (1994) stated that case studies are when a "how and why question is being asked about a contemporary set of events over which the investigator has little or no control" (p. 9). This study aims to find out teacher beliefs about OCF, their actual classroom practice, and the reasons for the mismatch (if any) between their beliefs and actual classroom practice, namely to answer the "why" question. The following table depicts the overall research design (see Table 3).

Table 3.

Overview of Research Design

Research Question	Participants	Participant Selection Strategy	Data Collection Tool	Duration	Date
1. What are the EFL instructors' beliefs about OCF?	I1	Criterion Sampling	Semi-Structured Interview	13 min.	22/3/2018
	I2			12 min.	22/3/2018
	I3			12 min.	23/3/2018
2. What are the actual classroom practices of the EFL instructors' OCF use?	I1	Criterion Sampling	Observation (video-recording)	4*45=180 min.	2-3 / 4 / 2018
	I2			4*45=180 min.	10-12/4/2018
	I3			4*45=180 min.	16-18/4/2018
3. Do their beliefs and actual classroom practices of OCF match? If not, how do they explain this mismatch?	I1	Criterion Sampling	Stimulated Recall Interview	50 min.	06/4/2018
	I2			23 min.	13/4/2018
	I3			40 min.	19/4/2018

I: Instructor, Min: minutes

3.2. Research Questions

The present study focuses on EFL instructors' beliefs and their actual classroom practices related to OCF. EFL instructors hold some beliefs about OCF, but, as discussed in the previous chapter, it is essential to put these beliefs into practice in a real classroom environment. Previous studies confirm that there can be discrepancies between teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices regarding OCF, and some reasons are accounted for it (e.g. Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Yoshida, 2008; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Lee, 2013). In relation to this, the study attempts

to answer the following research questions:

- What are the EFL instructors' beliefs about OCF?
- What are the actual classroom practices of the EFL instructors' OCF use?
- Do their beliefs and actual classroom practices of OCF match?
-If not, how do they explain this mismatch?

3.3. Participants

Three female EFL instructors working at the School of Foreign Languages in Firat University were the participants of this study. The participant selection strategy was purposive (i.e. criterion sampling strategy). Patton (2002) defines this strategy as selecting “all cases that meet some predetermined criterion of importance” (p.238). The criterion for selection of participants was related to the focus of the study: EFL instructors' beliefs and classroom practices in relation to OCF. It means that errors or error correction practices could be seen more frequently in the skill-based lessons (i.e. Listening and Speaking lessons) at this school, and instructors of skill-based lessons were included in the study. There were actually four instructors teaching four skill-based classrooms in the school, but because of unwillingness of one instructor to be video-recorded, he was excluded. To preserve confidentiality and anonymity of the participants, codes (I1, I2 and I3) were used for each of the instructors. The participants were given consent forms before the study began (see Appendix A). Additionally, as the lessons of the instructors are observed, their students (i.e. the students were not included in the study, but they were also video-recorded for their instructors' OCF practices) were also informed that they would be video-recorded (See Appendix B). Table 4 provides detailed information about the participants of the study.

Table 4.

Information about Participants

Instructors	I1	I2	I3
Age	28	28	38
Teaching Experience	6 years	6 years	15 years
Qualifications	Master 's Degree in English Language and Literature (ELL)	Master's Degree in English Language Teaching (ELT)	Bachelor Degree in English Language Teaching
Mother Tongue	Turkish		
Workplace	Firat University, School of Foreign Languages		

Being graduates of ELT programs, the instructors all have an A degree from YDS (an exam conducted twice a year in Turkey to determine someone's language proficiency level), which is one of the requirements for employment in that school. These instructors are teaching intermediate level Listening and Speaking Lessons (i.e. skill-based lessons) in the School of Foreign Languages. As seen in Table 4, the instructors I1 and I2 (at the same age) have the same numbers of years of teaching experience while the other instructor has 15 years of teaching experience at university level. Additionally, two of the instructors hold master degrees in different academic fields (i.e. ELL and ELT departments).

3.4. Setting

3.4.1. Preparation Program at Foreign Languages School

The study was conducted at School of Foreign Languages at Firat University, where the main objective of teaching English was to reach at least the lowest end of intermediate level learners to achieve an intermediate level (B2, according to the CEFR) in their linguistic proficiency. To accomplish this, the school has adopted a module system. It comprised of four different modules, each of which takes eight weeks of teaching. Having 24 hours of classes in a week, the first module (level) starts from elementary level and the other modules continue with pre- intermediate and intermediate, teaching integrated skills assisted by a course book (*Headway* by Oxford University). The last module, being different from the first three, includes 10 hours of Academic Writing and 10 hours of Listening and Speaking Lessons, totalling to 20 hours in a week.

All the students need to start from elementary level regardless of their level of prior language education. In each module, they have a mid-term exam, three pop quizzes and one face-to-face oral exam. Their performance in these exams determines whether or not they will be able to continue on to the next level. They need to get a score of 60 or above out of 100 to pass each module. If not, they repeat the same module with a different course book (English File by Oxford University). Also, they must pass the first two levels in order to have a right to take the proficiency exam. At the end of the year, their marks in each successful level and the mark they get from the proficiency exam are totalled on average to determine their pass mark. If they pass the English Proficiency Exam conducted at the end of the academic year, they will be able to continue their education in their departments in the following academic year.

3.4.2. Observed Classrooms

This study was conducted with three EFL instructors who were teaching three student groups: two ELL preparatory classrooms and one ME preparatory classroom. The official permission from the institution was obtained before the study began (see Appendix C). It was reported by Spada and Lightbown that (2009) “classroom-based studies are most likely to lead a better understanding about the kind of interaction that occurs in classrooms where the teacher is the only proficient speaker and interacts with a large number of students” (p.159). In ELL classrooms, the instructors (I1 and I2) were covering “*Q Skills for Success 3*” by Oxford University Press, while I3 in ME classroom was utilizing “*Trio Listening and Speaking 3*” by Oxford University Press as course books. In the observed lessons, the first two instructors (I1 and I2) were covering the same subjects with similar teaching objectives, but the last instructor (I3) aimed to encourage them to talk about past events as well as to mention good and bad sides of doing internship (see Table 5).

Table 5.

Information about Observed Classrooms

Instructors	Observed Class	Level	Number of Students	Topic and Aim of the Lesson
I1	ELL 1	B2	11	Taste and Nutrition (to express cause and effect)
I2	ELL 2	B2	11	Doing Internship (to express good and bad sides of something)
I3	ME	B2	18	

Different course books were chosen for two different departments by the instructors at the school because of students' different future needs and also because the medium of instruction in their departments is English. In ELL classes, 100% of their lessons will be instructed in English while ME classes will be required to take 30% of their lessons in English when they go into their departments. All instructors adopted a communicative methodology, (as expressed in their interviews) aiming to provide an interactional classroom environment to encourage students for more oral production. If the instructors have extra time, they can make use of such materials as pictures, games or other activities independent from the course book. Seated individually, the students faced the board, teacher desk and projector. Apart from these, sharing the same workplace with the participants was practical for the researcher and it made it easy to access the research site.

3.5. Data Collection Tools and Procedures

This section includes an elaborate description of data collection tools and procedures.

3.5.1. Semi-structured Interviews

In the first week of data collection process, a pre-lesson semi-structured interview (see Appendix D for the Turkish version) lasting 12-13 minutes for each participant was carried out with three instructors in their offices at school before they began their lessons

on the day. The pre-lesson semi-structured interviews aimed to inquire about their beliefs about types of OCF they provide (i.e. reformulations or prompts), preferred timing of correction and underlying reasons for their avoidance of corrections. Interviews are employed to map out what someone thinks as we cannot directly observe (Patton, 1990). The eight interview questions were prepared and organized in reference to the earlier studies in OCF research (e.g. Hendrickson, 1978; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Ellis, 2013; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019). These studies were related to the most controversial aspects of OCF in SLA research. Depending on the answers given by the participants, there were small changes in the order of questions for each participant. For enhancing reliability and credibility, the following procedures were followed; firstly, the interview questions were revised by the supervisor; secondly, to ensure clarity and distinctness of questions, the interview was piloted with two EFL instructors in order to confirm clarity and check the order of the questions. At the end of each interview, their statements were summarized to the participants to avoid any misunderstanding. Since the participants preferred their mother tongue to express their beliefs, the semi-structured interviews were conducted in Turkish. Each participant's consent was taken before the beginning of the study. Teacher interview questions are as follows;

- Can you name different types (i.e. ways) of OCF?
- Can you explain how you provide OCF?
- Do you believe that providing OCF is effective on students' speaking skill?
- Do you believe that you are providing sufficient amount of correction?
- What types of OCF do you prefer: providing the correct form directly or leading students to self-correction? Why?
- Are there any times when you ignore errors? Why? Can you give an example?
- When do you think students' errors should be corrected?
- Do you provide delayed or immediate correction? Why?

3.5.2. Video-recorded Observation Sessions

After the instructors' interviews, 180 minutes (*lessons' length=4x45minutes*) of lessons were video-recorded to determine the instructors' OCF practices. Due to such circumstances as student exams, public holidays and the instructors' schedule,

observation time was limited to four hours per participant. Similar studies generally employed audio-recordings to record teacher and student interactions. However, as we employed semi-structured SRI in which the participants watched their lessons and explained the reasons for their contradictory practices, video recording was utilized regardless of its probable effect on the flow of the lesson (i.e. the participants may not remember the reasons for their contradictory practices when they only hear the audio-recordings of their lessons). As Dörnyei (2007) explains “video-recoding provides distinct advantages for classroom researchers by uncovering the realities of classroom context and serves as a useful tool that can be an alternative to real-time coding in classroom research” (p.84). During video recording, a camera was fixed at the back of the class to hear the correction types the instructors provided. The students were told that the camera was not recording their voices but only the instructors’ actions so that a natural classroom environment could be provided (i.e. students were likely to be affected by the possible negative effects (anxiety and embarrassment) of being video-recorded). During the video-recordings, the researcher, who was at the back of the class, had a non-participant role. Twenty minutes of piloting for each class was carried out to handle problems like quality of recording, the placement of the camera and other issues that could possibly arise, but those parts were not analysed by the researcher. The following aspects of the instructors’ OCF practices were looked for in the video-recordings:

1. Teachers’ preferences for correction types (i.e. reformulations and prompts, as illustrated in Ellis, 2013)
2. Teachers’ preferences for timing of OCF (i.e. immediate and delayed correction).
3. Teachers’ preferences to provide or withdraw correction (i.e. avoidance of correction / provision of OCF).

