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**SANCHEZ CENTENO, ADELINA**

*Crecimiento de una profesora y sus alumnos sobre el tratamiento del error en la psicología*

2016

76159



**UNIVERSIDAD NACIONAL DE RÍO CUARTO  
SECRETARÍA DE POSGRADO Y COOPERACIÓN  
INTERNACIONAL  
FACULTAD DE CIENCIAS HUMANAS  
MAESTRÍA EN INGLÉS  
CON ORIENTACIÓN EN LINGÜÍSTICA APLICADA**

**TESIS FINAL DE MAESTRÍA**

**CREENCIAS DE UNA PROFESORA Y SUS ALUMNOS  
SOBRE EL TRATAMIENTO DEL ERROR EN LA  
PRODUCCIÓN ORAL DE INGLÉS COMO LENGUA  
EXTRANJERA EN EL NIVEL UNIVERSITARIO: UN  
ESTUDIO DE CASO**

**de**

**ADELINA SÁNCHEZ CENTENO**

**DIRECTORA: Mgter. María Celina BARBEITO**

**CO-DIRECTORA: Mgter. Silvana Y. PONCE**

**Año 2016**



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**TESIS FINAL DE MAESTRÍA**

**A TEACHER AND HER STUDENTS' BELIEFS ABOUT  
ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN THE EFL  
CLASSROOM AT UNIVERSITY LEVEL: A CASE STUDY**

**by**

**ADELINA SÁNCHEZ CENTENO**

**DIRECTOR: Mgter. María Celina BARBEITO**

**CO-DIRECTOR: Mgter. Silvana Y. PONCE**

**Year 2016**



**To my dearest aunt and my second mother Perla, who opened the door of the English language and transmitted her passion for teaching to me.**

## Acknowledgements

The writing of this thesis has been the icing on the cake of a long process of study, in which reading assigned material, attending courses during weekends, preparing oral presentations and writing final papers were common currency during the years 2010 and 2011. That is the reason why I cannot thank only the people who have helped me in this final process of decorating the cake, which I assure you was not a piece of cake, but I have to thank all the people who helped me put together all the ingredients and bake it, so here I go...

First of all, I want to thank my family: my husband Damián, my son Dante and my daughter Trini. Their unconditional support and endless faith in me gave me the strength to fulfill this project. I love you.

Secondly, I want to thank my mom, Maria Rosa, who travelled every other Friday more than 300 km to take care of my family and house while I was attending classes during weekends. Besides, I am wholeheartedly in debt with my dearest friend Vero, Ana and my sister in law Silvana who also took care of my kids when my mom could not travel. Finally, I want to thank my father Hugo and my sister Noe who also supported me and listened to me in the good and bad moments of this process.

During the long Fridays and Saturdays attending classes at university, I met wonderful people with whom I spent the most hilarious moments of my life: Lili, Lauri, Euge, Male, Luci, Nati. Thanks for sharing this master program with me. I also found invaluable and irreplaceable friends and also fierce supporters in the master theses supporting WhatsApp group “Las Masters”, thanks for being always there, I love you Lili, Lauri and Euge. You made this experience a lot more fun!

I also want to thank my colleagues and friends in the Departamento de Lenguas at the Universidad Nacional de Río Cuarto for teaching my classes disinterestedly while I took a leave to advance in the writing of this manuscript. Thank you Romi, Vero, Male, and Caro.

I am deeply thankful to my research team members, who have supported and encouraged me to write this thesis; you gave me the strength and self-confidence to achieve this goal. Thank you María Inés, Graciela, Laura, and I am deeply thankful to Mati and Faby who helped me a lot with my writing process.

I want to thank Inés Frigerio, who provided insightful comments on my data analysis. I am deeply grateful for every minute you spent giving me feedback. I appreciated it a lot.

I owe my deepest gratitude to my supervisors Celina and Silvana who believed from the first moment in my ideas and helped me to put those ideas into words. I appreciate your unceasing encouragement and the good rapport that characterized our meetings. Celi, thanks for your kindness to question and challenge to sharpen my ideas and your expertise to guide me throughout this process. Sil, thanks for your unconditional support and your openhearted help, you know that you are very important for me, I love you.