3.5.3. Semi-Structured Stimulated Recall Interviews

As a research tool, SRI was defined as participants’ chance to view their teaching and reflect on their behaviours elicited through the interview (Nguyen, McFadden, Tangen & Beutel, 2013). The researcher watched each lesson carefully to prepare the questions related to the instructors’ OCF practices. . In order to eliminate the possibility that the instructors would change or adapt their OCF practices to better match what they

reported in the interviews, there was at least a ten-day interval between the pre-lesson semi-structured interviews and video-recordings. Conducted two days after video-recorded observations, semi-structured SRIs were employed by asking different questions (i.e. type of OCF, timing of OCF and reasons for avoidance of OCF) to the instructors, accompanied by watching their video-recorded lessons. The prepared questions aimed to stimulate the instructors to give a reason (i.e. to justify their OCF practice) for the mismatches (if any) between their beliefs and classroom practices regarding OCF. Semi-structured SRIs were used as each instructor was asked different questions in relation to their practices in class. Carried out in the participating instructors' own offices, each SRI session took between 20-50 minutes for each participant.

3.5.4. Procedures

With all permissions taken, a six week data collection process began with pre-lesson semi-structured interviews to identify three instructors' beliefs about OCF. One week later, 180 minutes (four class hours) of video recording were made for each instructor. The participants were informed that our research interest was their OCF practices during their teaching. In consecutive weeks, each participant was video-recorded when teaching in the actual classroom context, which was immediately followed by semi-structured SRI to invite them justify their OCF practices, with a particular emphasis on those practices which were incongruent with their beliefs. To illustrate, one of the instructors expressed her concern for the negative pedagogical effect of OCF, but she never kept it during the lesson and she provided excessive amount of corrections. The reasons for this contradiction between her belief and practice were asked to her to justify it in the semi-structured SRI. To ease the justification process, the video-recorded lessons of each teacher were separated into short extracts which were approximately 10 minutes.

The validity of the research is assured through data triangulation. Cohen and Manion (1994) reported that triangulation is to give a detailed planning, full description and interpretation of complex human behaviour by studying it more than one viewpoint. Data triangulation in this study was achieved by using various data collection tools: pre-lesson semi-structured interviews with the instructors (to gain insights into their beliefs about OCF use), observations of their lessons through video-recordings (to observe

instructors' OCF practices and to identify matches or mismatches between their beliefs and classroom practices) and SRI (to ask for the instructors' justifications for their contradictory practices) with the instructors.

3.6. Data Analysis

3.6.1. Analysis of Interview Data

For the analysis, fully transcribed interviews (pre-lesson semi-structured interviews and semi-structured SRI) were subjected to content analysis which is described as “any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings” (Patton, 2002, p.453). It is more than simply counting words in the targeted text, but instead, it aims to comprehend a reality in a scientific and systematic manner (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009). It is an analytic interpretation of contextual data including coding and categorization processes. In the following sections, how the data are analysed is described step by step.

3.6.1.1. Coding

Coding refers to making an organization on the text and drawing the significant parts of the data by putting labels onto them (Cabaroğlu, 1999). After recurrent readings of the interviews, the researcher coded the participants' meaningful responses. Codes were constructed according to three criteria: 1) a word / sentence that is repeatedly uttered by the interviewee 2) a word / sentence that seems interesting or new for the study 3) a word / sentence that is already found and common in the literature. The current literature assisted coding in such interests as preference of correction, timing of correction and avoidance of correction. Coding process started with defining important words (i.e. self-correction, concern about student feeling, language fluency, language accuracy, stop student production, ignorance of errors, less talkative students) regarding the research interest to categorize them. Reading back and forth between emerging codes was given importance to ensure the truthiness of instructors' statements.

3.6.1.2. Categorization

The identified codes were categorized to interpret all textual data. There are two

ways of making categorization: First, the researcher may begin with a set of categories before data analysis (i.e. priori coding) and code concepts to those pre-determined categories, second, the researcher can develop categories according to emerging concepts without preparing categories in advance (Miles & Huberman, 1994). For this study, the former approach was adopted. Categories were pre-determined based on the reviewed literature and aim of the study and the codes were grouped together to form categories. The figure below depicts an example of how we operate contextual analysis of the interviews.



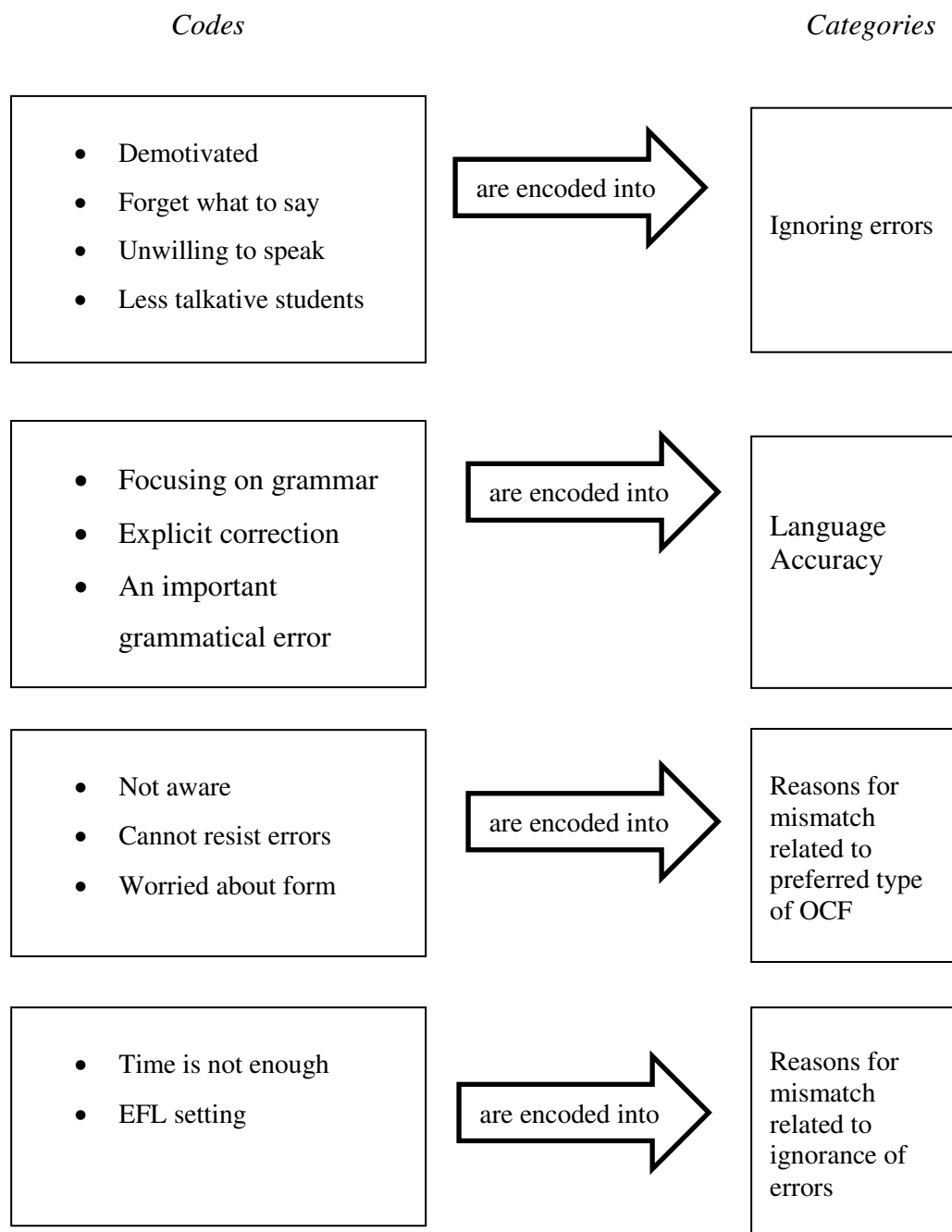


Figure 1. An example for coding and categorization process of interviews

3.6.2. Analysis of Video-recorded Lessons

To analyse the video-recorded lessons, a systematic process was followed. The recorded lessons were watched a number of times and the three instructors' feedback moves were extracted (a similar analysis to Panova & Lyster (2002) and Sheen (2004)) to identify them as reformulations / prompts and immediate / delayed corrections for belief and actual practice comparison (as shown in Figure 2). The occasions in the

video-recording that teachers ignored oral errors were meticulously noted down to make the instructors justify that practice (as shown in Figure 3) later. Figure 2 depicts an example of how video data were analysed.

S2: If you do ... make some diet for yourself

I2: Sorry?

Immediate
Clarification
Request

S3: Green tea can help you *concentrate* (pronunciation error)

I2: Green tea can help you _____?

Immediate
Elicitation

S5: She made a carrier in this field.

I2: It is not carrier. It is career.

If you say carrier, it means 'taşıyıcı' in Turkish.

They are different words. Please pay attention.

Immediate
Explicit
Correction

Figure 2. An example of extraction of corrective moves from the videos

S1: Delicious things always harmful.

I2: "No correction".

Avoidance of
Correction

S2: My friend said me that you should eat....

I1: "No correction".

Avoidance of
Correction

Figure 3. An example of participant instructors' avoidance of correction

Instructors' corrective attempts and avoidances of OCF were thoroughly examined in relation to the statements in the semi-structured interviews in order to make a comparison between their beliefs and actual correction practices.

3.7. Summary

In this chapter, methodological procedures of the study were presented. In the following chapter, the findings from the analysis of data are presented.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the findings obtained through the analysis of the pre-lesson semi-structured interviews, observations (video-recording) and semi-structured SRI are presented. These tools were employed to compare the EFL instructors' beliefs and their actual classroom practices in relation to OCF. This chapter is organized as follows: First, the results of the pre-lesson semi-structured interviews are presented. Next, frequencies of corrections are provided to give information about the content of the lesson. Finally, analyses of semi-structured SRI were presented to reveal the comparison of each instructor's beliefs and classroom practices.

4.1. Findings from the Semi-structured Interviews

As explained in the previous chapter, pre-lesson semi-structured interviews were conducted with three EFL instructors teaching intermediate level skill-based lessons (i.e. Listening and Speaking lesson) at the School of Foreign Languages in a state university. The interview aimed at mapping out what the participant instructors believed about OCF. In the following sections, the findings from semi-structured interviews are presented under four categories: instructors' practical knowledge (i.e. knowledge about how to do it) about OCF, perceived efficacy of OCF, preferred types of OCF and avoidance of OCF.

4.1.1. Instructors' Practical Knowledge about OCF

The participants were asked about how they provide OCF, and they explained how they practiced it in the classroom. They did not utter the names of different OCF types as they did not remember them. They expressed that they provided it to the learner when the learner committed an error. However, I3's (the most experienced instructor) answer was slightly different from the other participants. She stated that she tempts not to provide the correct form directly; instead, she gives some assistance to make the student aware of his / her committed error for students' self-correction.

When asked to exemplify the types they were familiar with, I1 and I3 firstly stated an example of recasts, along with some other types later. Being different from them, I2's first

example was explicit correction. I2 explained that she can strongly emphasize that the student's sentence is incorrect, and she directly provides the acceptable form. She also added that this type of correction could demotivate students, which may put her students' language learning at risk.

4.1.2. Perceived Efficacy of OCF

When the instructors were asked about the efficacy of OCF practices they provided, the beliefs of the instructors considerably varied. Although all instructors agreed on the positive effect of OCF on students' speaking performance, they attributed the positive influence to a variety of conditions such as type of error, explicitness of correction type and students' interests. I1 explained that providing correction might not be beneficial especially for grammatical errors. She explained: "when I correct the student, the student can understand and fix the error instantly, but the same student does the same grammatical error in the next sentences". When prompted to explain her beliefs about error corrections, I2 said:

Oral corrections are not always effective because students may sometimes not understand my correction and make the same error even if corrected a number of times, and that drives me thinking that my previous corrections were not understandable and clear enough, so I prefer it to provide more explicitly for the next committed error.

As to I3, she explained that it was dependent on the classrooms. She explained that ELL students who are more interested in English gives more attention to her OCF instructions while ME students do not care the instructions much, and ME students are making the same errors repeatedly.

4.1.3. Preferred Types of OCF

The participant instructors were asked to state their beliefs about a type they mostly preferred, types that are remarkably effective (i.e. reformulations and prompts) and the correction time (i.e. immediate or delayed) they believed most appropriate. They held some common and distinctive beliefs. I1 and I3 were not sure about the correction type they were using most frequently while I2 surely called recasts as her most commonly used

type of correction. In relation to the OCF types that they found more effective, I1 and I3 were in favour of the important effect of prompts which helped the student become aware of his / her error and initiated self-correction. They referred it to their view of teaching and explicitness of OCF types. I1 stated:

Leading the student to self-correction is more beneficial than giving the correct form directly because the student is allowed some time to check the accuracy of his / her sentence when prompted for self-correction. The student can make an analysis of the committed error.

She also added:

When corrected by recasts, for instance, the student does not analyse (i.e. think about) the error. So recasts should be used less frequently because they may not be recognizable enough. They provide no chance of analysis.

In addition, I3 held similar beliefs to I1 in terms of their preferences for OCF. I3 stated that she generally prompted students for self-correction as she believed that it would ensure more permanent and successful learning. Contrary to I1 and I3, I2 never asserted a fairly effective type. She grounded it on such reasons as students and type of error. She stated that it is dependent on a number of aspects:

For example, some students are able to rapidly perceive my recasts as correction, and find out the error quickly. As another example, if the error is related to content of a sentence, I mean, the error is not linked with grammar and vocabulary, I often resort to elicitation or clarification request.

As for timing of correction, the participants were asked about their preferred correction time (i.e. immediate or delayed). I1 expressed that she took the type of the error and activity into consideration. She stated that she would give immediate correction if the student made a pronunciation error: "The student will possibly forget what he / she pronounced wrongly and be unable to learn and retain the correct pronunciation if corrected in a delayed manner". She also explained that she would prefer delayed correction for grammatical and vocabulary errors if she had extra time. In addition, she

stated: “I generally provide delayed correction when the student is making an oral presentation”. I2 held the same belief with I1 as her preference would be delayed correction for her students’ oral presentations. Additionally, she explained two more occasions in which she felt necessary to put off correction:

If the students are interacting or the committed error does not obstruct interaction between students (i.e. in a discussion activity in which students were expressing their thoughts), I generally note down some errors to show the students afterwards.

She further explained that if the interaction was between the student and herself, her preferred correction time would be immediate. On the other hand, I3 expressed that she always waited the student to correct him or her until he / she completed his / her all sentences.

4.1.4. Avoidance of Error Correction

The participants were asked to state their beliefs about when they avoided providing correction. They stated that there were some occasions on which they deliberately overlooked some errors. In relation to this, this section is sub-categorised to show the instructors’ beliefs about avoidance of error correction.

4.1.4.1. Concerns about Students’ Feelings and Motivation

All participants expressed their concerns about one possible negative effect of OCF: damaging students’ feelings and motivation. I1 expressed her concern as follows: “If the activity in the class is a discussion activity, in which students are expressing their thoughts and ideas, and just a few students are participating in a speaking activity, I often avoid correction”. She explained the reason of that belief with her fear that her OCF instruction may demotivate her students and break their desire to speak. She emphasized that “Insisting on the correct usage may sometimes be demotivating and hurtful especially for less talkative students”.

Holding similar beliefs to I1, I3 emphasized that she will never correct the student if the student does not talk much or he / she does not take part in speaking activities as much as other peers. Being slightly different from I1 and I3, I2 was concerned about student’s feelings when she opted for explicit correction: “Emphasizing incorrectness of student

utterance with some expressions (i.e. you are wrong, it is not true) may demoralize some students. So I generally repeat the correct form of student's incorrect sentence".

4.1.4.2. Concerns about Flow of In-class Communication

I1 and I2 expressed their concern about breaking the communicative flow of the lesson when they provided correction with their students. I1 explained:

If the lesson is flowing, I would rather let some errors pass not to spoil the lesson as my correction may cause to diverge from the content. I mean, if my correction is more likely to cause confusion, I abstain from giving correction.

In addition, I2 emphasized that if there was a conversation between students, she would never cut in the students' speech and avoid correction.

4.1.4.3. Language Accuracy and Language Fluency

The instructors expressed similar concerns for the reason why they abstained from providing correction. They pointed to the aim and type of an activity, which affected their decision on whether to provide or abstain from correction. I2 stated that if she placed more importance on fluency (i.e. in pair or group work and role play activities), she would not interrupt the students as "they are talking in their groups and it is not possible for me to deal with all errors". In addition to her, I1 explained that she would never break off the current conversation by providing correction if the student was responding to a teacher-led question which asked for the student's self-expression (i.e. discussion activity). On the other hand, I3 viewed it from a different perspective: "If my aim in the activity is to make students practice a language form which has been newly taught, I prefer to provide correction, but if it is a free talk among student groups, I mostly ignore the errors".

4.1.4.4. Time Constraints

Among the instructors, I3 stated lack of time as the reason for avoidance of error correction. She expressed that she was not satisfied with the course book which contains a number of listening exercises and drills. She stated: "We need to teach the prescribed units in the course book to prepare students for the proficiency exam. We do not have sufficient amount of time to treat some serious errors". She also added that she sometimes limited the

amount of time she planned to allow for students' speech because of time constraints.

4.1.5. Similarities and Differences in the Beliefs of the Instructors

The instructors held a variety of beliefs when asked a set of questions about OCF. Regarding the comparison among the instructors, some common and distinctive beliefs emerged through the analysis of pre-lesson semi-structured interviews. Table 6 provides an overall picture of the participants' beliefs about their OCF use.

Table 6.

Overall Summary of the Instructors' Beliefs about OCF Use

Instructors	I1	I2	I3
Most Frequent Type	Not clear about it	Recasts	Not clear about it
Most Effective Type	Prompts	Reformulations	Prompts
Preferred Timing of Correction	Delayed correction during students' lengthy speech (i.e. oral presentation)	Delayed correction during students' lengthy speech (i.e. oral presentation)	Delayed correction (not to interrupt student's speech)
	Immediate correction only for pronunciation errors	Immediate correction of talk between teacher and student	
Reasons for Avoidance of Correction	Fear of breaking student's desire to speak	To retain smooth communication in class	Shy students
	Fear of demotivating less talkative students	Type of activity	Time constraints
	To retain smooth communication in class		Type of activity

As shown in Table 6, the instructors' beliefs about OCF were manifold. In sum, the instructors had some hesitations to provide OCF with less talkative students and this made them abstain from correcting these students' errors. Also, they believed that providing correction could sometimes be intervening for student talk in the activities which require communication. I1 and I2 believed that they sometimes preferred giving delayed correction not to interrupt the student's speech. While I1 and I3 saw some bad effects of

any type of OCF, for I2 explicit error correction had bad effects. I1 and I3 took a stand for substantial effectiveness of prompts over reformulations while I2 attributed the effectiveness to explicitness (i.e. saliency) of OCF types and she mostly preferred recasts. Finally, I1 and I2 believed that only when the committed errors caused incomprehensibility or a problem in the conversation did they correct students' errors.

4.2. Comparison of Instructors' Beliefs and Their In-class Practices

This section deals with the instructors' practices regarding OCF, along with some information about the flow of the lesson. It also depicts corrective move frequencies of each instructor to ensure the comparison between what the instructors believed and what they actually performed in the class.

4.2.1. Instructor 1

4.2.1.1. Findings from the Observed Lessons

The lesson started with I1's questions about what the students did at the weekend. It continued with the previous week's unit, followed by one student's oral presentation. Because of time limitations, we were able to record only one student's oral presentation (i.e. in order to observe if I1 was providing any immediate correction). After the presentation, I1 covered the unit of Taste and Nutrition which included some listening (e.g. true-false statements, multiple choice questions about the listening) and speaking activities (e.g. discussions about the healthy and unhealthy food, importance of taste and healthiness of some products) and grammar exercises for cause and effect forms. I1 explained the grammar thoroughly, noting many extra sentences on the board. The only session I1 provided delayed correction was when students were making oral presentations. All the rest of corrections were immediate. As one of our research interests was her belief about an OCF type she provided more frequently, I1's correction moves were extracted from the video-recording to identify her OCF practice to compare it with her beliefs (see Table 7).