Special thanks go to my brother in law Juli, and my husband Damián who created a wonderful cover for this manuscript and helped me with the figures. Thanks for listening patiently to my detailed requests.

Last but not least, I want to thank Raquel and her students for their voluntary participation in this study and acceptance of my presence among them. I am especially thankful to Raquel, I deeply appreciate your predisposition to participate in this study.

### ABSTRACT

English oral communication is currently vital in this globalized world. That is why EFL teachers have an important responsibility: to develop their students' speaking ability in university classrooms. It has been acknowledged that providing oral corrective feedback (OCF) is one of the major instructional responsibilities of ESL teachers and that, in general, students await evaluative comments on their oral productions from their teachers. Closely connected to OCF are the beliefs held by the teacher and her students about its provision and reception, since a mismatch between beliefs and practice might lead to conflicts in the ESL classroom. Given the relevance of these issues, the aims of this thesis are: to compare and contrast the beliefs held by an EFL teacher and her seven students in relation to the provision and reception of OCF, and to describe the relationship between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices. In order to address these questions, a qualitative approach was adopted and data were collected by means of classroom observations and video recordings, teacher stimulated recall interviews, and teacher and students open-ended interviews. The results showed that the teacher's beliefs were consistent with the students' beliefs regarding the provision and reception of OCF, and that there was partial agreement between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom actions. In addition, it was found that when the participant teacher was faced with a paradoxical situation where some of her beliefs conflicted, it seemed that Raquel's emotions influenced her classroom practices.

### RESUMEN

La comunicación oral en inglés es en la actualidad de vital importancia en este mundo globalizado. Por esta razón los profesores de inglés tienen una responsabilidad importante: desarrollar la capacidad de habla de sus estudiantes en el nivel universitario. Se ha reconocido que proporcionar retroalimentación oral correctiva (ROC) es una de las principales responsabilidades de los profesores de inglés como LE y que, en general, los estudiantes esperan que los profesores les provean comentarios evaluativos acerca de sus producciones orales. Estrechamente relacionado con la ROC, se encuentran las creencias que posee el profesor y las de sus estudiantes acerca de cómo proveer o recibir dicha retroalimentación, ya que una falta de coincidencia entre las creencias y la práctica podría dar lugar a conflictos en el aula de inglés como LE. Dada la relevancia de estos temas, los objetivos de esta tesis son: comparar y contrastar las creencias de una profesora y sus siete estudiantes en relación a la provisión y recepción de ROC, y

describir la relación entre las creencias de la profesora y sus prácticas áulicas. Con el fin de dar respuesta a estos interrogantes, se adoptó un enfoque cualitativo; los datos fueron recolectados por medio de observaciones de clases y grabaciones de video, entrevistas de recuerdo estimulado, y entrevistas semi-estructuradas a la profesora y a los estudiantes. Los resultados demostraron que las creencias de la profesora son consistentes con las creencias de los estudiantes en relación a la provisión y recepción de ROC, además se observó un acuerdo parcial entre las creencias de la profesora y sus acciones en el aula. También se observó que cuando la profesora se enfrentó a una situación paradójica en la que algunos de sus creencias estuvieron en conflicto, las emociones de Raquel influyeron aparentemente en sus prácticas áulicas.

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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

EC	Error Correction
EFL	English as Foreign Language
ESL	English as Second Language
OCF	Oral Corrective Feedback
OEI	Open- Ended Interview
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
SRI	Stimulated Recall Interview

TRANSCRIPT CONVENTIONS

Refers to...	Example
Treated error	<u>error</u>
Overlooked error	<del>error</del>
Comments about the transcript including paralinguistic signals.	((double brackets))
Raising intonation	something~
Emphasis	UPPERCASE
Something was missing	┐
Unintelligible or incomprehensible sound	[INCOMP]