Table 7.

Frequency of Corrections of I1

	Type of Correction	Frequency of Correction
Reformulations	Recast	29
	Explicit Correction	5
Prompts	Clarification Request	14
	Elicitation	10
	Repetition	6
	Meta-linguistic Feedback	1

As shown in Table 7, the most frequently used type by I1 was recasts, followed by clarification request, elicitation, repetition and explicit correction respectively. Observed only once, meta-linguistic feedback was the least frequently used type. The total number of prompts (31) was almost equal to the total number of reformulations (34), which showed that I1 was employing both reformulations and prompts evenly.

4.2.1.2. Use of Error Correction

As one of our research questions addressed the mismatches (if any) between belief and practice regarding instructors' OCF use, a comparison of belief and actual practice of I1 is introduced in the following sections.

4.2.1.2.1. Preference of Reformulations and Prompts

As I1 was not clear about what type she was employing more frequently, we could not make a comparison between her belief and actual practice regarding this aspect. In relation to the type she found more effective, the data from pre-lesson interview showed that I1 believed the remarkable effect of prompts compared to reformulations. The number of I1's attempts to guide students for self-correction (number of prompts=31) was in considerable amount in relation to the total number of her corrective moves (65), which confirms that her beliefs were in line with her actual practices.

On the other hand, she also believed that recasts should be used less frequently because of their lack of explicitness. However, I1 used recasts as the most common type of OCF. In other words, I1 underestimated the positive effect of recasts (i.e. a type of reformulation) in comparison to prompts, but she used recasts nearly as frequently as prompts, which reveals a small mismatch between her beliefs and classroom practices.

After watching some sessions in which she provided recasts, she attributed this contradiction to her unawareness of her practicing of recasts and recasts' practicality. The following excerpt taken from SRI describes how she justified her contradictory practice.

I1: While I was watching my corrections, I realized that I was making some of them unconsciously. To be honest, in some cases, I was not aware that I was correcting the students. It may be because of the flow of the lesson. I mean, when the students were corrected in this way, their speech went on.

R: so what you are saying is...?

I1: I mean, if I do not want to interfere much with the student talk...especially the talkative students, I correct them in this way. The student may not be aware of my corrective intent most of the time. The lesson flows. It is like a dialogue between me and the student.

(R: Researcher)

This excerpt indicated that she sometimes provided recasts unwittingly. In addition to this, her explanation showed that implicitness and practicality of recasts accounts for the reason for high frequency of recasts.

4.2.1.2.2. Preferred Timing of Correction

Her practices in timing of OCF mostly diverged from her beliefs as evidenced in the observed lessons. The only lesson her beliefs and classroom practices conformed to each other was when one student was making oral presentation during which I1 noted down some grammatical and pronunciation errors to show her at the end of the lesson. The errors in the student's oral presentation were corrected in a delayed manner (i.e. after the student completed her oral presentation) as she had articulated in the pre-lesson interview.

On the other hand, I1 explained that it was not beneficial to provide immediate correction for grammatical errors although she provided it frequently as observed in the video-recorded sessions (except for video extract 8). I1 explained this contradiction with two reasons: her concern about language accuracy and insistence on accuracy. The following excerpt taken from SRI describes how she justified her practice:

R: In our previous interview, you stated that it was not beneficial to provide

immediate correction for grammatical errors. Is that right?

II: Yes, sure.

R: So, I would like to ask the reason why you used immediate correction for grammatical errors. For example, on the video extract 1.

II: I do not know exactly, but this is an ELL classroom. I may have expected accurate language forms and also the committed error of this student was so serious.

R: So you mean this was an activity which you asked for accuracy?

II: Actually, it was not, but it was a serious error. I do not know, to be honest, I am a grammar-focused teacher. I mean, I just wanted to know what she did at the weekend (not about the focus of the lesson), but I still felt to correct her immediately because I could not stop myself to ignore the committed grammatical error.

Based on this excerpt, it was interpreted that instructor's insistence on accurate grammar and excessive concern for language accuracy even in activities with a focus on fluency prevented the teacher from putting her beliefs into practice. In addition, the data from her pre-lesson interview revealed her belief that grammatical errors should be treated with delayed correction, but in practice, she corrected them immediately. She attributed it to time restrictions (i.e. flow of the course book she needed to follow). She stated: "I do not know exactly, but if I had more time, I would note down some common errors and leave extra time, a class hour, to practice the correct forms of them well." She also explained that the course book has eight different subjects (i.e. units), and content of her lesson changes weekly: "We are obliged to complete all units of the book in eight weeks. Going back to the previous week's content and errors makes me leave behind our syllabus". She also emphasized that she could not bear grammatical errors and she could not stop herself to disregard them. Her explanations indicated that her insistence on grammatically correct sentences and time restrictions constrained her from putting her beliefs into practice.

4.2.1.2.3. Avoidance of Error Correction

In relation to her avoidance of error correction, some discrepancies were found between her belief and actual practice. In the video extract 6, there was a discussion activity in which the students were expressing their thoughts about whether their diets were

healthy or not. I1 never corrected the student who committed a lot of errors. She justified her avoidance of correction: “That student is not as talkative as the others in the class and I never correct her in order not to interrupt her speech. My correction can demoralize her.” This quotation revealed that her belief about when to ignore errors confirmed her practice. However, the data from the pre-lesson interview also showed that she would avoid correcting her students if the current activity was a discussion, in which students were voluntarily expressing their ideas. Contrary to her belief, she provided correction for the same student (i.e. the less talkative one) in another discussion activity, which showed that her practices were not consistent. To illustrate, in the video extract 6, there was a session during which the students stated their preferences for taste or nutrition. After watching the discussion activity, I1 based the contradiction between her belief and practice on her concern about student’s knowledge about language rules (i.e. language accuracy) and insistence on accuracy. The following excerpt taken from SRI describes how she justified her practice:

I1: At the beginning of the lesson, I refrained from interrupting students. In this session, they were talking about taste and nutrition. As much as I remember, this student made the same grammatical mistake (i.e. I want to biscuits) repeatedly. At first, I supposed that it was a slip of tongue. I wanted to be sure of whether the student knew the correct form. I did not interrupt her until I heard the same error over and over again. In the end, I repeated her sentence to correct her.

R: Why?

I1: Because it was a repetitive grammatical error that annoyed me.

Based on this excerpt, it can be said that I1’s decision on correcting or ignoring the error was not taken based on activity purposes, as stated in the pre-lesson interview, but it was mostly determined by I1’s concern about language accuracy. She also added: “I think I am a grammar-focused teacher. I may sometimes insist on small grammatical details. It is possibly because I was also brought up on this sort of teaching.” This quotation was interpreted that I1’s insistence on a perfect grammar was an obstacle to implement what she believed.

Additionally, it could be inferred from the pre-lesson interview that I1’s inconsistent beliefs were another reason that may explain the mismatches between her beliefs and classroom practices. She held two opposing beliefs, one of which was in favour of the

necessity of OCF while another was against correcting oral grammatical errors. In the following section, we provide an overall picture of mismatches between I1's beliefs and classroom practices.

4.2.1.2.4. Mismatches between Beliefs and Classroom Practices

Table 8 summarises the reasons for mismatches between beliefs and classroom practices of I1.

Table 8.

Reasons for Mismatches between Beliefs and Classroom Practices of I1

Belief	Practice	Accounted Reasons for Mismatch
Infrequent use of recasts because of their lack of saliency	Recasts were the most frequently used type of OCF	• Not aware of her practicing of recasts • Implicitness and unobtrusiveness of recasts
Ineffectiveness of immediate corrections for grammatical errors	Use of immediate corrections for some grammatical errors	• I1's concern about language accuracy
Use of delayed correction for all grammatical errors	Use of immediate corrections for some grammatical errors	• Time constraints (Content of the course book) • I1's insistence on accuracy
Avoidance of error correction if the activity is a discussion	Providing correction even if the students are in a discussion	• I1's concern about students' knowledge about language rules (language accuracy) • I1's inconsistent beliefs about avoidance of error correction

According to Table 8, I1 used recasts as the most frequent OCF type in the observed lesson despite the fact that she believed in the inefficacy of them. The reason accounted for this contradiction was dependent on two aspects, the former of which was I1's unawareness of her own practicing of recasts. The latter was recasts' being implicit and the least intervening correction type. With respect to the preferred timing of correction, her

belief was to provide delayed corrections for all grammatical errors because of the inefficacy of immediate corrections. However, it was not implemented in the way she believed. I1 attributed it to her concern about the student's knowledge about language forms. Additionally, providing immediate corrections for grammatical errors was justified by time constraints (i.e. flow of the course book they need to follow) and I1's insistence on accuracy. Her beliefs about when to ignore errors were represented on her practice contradictorily. A variety of reasons were accounted for this: I1's concern about the student's knowledge about language rules (i.e. language accuracy) and I1's inconsistent beliefs about avoidance of error correction.

4.2.2. Instructor 2

4.2.2.1. Findings from the Observed Lessons

The first thirty minutes of the video-recorded lesson included some students' oral presentations, in which students were stating their ideas or experiences about the subject of the previous week. After making delayed corrections for each student's presentation, I2 began the new unit (i.e. Taste and Nutrition) by discussing the open-ended questions with the whole class. The next lessons followed listening activities along with some multiple choice questions, true-false statements, and some grammar practices for cause and effect sentences. The last 25 minutes of the recorded course were dedicated to a speaking game, during which the students were giving some advice for the problems their peers had (the problems were written on the small cards they chose). As one of our research interest was her belief about the OCF type she made use of more frequently, I2's correction moves were extracted from video-recording to observe her OCF practice to compare it with her beliefs (see Table 9).

Table 9.

Frequency of Corrections of I2

	Type of Correction	Frequency of Correction
Reformulations	Recast	31
	Explicit Correction	17
	Clarification Request	11
Prompts	Elicitation	12
	Repetition	1
	Metalinguistic Feedback	1

According to Table 9, I2 provided recasts to correct her students with the highest frequency. She employed explicit correction as the second frequent type, followed by elicitation and clarification request. Observed only once, repetition and metalinguistic feedback were the least frequent types. The number of reformulations I2 employed was higher than the number of prompts. Accordingly, we can comment that I2, in practice, preferred to provide the correct form rather than to allocate the students some time to correct themselves. Regarding the practice of timing of correction, she often provided immediate corrections for students' errors with the exception of students' oral presentations. She did not refrain from correcting some of the errors explicitly despite her beliefs about the negative pedagogical aspect of explicit correction.

4.2.2.2. Use of Error Correction

As one of our research questions addressed the mismatches (if any) between belief and practice regarding the instructors' use of OCF, a comparison of belief and actual practice of I2 is introduced in the following sections.

4.2.2.2.1. Preference of Reformulations and Prompts

In relation to the most frequent type she resorted to, the data from pre-lesson semi-structured interview revealed her belief that recasts were her commonly-used type. This belief was in line with her practice as she often corrected her students by providing recasts. Since she never asserted a fairly effective type, we could not make a comparison between her belief and practice regarding this aspect. In relation to OCF types she provided, I2 was knowledgeable about the negative psychological effect of explicit correction although she employed it as the second most frequent type. In other words, I2 provided considerable amount of explicit correction compared to the other OCF types, along with her awareness of its potentially negative effects such as demotivation and unwillingness to speak. After watching some sessions in which she employed explicit correction, she explained it with her concern about students' bad pronunciation. The following excerpt taken from SRI describes how she justified her practice:

I2: It drew my attention that the explicit corrections I provided were often for pronunciation errors. The reason of my practice may be pronunciation errors. The

pronunciation errors in these sessions may have seemed really serious to me. I may have felt that I needed to be more explicit in that time.

R: Hmm...You believed that it would be more effective if you became more explicit?

I2: Yes, definitely. Additionally, as much as I observed the other students, they had face expressions showing that their friend made a pronunciation error. They were looking at my face for my response to the committed error.

She also added that it was highly probable that they would absorb the wrong pronunciation if not corrected: “I could not overlook the possibility that they would learn wrong pronunciation”. Based on this quotation, we can interpret that I2 found the positive effect of explicit correction more significant than the negative pedagogical effect, which leads her to give explicit correction. Her concerns about students’ pronunciation explained the reason for mismatch between her belief and actual practice.

4.2.2.2.2. Preferred Timing of Correction

In relation to her preferred timing of correction, her belief was often mirrored in her practice except for a few occasions. The data from the pre-lesson interview showed that I2 preferred to use immediate correction when the interaction was between the instructor and the student and to use delayed correction when the students were making oral presentation. This belief reflected on her practice as she was observed to make delayed correction for the first thirty minutes of her lesson (students were making oral presentations in the video extracts 1, 2 and 3). Additionally, I2 also employed immediate correction as in the way she believed. However, she interrupted and provided immediate correction with only two students’ presentations by giving two explicit corrections. I2, in fact, believed that she was making delayed correction for students’ oral presentations. When asked the reason for that practice, she explained this minor mismatch with the students’ requests for confirmation of their pronunciation. The following describes how she justified that practice:

As much as I observed this session, two students (in different presentations) asked help for the pronunciation of some words. They looked at my face directly to ask for some assistance and a confirmation for their pronunciation because they were aware that there was a problem about their pronunciation. If they had not looked

at my face, I probably would not have corrected (video extract 3).

Based on this excerpt, it was interpreted that the reason for mismatch between her belief and practice may be linked with the major importance of students' desire for OCF over her beliefs about the preferred timing of correction.

4.2.2.2.3. Avoidance of Error Correction

In relation to I2's avoidance of error correction, her beliefs and classroom practices showed some convergences and divergences. Two different occasions showed the convergence between her belief and practice. The first one was that I2 rarely corrected one student in that I2 found her shy and less talkative as she clearly stated in her pre-lesson interview. The second one was that there was a class discussion (video extract 13) in which I2 rarely provided correction. When asked about the reason for her avoidance of OCF, she explained that "in this session, another student continued with her friend's speech so I did not want to interrupt the flow of the lesson. I may have let the errors pass as it was a discussion among students". As for the divergences between her belief and practice, some occasions were observed, too. I2 stated that she tempted not to provide OCF when the students were discussing with the whole class or in their groups without any communicational problem. However, there were also some occasions (e.g. another discussion activity in video extract 13: one student was attained to monitor the activity, and speaking game in video extract 18) on which she unavoidably provided a lot of immediate recasts with the students although there was no problem about communication. To exemplify one of the conversations:

S1: Who want to add something?

I2: Yeah, who wants to add something?

When she watched the session, she explained the reason:

In this session, I chose İrem as the leader of the discussion activity since I thought her more knowledgeable than her friends. İrem was asking a question and the accuracy of the question was really important as she was the administrator of this discussion. (video extract 13).

Based on this quotation, we can interpret that I2 may sometimes take accuracy more seriously than fluency even if the activity is fluency-based, which may explain the reason of inconsistency between her beliefs and classroom practices. Additionally, in another session (video extract 15), she corrected the student's pronunciation error when she was giving a brief grammatical explanation for cause and effect sentences:

S2: ... because we ended the sentence with a result.

I2: Yeah, but it is not because with au sound. Do not pronounce it like that. It is 'bɪ 'kɒz'.

After watching the above conversation, she continued: "I give special importance in particular to pronunciation errors because I do not think their pronunciation is good enough. I consider those errors a good opportunity to teach. They will probably pronounce wrongly if not corrected". Based on these excerpts, we can comment that the instructor's concerns about language accuracy and students' bad pronunciation sometimes prevented her from putting her beliefs into practice. However, her practice was in line with her belief that she sometimes found herself using excessive corrections. The following section presents a picture of mismatches between beliefs and classroom practices of I2.

4.2.2.2.4. Mismatches between Beliefs and Classroom Practices

Table 10 summarises the reasons for mismatches between belief and classroom practice of I2.

Table 10.

Reasons for Mismatches between Beliefs and Classroom Practices of I2

Belief	Practice	Accounted for Mismatch	Reasons for
Frequent use of explicit correction may demotivate students	Use of explicit correction as the second frequent type	Students' bad pronunciation (substantial importance given for pronunciation)	
Providing delayed correction if the students are making oral presentation	Providing immediate corrections for two students' oral presentations	Prevalent importance of students' desire for OCF over preferred timing of error correction	
Avoidance of error correction if there is no communication problem	Provision of immediate correction even if there is no communicational problem	- Concern about language accuracy - Students' bad pronunciation	

According to the overall comparison of her belief and practice (Table 10), it can be asserted that I2 held some beliefs, which sometimes revealed a contradiction to her practices. First, her beliefs about the most frequent type of correction conformed to her practices. However, there was a minor mismatch regarding her beliefs and classroom practices about explicit correction. She sometimes overlooked the negative aspect of explicit correction (i.e. it causes students to feel anxious), placing more importance on its relatively strong positive effect because of her students' bad pronunciations. Second, her beliefs about timing of correction mostly confirmed her practices except for a few occasions. The reason for this minor mismatch was the dominant importance of students' wish for OCF over her preferred timing of correction. Last, her beliefs about whether to ignore errors were sometimes incompatible to her practices because of her concern about language accuracy and her students' bad pronunciation (i.e. instructor's substantial importance given for pronunciation).

4.2.3. Instructor 3

4.2.3.1. Findings from the Observed Lessons

I3's lesson began with some questions about school projects the students participated in. When I3 asked them to the whole class, there were few volunteers to give a response. For that reason, she organized the students in groups of four and told them to talk about a project they had participated in. During this activity, I3 observed each group and she rarely corrected her students when they were talking in their groups. The lesson continued with a listening activity, which was about a community art project. In this activity, the students were required to decide if the statements were true or false. After this activity (before the second listening), four groups of students discussed the positive and negative sides of doing internship. The second listening, in which students needed to listen, write down notes, transform the incorrect statements into correct and a matching activity, was about pros and cons of doing internship. Listening and practicing the pronunciation of contracted forms of auxiliary verbs was another focus in the video-recorded lesson. As one of our research interests was her belief about an OCF type she made use of more frequently, I3's correction moves were extracted from video-recording to identify the instructor's OCF practice to compare it with her beliefs (see Table 11).

Table 11.

Frequency of Corrections of I3

	Type of Correction	Frequency of Correction
Reformulations	Recast	16
	Explicit Correction	4
	Clarification	5
Prompts	Request	
	Elicitation	6
	Repetition	0
	Metalinguistic Feedback	0

As seen in Table 11, I3's most frequently used type of correction was recasts. Elicitations, clarification requests and explicit corrections had nearly the same frequencies. I3 never used repetition and meta-linguistic explanation when the video-recorded lessons were taken into consideration. The total number of reformulations was 20 while the total number of prompts was 11. Accordingly, we can comment that I3, in practice, preferred to provide the correct version of the erroneous student production rather than allocate students some time to self-correct.

When observed four hours of video-recorded lessons, it was seen that she often waited for her students until they completed all their statements and then she provided correction. Additionally, I3 generally preferred to make student groups for speaking activities, which I3 attributed to her students' excessive fear of making a mistake in front of their peers and high number of students in the class. She often avoided OCF even when the students made a lot of mistakes.

4.2.3.2. Use of Error Correction

Since one of our research questions intended to explain the mismatches (if any) between beliefs and classroom practices regarding instructors' use of OCF, a comparison of beliefs and actual classroom practices of I3 is introduced in the following sections.

4.2.3.2.1. Preference of Reformulations and Prompts

As I3 was not clear about what OCF type she was employing more frequently, we could not make a comparison between her belief and actual practice. In relation to the type of corrections she believed most effective, the data from her pre-lesson interview showed

her belief that giving students an opportunity to correct themselves was the most effective way. In other words, she believed in the substantial effectiveness of prompts over reformulations. However, that belief represented contradictorily on her practice in that she gave substantial amount of reformulations compared to the number of prompts. I3 explained this with her beliefs about function of recasts, and recasts' practicality. The following excerpt taken from SRI describes how she justified her practice:

I3: To be honest, I thought that providing recasts was more beneficial for my students. The student could hear the correct statement and take me as a model to self-correct himself. When I provided it, I thought that I prompted him to make self-correction (video extract 5).

R: But, here, you provided the correct form directly.

I3: Yes, but he heard my statement and repeated it in the correct way.

Based on this excerpt, we can say that I3 considered recasts as a type of prompt rather than a type of reformulation. Her perception about the function of recasts may mislead her to directly provide the correct form although she found use of reformulations (i.e. recasts) less profitable than use of prompts. She further explained: "I am using recasts automatically. I chose them as they were quick and easier" (video extract 6). She also added: "If I correct the student in this way, the student recognizes the error. The student can learn the correct form quickly without being offended" (video extract 11). This quotation showed that I3 bore the pedagogically negative aspect of error correction in mind since she took recasts as a correction type which was less likely to hurt students' feelings. This consideration accounts for the reasons for dominant implementation of recasts. Along with recasts' practicality, she considered time limitation as an inhibiting element to implement what she believed.

4.2.3.2.2. Preferred Timing of Correction

The data from the pre-lesson interview showed that she never interrupted students when they were engaged in group work or interacting with the instructor. Instead, she waited for her students patiently until they finished their statements. This belief about preferred timing of OCF confirmed her practice as she instructed the same as she expressed in her pre-lesson interview.

4.2.3.2.3. Avoidance of Error Correction

Concerning the relationship between her beliefs and classroom practices related to avoidance of OCF, I3's beliefs were observed partly in her practice. The data from the pre-lesson interview showed that she was in favour of ignoring the errors when the student in communication was less talkative than the other peers. However, she often refrained from doing corrections for most of the students, which she attributed to time restrictions and content of the course book. She neglected some errors (except for students' discussions in their groups) which she, in fact, had a desire to treat: "In fact, I would like to correct more, but I do not have sufficient time to correct each error. The course book has a lot of listening exercises and drills, and they can sometimes be boring for the students". She also explained: "This is not a course book which promotes speaking practice. It offers a lot of listening exercises."

This excerpt indicates that her corrective feedback instruction was influenced by some factors like time constraints and the content of the course book. To be more precise, if I3 had more time flexibility, she would be likely to give more OCF. However, compared to the less experienced instructors, I3 was more patient and tolerant with the oral errors while I1 and I2 employed wider range of types of OCF. The following section introduces an overall summary of mismatches between beliefs and practices of I3.

4.2.3.2.4. Mismatches between Beliefs and Classroom Practices

Table 12 summarises the reasons for mismatches between beliefs and classroom practices of I3.

Table 12.

Reasons for Mismatches between Beliefs and Classroom Practices of I3

Belief	Practice	Accounted Mismatch	Reasons for
Prompts are more effective reformulations than	Frequent use of recasts instead of prompts	• Her beliefs about the function of recasts • Time constraints • Recasts' practicality	
Avoidance of error correction for talkative students	Avoidance of error correction for most of the students (not only for less talkative ones)	• Time constraints • Being dissatisfied with the content of the course book	

According to Table 12, I3 held the belief that prompts were more effective than reformulations. However, she made use of recasts (i.e. a type of reformulation) to correct her students. She associated this contradiction with her beliefs about the function and practicality of recasts and time constraints. As another belief, she expressed that she refrained from correcting some students who were quieter than their peers. However, she avoided providing correction for most of the students even when the errors were not committed by less talkative students. She attributed this contradiction to time limitations and her dissatisfaction with the content of the course book. Her belief and practice conformed to each other in relation to her preferred timing of correction.

4.3. Summary

In this chapter, findings from pre-lesson interviews regarding instructors' OCF beliefs were presented. In addition to this, findings from video-recorded lessons and SRIs were reported to reveal the reasons accounted for the mismatches between instructors' beliefs and actual classroom practices.

In the following chapter, the findings from the present study are discussed in relation to the relevant studies.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed. As explained earlier, the study seeks to explain the reasons for mismatches (if any) between beliefs and actual classroom practices of three EFL instructors' OCF use.

This chapter is organized in relation to the research questions. Section 5.1 discusses the data obtained from pre-lesson semi-structured interviews which seek instructors' beliefs about OCF (Research Question 1: *What are the EFL instructors' beliefs about OCF?*). Section 5.2 is concerned with OCF practices of the participants. The data acquired through the video-recorded lessons of the instructors is discussed relating it to the previous studies (Research Question 2: *What are the actual classroom practices of the EFL instructors' OCF use?*). The next section 5.3 discusses the data from semi-structured SRIs which show the instructors' explanations for the mismatches between the instructors' beliefs and classroom practices regarding their OCF use (Research Question 3: *Do their beliefs and actual classroom practices of OCF match? If not, how do they explain this mismatch?*).

5.1. EFL Instructors' Beliefs about OCF

In relation to three EFL instructors' beliefs about their OCF use, our study showed that two instructors (I1 and I3) in the present study were not clear about their frequently-used type of OCF. We may attribute it to the instructors' unawareness of their own OCF practices which may inform them about their commonly-used type of OCF. In other words, instructors may not always be aware of the OCF types they provide. This awareness can be gained through their reflections on their practices (Farrell & Bennis, 2013). Borg (2003) noted that teachers who observe and reflect on what, why and how they teach are more likely to become aware of their teaching practices. One way of reflection may be teaching experience which gives teachers a set of opportunities for evaluation of their teaching (Baştürkmen et al., 2004). It was also confirmed by Cabaroğlu (1999) who states that one source of beliefs is dependent on

previous work experiences that allow teachers to learn from their mistakes (also Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Another apparent belief emerging from two instructors' (I1 and I3) interviews was remarkable effectiveness of prompts over reformulations. In other words, they believed that learners would learn better if they were not provided the correct version directly, but guided for self-correction. The source of this stated belief can be explained with their observations of students' learning. The instructors may have observed that learners who were corrected by prompts achieved more successful learning compared to the ones who were corrected by reformulations. The same belief was similarly held by the teachers in the works of Yoshida (2008) and Roothofth (2014) which asserted that students' self-correction would lead to a more successful learning. Their beliefs were also in line with the outcomes of Lyster and Ranta's study (1997) which supported the use of prompts instead of reformulations since prompts were found to ensure a higher level of understanding. Furthermore, one participant believed in the inefficacy of recasts because of their lack of explicitness. Her belief was in the same direction of the outcomes by Lyster (1998) and Mackey, Gass and McDonough (2000) which remarked recasts as ambiguous and implicit. The source of that belief can be explained with the assumption that teachers' observations of students' learning interact with her beliefs (Borg, 2003). That is, I1's observations of students' learning may reveal her that recasts are not easily recognized by the students and thus do not provide much benefit for students' learning.

In relation to the avoidance of error correction, the participant instructors held two main beliefs. First, correcting learners may sometimes excite the feeling of demotivation, annoyance and unwillingness to speak, and second, it could be intervening for student talk, damaging the flow of communication. The participant instructors' concerns about correcting errors conformed to Krashen (1982), who asserts that correcting learners may evoke some bad feelings, such as anxiety, worriedness and demotivation to speak and that correcting learners may prevent students from making complex structures because of the fear of making mistake. The source of beliefs of the participants could be explained from the fact that instructors may have had bad experiences about correction when they were language learners. This assumption was previously confirmed by the other studies (i.e. not all studies are about OCF beliefs) (e.g. Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Golombek, 1998; Junqueira & Kim, 2013) claiming that previous language learning experiences may influence the way teachers teach.

Contrary to the present study, Lee (2013) found that neither the teachers nor the students revealed a negative behaviour towards corrective feedback and they disapproved the probable negative influence of correction on students' feelings. The reason for contradictory results between Lee's study and the present study may lie in the levels of students and teaching context, which means that the participants in Lee's study are advanced level ESL students who are less likely to be afraid of making an error when compared to their intermediate EFL counterparts in the present study. With respect to the second concern, the instructors held the belief that they abstained from correcting errors since providing correction may destroy the communicative flow of the lesson. Accordingly, they reported that if the students were discussing or voluntarily expressing something, they would never give correction. This belief held by the participants may be sourced by their teaching experience, language learning experience and their observations of students (Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Cabaroglu, 1999; Borg, 2003, 2006; Gatbonton, 2008), which may inform them about the situations in which they felt to refrain from providing corrections. In a similar vein, seven teachers in Roothoof's study (2014) put their concerns about interrupting the flow of students' speech, along with their preoccupation for damaging students' confidence. Likewise, Baştürkmen et al. (2004) reported that the three teachers were opposed to correcting students when there was no communication breakdown.

In relation to the preferred correction time, the data from the present study showed that the participant instructors held a variety of beliefs which could be both common and distinctive. I1 and I2 built up it-depends policy (Baştürkmen et al., 2004). In other words, they reported that their decisions on timing of correction were taken based on the purpose of an activity. Along with use of immediate corrections, they believed that they put off correction when the students were making oral presentations and discussing something with the whole class. Likewise, Harmer (2007) noted that it was meaningless to stick to language accuracy during a communicative activity which asked for fluency. Being concurrent with the beliefs of the instructors in the present study, one out of eight teachers in the study by Ölmezer-Öztürk (2019) reported that timing of correction was determined by the error and situation. However, one participant in the present study put emphasis on waiting students patiently until they finish their sentences because of her concern for breaking the student's confidence and flow of communication. The reason why the participant instructors' beliefs varied could be attributed to their personal views and styles of teaching (Baştürkmen et al., 2004). Additionally, we may interpret that

instructors' in-class practices may inform them about usefulness and practicality of OCF type and offer some assistance to them for their decision-making process, which confirms the mutual interaction between belief and practice (Phipps & Borg, 2009; Breen et al., 2001). In relation to OCF use, we may interpret that the interaction between instructors' OCF beliefs and practices seem to help instructors select an appropriate type of correction.

In sum, based on discussion of the reviewed studies, instructors' OCF beliefs were assumed to be constructed through their teaching experience, language learning experience, their observations of students' learning and mutual interaction of beliefs and practices (Cabaroğlu, 1999; Breen et al., 2001; Borg, 2003).

5.2. EFL Instructors' Practices about OCF

With respect to the OCF practices of three EFL instructors in the present study, recasts were the most frequently used type of correction of all instructors. Accordingly, their OCF practices shared similarity with a number of studies (e.g. Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Sheen, 2004; Jensen, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Roothoof, 2014; Kamiya, 2016; Yoshida, 2008; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lee, 2013; Demir & Özmen, 2017) claiming the dominance of recasts in different contexts (EFL, ESL, Immersion classrooms). Concurrent with the findings of the present study, one of the prominent works in corrective feedback research (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) reported recasts as being the most common type used by the teachers of immersion classrooms. In addition, the Japanese teachers in Yoshida (2008) provided recasts more often than other types of OCF. They attributed it to time constraints and recasts' being a less threatening type. Additionally, Roothoof (2014) stated that the teachers tended to provide recasts through the observed lessons because of their concerns for damaging communicative flow and students' emotional responses. Similarly, Kamiya (2016) lent support to the present study as the teachers avoided making explicit correction, but resorted to recasts because of their concern about student feelings. The prevalent use of recasts in the present study may be associated with its assistive features for the sake of better communication (Long, 1996), which was also in line with the participants' statements. Recasts are less likely to give intervention to student talk and do not engender bad feelings that make the learner annoyed or demotivated (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). In addition, they are not time-consuming, which makes them more practical to use. Moreover, another apparent

practice of teachers was that metalinguistic explanation was the least instructed OCF type in the present study. The reason for such infrequent uses of metalinguistic feedback may be attributed to the interruptive function of this type especially in activities which address smooth communication and interaction. When corrected by metalinguistic feedback, the student may be more likely to be stopped and confused, shifting from the content of the speech to explanation of grammar rules. Likewise, Ölmezer-Öztürk and Öztürk (2016) asserted that students may be confused by the terminological terms used in this kind of feedback. The same result was corroborated in Roothoof (2014), with the lowest frequency of metalinguistic explanation (except for one teacher). In addition to this, Lee (2013) found that metalinguistic feedback was neither preferred by the advanced level students nor employed by the teachers.

Another apparent practice of the instructors was that the total number of corrective moves attempted by I1 and I2 was higher than those of I3. However, as one of the instructors (I3) was teaching a different student group, which was a limitation of the study, it would be wrong to compare the number of participants' OCF instructions. However, as I1 and I2 were teaching ELL groups who are more likely to attend to their instructors' corrections, as evidenced in instructors' pre-lesson semi-structured interview, the instructors may be eager to provide OCF when they see their students' willingness to receive OCF. Contrary to our assumption, Brown (2009) and Roothoof and Breeze (2016) found that most of the students in their study were willing to receive OCF although their teachers did not have much desire to provide OCF.

5.3. Accounted Reasons for the Mismatches between Instructors' Beliefs and Classroom Practices

With respect to the comparison of belief and practice, our study found some occasions on which instructors' beliefs and classroom practices showed correspondence to each other. To illustrate, I2 held the belief that her most common type of correction was recasts and she implemented it in the way she believed, as could be evidenced in a high frequency of recasts. Additionally, the most experienced instructor never corrected the students during their speech, but instead, she always expected students to complete their statements before providing corrections. Her practice of timing of OCF, similarly to the two experienced teachers in the study by Ölmezer-Öztürk (2019), was completely in alignment with her beliefs. Additionally, as the two participants clearly stated in their interviews, they preferred to put off correction when their students were making oral

presentations, which confirmed concordance of their beliefs and practices. Regarding the observed concordance between their beliefs and classroom practices, we may interpret that if teachers have well-established and consistent beliefs (i.e. beliefs that are strongly embedded in teachers' practices over time), their beliefs are more likely to be represented on their actions (Baştürkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013).

As well as the observed accommodativeness between instructors' beliefs and actual classroom practices, our study revealed that there was a variety of occasions on which the instructors' beliefs and practices seemed to contradict with each other. In accordance with the findings of the present study, there were previous studies which found mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices (e.g. Ng and Farrell, 2003; Farrell and Lim, 2005; Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Yoshida, 2008; Baştürkmen, 2012; Farrell and Bennis, 2013).

In relation to the mismatches between beliefs and practices, our study found out some reasons explaining the discrepancy between instructors' beliefs and practices in relation to their OCF use. Instructors justified their contradictory practices with time constraints, recasts' practicality, concerns about language accuracy (i.e. insistence on language accuracy), their conflicting beliefs about the implementation of OCF, unawareness of their own OCF practices and materials-in-use. Concurrent with the detected reasons, the literature revealed that there were previous studies explaining similar reasons for mismatches between beliefs and practices (e.g. Ng & Farrell, 2003; Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Yoshida, 2008; Baştürkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013). The following paragraphs discuss the mentioned reasons respectively.

Our study revealed that two of the instructors were not able to apply what they believed because of time limitations. More clearly, as they found recasts more practical, they tended to provide them in their lessons despite their beliefs about substantial effectiveness of prompts compared to reformulations (i.e. recasts). The observed contradictory practice can be explained with the fact that oral errors of students cannot always be treated with waiting students until they make self-correction which takes much more time than direct provision of recasts (i.e. recasts are not time-consuming). In a similar manner, Yoshida (2008) found some inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices in relation to OCF, asserting that teachers' beliefs about dominant use of prompts for student errors represented conversely on their practices. The teachers predicated it on managing time and maintenance of assistive classroom atmosphere.

Yoshida argued that using recasts instead of eliciting answers from students may also be related to teachers' avoidance of learner embarrassment. Likewise, teachers in Ng and Farrell (2003) explained their contradictory practice about OCF with time restrictions.

Our study also showed that the instructors' insistence on a grammatically correct sentence (i.e. language accuracy) even in the activities that request students' communicativeness and fluency was an obstacle for them to implement what they believed. That is, the two participants (I1 and I2) of the present study had more concerns on grammaticality than intelligibility despite her opposing beliefs regarding this aspect. This result may be associated with two factors: EFL setting and the instructor's previous language learning experiences. More precisely, as the participants are teaching language in a setting in which their students do not have much chance to be exposed to an accurate grammar other than classroom environment, they may be worried that their students will learn incorrect language forms and they may see their lessons as an opportunity to teach correct structures of language (i.e. effect of teaching context, Borg, 2003). Furthermore, since the instructors were taught English with the traditional methods that place more importance on structural teaching, (i.e. grammar teaching) to which they were accustomed and influenced, they may have employed what they observed from their language teachers. (i.e. effect of previous learning experience, Mori, 2011; Junqueira & Kim, 2013). Similarly, Junqueira and Kim (2013) claimed that teachers' OCF practices were influenced by their previous language learning experiences as all participants in their study seemed to be considerably influenced by the experiences they got when they were language learners. The reason for the instructors' excessive concerns about language accuracy may be dependent on the mentioned language learning experience. That assumption was also supported by Farrell and Lim (2005), who assumed that teachers do not employ alternative ways of grammar instruction, but stick to traditional grammar instruction because traditional grammar teaching is associated with powerful emotions. Showing a somehow similarity to the present study, non-native English teachers in Demir and Özmen's (2017) study were proved to be less tolerant than their native counterparts for lexical, grammatical and phonological errors by the respective correction rates of 96% 70% 67%, confirming the non-native EFL teachers' demands for an accurate grammar.

Our study revealed another reason for the mismatch between beliefs and practices: the students expressed a great desire for OCF. One of the participants employed explicit correction as the second common type of OCF regardless of her beliefs about its

pedagogically negative effect. In other words, her belief about the remarkably positive effect of explicit correction for second language acquisition becomes stronger over her belief about its pedagogically negative effect, which causes clashes between her belief and practice. We interpreted the instructor's explanations under the complicated nature of beliefs (Borg, 2003). This result may be associated with complex beliefs about OCF as inquiries into OCF have relations with both SLA and language teaching fields (Baştürkmen et al., 2004; Mori, 2011). Similarly, Mori (2011) concluded that beliefs of teachers might conflict when they need to make a choice between their wish to encourage students' confidence and their desire to increase linguistic competence.

Another explanation accounted for contradictory practices was the instructor's unawareness of her own OCF practices. One of the participant instructors (I1) stated that she was not always aware that she was providing recasts frequently. Another result was that the most experienced instructor (I3) in our study perceived recasts as a type which led students to self-correct (i.e. recasts, in fact, directly shows the acceptable form), which may also reveal her lack of awareness on her OCF instruction. These results can be explained from the fact that experienced teachers may become automatized in their actions (i.e. automatic and unexamined behaviours, Baştürkmen, 2012) after a while, and the awareness of their own OCF practices may decline. That is, considered from OCF perspective, teachers may begin to draw less attention to the OCF types they employ because they have evaluated their values through their experiences. Vasquez and Harvey (2010) claimed that one way of raising awareness is to make reflections on teachers' own OCF practices. In their study, they aimed to show SLA research and its applicability in a real classroom environment through a replication project with teachers. They found that teachers' beliefs changed after they had participated in a replication project about OCF, which was thought to raise their awareness of their OCF instructions.

Roothoof (2014) associated the contradictory practices with the target researched area (OCF). She argued that as OCF is not a planned aspect of language teaching (i.e. teachers are unable to know what errors will come up and how they respond) some discrepancies can be observed between beliefs and practices. It was also confirmed by Ellis (2009) who claims that teachers are unconsciously responding to particular errors, instead of adopting a pre-established error correction policy. He further explains that teachers need to make instant decision of both a particular strategy and specific

linguistic instruments for that strategy. This requires pragmatic and pragma-linguistic competence, which explains disharmony between beliefs and practices.

The last reason accounted for the mismatch between beliefs and practices was materials-in-use. One of the participants explained that she was not satisfied with the content of the course book in that it contains excessive amount of listening drills which limited her time she intended to spend for speaking activities and her OCF practices. This may lead us to the interpretation that language instructors may hold some OCF beliefs that seem difficult to implement because of the suggested activities in their course books, and they may find it difficult to make a balance between what they would like to do and what the suggested activities in the materials (i.e. course books) require them to do.

Last but not least, we were unable to make a relation between the participants' OCF instructions and their academic background since the instructor I3 was teaching a different student group, which was one of the limitations of the present study. However, we can assume that OCF practices of I1 and I2 who hold master degrees showed similarity to each other in that they used each type of OCF at least once, which may show their familiarity with various OCF types. On the other hand, Mackey, Polio and McDonough (2004) associated the variety of OCF types employed in the classroom with teaching experience. They asserted that more experienced teachers used wider types of OCF compared to the less experienced teachers. More studies in relation to teachers' OCF practices need to be carried out to see whether there is a relation between instructors' academic background and variety of their OCF instructions.

5.4. Summary

In this section, the results of the study were discussed in the light of other studies. The following chapter draws some conclusions, provides implications for the implementation of OCF and makes suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.0. Introduction

This chapter draws some conclusions, provides implications for the implementation of OCF and makes suggestions for further research.

6.1. Implications

The present study makes a contribution to research in two areas: sources of teacher beliefs and the relationship between beliefs and practices. As teachers have personal beliefs and practices which may vary, investigating their beliefs and practices with a case study may be a response to the need for more qualitative studies in the field of belief and practice relations (Baştürkmen, 2012). As explained earlier, investigating OCF is of significance for SLA research. Integration of teacher beliefs and real classroom practices into OCF studies reveals what SLA research suggests and what is actually performed in relation to OCF in language teaching classrooms. This study confirms previous studies which found discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices.

Several implications arise from this study for language instructors (teachers) and language teacher trainers. It should be noted that existence of mismatches between the instructors' beliefs and practices is certainly not a failure or an unusual situation. It is expected to find discrepancies as their implementations of OCF beliefs are dependent on a number of factors as observed in the participants' classroom practices. However, there are some ways of reducing those mismatches: First, language teachers should make reflections on their decisions to provide OCF in their classrooms to improve themselves in their professions and to possess the required language teaching skills such as decision-making, managing time and classroom and providing effective communication. At the end of each lesson they teach, they need to make an evaluation (i.e. in relation to their OCF practices) and become aware of the gap between what they do and what they should do. Zeuli and Tiezzi (1993) claim that teachers' recognition of their own practice is of significant importance as it gives them an opportunity to make an analysis of classroom situations and to handle classroom context thoughtfully. When viewed from

the point of OCF practices, the teachers may become more aware of what type they are using through the reflections they make on the ways they correct their students. Second, especially EFL instructors should not be persistent on an accurate and perfect grammar in the activities (i.e. more tolerant with students' grammatical errors) which only intend to address learner fluency and communicative skills. In addition to this, when viewed from OCF practices, insistence on accuracy may also be troubling for some less talkative and relatively introverted students, making them avoid from oral production (Krashen, 1982). Instructors may also have difficulty in time management as they spend extra time on correcting grammatical errors.

Language teachers should also blend their pedagogical knowledge about OCF with theoretical and practical insights suggested in the literature as a help to establish their personal error correction policy. Furthermore, they should have more established and consistent beliefs and practices in relation to OCF, which enable them to become self-confident and proficient teachers in their students' point of views. Additionally, they should be consistent in their decisions to provide or avoid correction. They should also adapt their OCF practices in relation to different teaching contexts, students and levels, which meet students' needs best for students' language learning. Additionally, a considerable gap between suggested activities in course books and teachers' objectives and error correction policy may put the language teaching process at risk. Accordingly, they need to find a balance between the requirements of the followed course book (i.e. type of activities suggested in the book) and their OCF practices in order to help their students achieve the required language level. Additionally, they should be more careful when providing OCF with students who have different personalities.

For language teacher trainers, it is recommended that they inform novice teachers in particular about potential mismatches between beliefs and practices. Additionally, teacher trainers should create opportunities for prospective teachers to become aware of what they believe and what they perform in real classroom environment.

6.2. Suggestions for Further Research

The present study is a small-scale case study and this makes it difficult to transfer the results to other contexts. Therefore, further studies need to be conducted in different research settings with multiple data collection tools to reach stronger conclusions. First, we worked with only three EFL teachers. The same area could be investigated with

teachers in other contexts (e.g. ESL, Immersion Classrooms, i.e. CLIL, primary education) to identify similarities or differences in teachers' justifications for the mismatches between beliefs and practices related to OCF as different teaching contexts may influence teachers' practices (Borg, 2003). Furthermore, longer hours of observations can be carried out to have a clearer map of teachers' OCF practices and to corroborate the findings of the current study. Concerning the detected reasons for the mismatch between belief and practice, more studies which are dependent on interviews, observations and teacher diaries should be conducted both to develop solutions to lower the extent of mismatches between beliefs and practices and to make teachers more aware of their OCF practices. Finally, the study could be carried out longitudinally to trace changes in OCF beliefs and practices of teachers. A further area of interest may be beliefs and practices of novice teachers concerning OCF.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. ÖĞRETİM GÖREVLİSİ BİLGİLENDİRME FORMU (INSTRUCTOR CONSENT FORM)

Değerli Hocam,

Bu çalışmanın amacı Fırat Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Hazırlık Okulu öğretim elemanlarının sözlü geribildirim inançlarını, uygulamalarını ve varsa inanç ve uygulama arasındaki uyumsuzlukları saptamaktır. Çalışmada görüşme, gözlem ve tekrar görüşme olmak üzere üç veri toplama yönteminden faydalanılacaktır.

Bu çalışmayı gerçekleştirmek için ilk olarak dersiniz başlamadan önce sizinle bir görüşme yapılacaktır. Görüşme dili sizin tercihinize bırakılacaktır. Yaklaşık 15 dakika sürecek bu görüşmede, sözlü geribildirim hakkındaki inançlarınızı saptamak için sekiz soru sorulacaktır. Cevaplarınız (geri bildirim hakkındaki inançlarınız), sonrasında analiz edilmek üzere kayıt altına alınacaktır. Kaydı alınmış cevaplarınız araştırmacı olarak ben ve sayın danışmanım Doç. Dr. Neşe CABAROĞLU tarafından dinlenecektir. Cevaplarınızın analizi esnasında isminiz kullanılmayacak ve size bir kod verilip kimliğiniz gizli tutulacaktır.

Çalışmanın ikinci kısmında (yaklaşık iki hafta sonra), sözlü geribildirim uygulamalarınız gözlemlenmek üzere 45 dakikalık dört adet Konuşma ve Dinleme dersiniz video kamera ile kayıt altına alınacaktır. Çalışmanın güvenilirliğini sağlamak ve öğrencilerinizde kaygı yaratmamak adına öğrencilerinize kendi seslerinin kaydedilmediği bilgisi verilecektir. Kayıt esnasında, araştırmacı olarak dersinize hiçbir müdahalede bulunulmayacaktır ve kayıtlar sadece araştırmacılar tarafından izlenecektir. Çalışmanın son kısmında ise sözlü geri bildirim hakkında inançlarınızın ve sınıfta ne uyguladığının bilgisini vermek için sizinle yaklaşık bir saat sürecek bir görüşme daha yapılacaktır. Bu görüşmede; sözlü geribildirim uygulamalarınızı temellendirmeniz adına video'ya alınmış derslerinizden bazı kesitler izletilip, sizden inançlarınıza ters düşen sözlü geribildirim uygulamalarınızın (varsa) sebeplerini söylemeniz istenecektir. Cevaplarınız kayıt altına alınacak ve cevaplarınızın gizliliği gözetilecektir. Çalışmadan önce, çalışma esnasında veya sonrasında herhangi bir soru için bmsener@firat.edu.tr ye yazabilirsiniz. Değerli görüşleriniz ve katılımınız çalışmamın niteliği için önemlidir.

Yukarıdakileri okudum, anladım ve çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

ADI-SOYADI :

İMZA :

APPENDIX B. ÖĞRENCİ BİLGİLENDİRME FORMU (STUDENT CONSENT FORM)

Sevgili (Öğrenci)

Bu çalışmanın amacı Fırat Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Hazırlık Okulu öğretim elemanlarının sözlü geribildirim inançlarını, uygulamalarını ve varsa inanç ve uygulama arasındaki uyumsuzluğu saptamaktır.

Bu çalışmayı gerçekleştirmek için dört saatlik Dinleme ve Konuşma dersleriniz video kamera ile kayıt altına alınacaktır. Bu kayıta önemli olan öğretmeninizin sözlü hatalarınıza verdiği geribildirimler olduğundan sizin sesiniz ve hatalarınız gözardı edilecektir.

Çalışma öncesinde, esnasında ve çalışma sonrasındaki sorularınız için bmsener@firat.edu.tr ye yazabilirsiniz.

Yukarıdakileri okudum, anladım ve çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

ADI-SOYADI :

İMZA :

APPENDIX C. RESMİ İZİN FORMU
(THE OFFICIAL PERMISSION DOCUMENT)

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 16/05/2018-263882

T.C.
FIRAT ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürlüğü


1975

Sayı :39345886/929/
Konu :Akademik Çalışma (Öğr. Gör. B. Merve ŞENER)

MÜDÜRLÜK MAKAMINA

Yüksekokulumuz Öğretim Görevlisi Bilge Merve ŞENER'in 14/05/2018 tarihli dilekçesinde bahsi geçen akademik çalışmayı yapması hususunu olurlarınıza arz ederim

e-imzalıdır.
Nurten TUNCEL
Yüksekokul Sekreteri

OLUR

e-imzalıdır.
Prof. Dr. İhsan DAĞTEKİN
Yüksekokul Müdürü

EK
Dilekçe

APPENDIX D. YARI YAPILANDIRILMIŞ GÖRÜŞME SORULARI (THE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS)

Adı – Soyadı :

Yaş :

Deneyim Yılı :

1. Farklı OCF (sözlü geri bildirim) türlerini söyleyebilir misiniz?
2. Öğrencilerinize OCF nasıl veriyorsunuz, açıklar mısınız?
3. OCF nin öğrencinin konuşma becerisi üzerinde etkili olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?
4. Öğrenciye yeterli miktarda OCF verdiğinizde inanıyor musunuz?
5. Hangi OCF türlerini kullanıyorsunuz? Daha çok siz mi düzeltiyorsunuz yoksa öğrencinin kendini düzeltmesi için yol mu gösteriyorsunuz? Neden?
6. Öğrenci yanlışını duysanız dahi düzeltmediğiniz durumlar oluyor mu? Örnek verir misiniz?
7. Sizce öğrenci ne zaman düzeltilmeli?
8. Erteleyerek mi yoksa hatanın hemen sonrasında mı öğrenciyi düzeltiyorsunuz? Neden?

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL DETAILS

Name : Bilge Merve ŞENER

Place and Date of Birth : Elazığ, Turkey – September 20, 1992

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EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

2015 - 2019

Master's Degree, Çukurova University, Institute of Social Sciences, English
Language Teaching Department, Adana, Turkey

2010 - 2014

Bachelor's Degree, Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education, Department of English
Language Teaching, Ankara, Turkey

WORK EXPERIENCE

2014 – Current Firat University, Turkey (English Instructor)