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## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Being able to communicate effectively in a foreign language, especially English, fifteen years after the beginning of the new millennium is still one of the ultimate objectives of many educational systems. Even though in Argentina knowing English is not mandatory in the professional curriculum, university students know that having that knowledge will provide a coign of vantage and excellent career perspectives. Furthermore, it is undeniable that in order to be part of this global community, where the boundaries are blurred and the possibility of communicating with people who do not speak our language is at our fingertips, students have the imperative need to communicate orally in English (Ponce, S. & Sánchez Centeno, A., 2013). To fulfil this requirement, the National University of Rio Cuarto (henceforth UNRC) in Argentina offers a three-year program called “Tecnatura en Lenguas Ingles – Francés” which is committed to preparing competent students in communicating in English and French as foreign languages in multilingual contexts. Professionals graduated from the Tecnatura en Lenguas are able to act as mediators between two people who cannot communicate because they do not share a common language. In addition, many students are interested in this course of studies because their aim is to complement or improve the status of an already obtained degree or a future one.

As a consequence of this need, EFL university teachers have a fundamental role: teaching their students how to communicate orally and in writing through the development of the four macro skills, namely: speaking, listening, reading and writing. Of these four macro skills, speaking is the most difficult to evaluate due to its ephemeral nature and a series of affective factors that play a role in this activity. As Askew (2000 as cited in Hultström, 2006) explains, from the moment EFL students get engaged in an oral activity, they might be criticized, which some people find difficult to handle. Even though EFL students do not get criticized, it is undeniable the fact that getting feedback arouses some feelings and emotions in them and also from the teacher (Hultström, 2006).

Ideally, EFL teachers should motivate their students to develop their speaking ability through varied activities in a relaxing and friendly atmosphere. In this way, EFL teachers are able to listen to their students' oral productions and give feedback on their potential errors (error and mistake are used interchangeably in this thesis). However, many EFL teachers may wonder which the most effective way of providing oral

corrective feedback (henceforth OCF) to EFL students is, and also if their EFL students agree with the way they provide OCF to their oral production.

As Cohen and Fass (2001) assert “the teaching and assessment of oral language in the university level [...] in some parts of the world, continues to be a challenging endeavor” (p. 4). Furthermore, this task might turn into frustration for the teachers who have to correct the same error over and over again (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005), and for the students who might lose face in front of their peers (Cohen & Fass, 2001). Because of this, Hulterström (2006) advises that OCF should be used to a limited extent, since its abuse might have a destructive and frustrating effect on the students. Therefore, “the use of appropriate and quality type feedback can be viewed as a significant tool in enhancing student learning” (Noor, Aman, Mustaffa, & Seong, 2010, p. 399).

Despite the importance of OCF as shown by the existing literature, some EFL teachers might be reluctant to provide it to their students (Cohen & Fass, 2001; Ayedh & Khaled, 2011) and when they do it, they tend to overuse any of the different types of feedback (Ayedh & Khaled, 2011; Gutierrez Oduber & Miquilena Matos, 2009; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002), probably due to the need of guidance and instruction in this topic (Noor, et al., 2010) or due to a set of beliefs held by teachers and students in support of a more traditional approach to language instruction (Cohen & Fass, 2001). As it is known, beliefs have a strong influence on teachers and students’ decision making and actions taken in the classroom context (Barcelos, 2003a; Borg, 2003; Horwitz, 1988; Pajares, 1992); for this reason, knowing their beliefs on this topic is of great importance.

Lyster and Saito (2010) state that “it is effective to employ corrective feedback in response to students’ non-targetlike production because it contributes to target language development” (p. 294). However, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) highlight that it is evident the dearth of research studies comparing students and teachers’ perceptions of oral error correction. In addition, many authors point out that it is evident in the literature the necessity to investigate teachers and students’ perceptions and beliefs underlying corrective feedback moves (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004). Thus, the need for research on beliefs and practices regarding the most effective use of different types of OCF in the EFL classrooms and teachers and students’ preferences on OCF has emerged. Specially, more research would be needed in the context of Argentina, where few studies, to the best of my knowledge, have been carried out

comparing EFL teachers and students' beliefs about the most effective form of providing and receiving, respectively, OCF.

### **1.1. Context of the study**

The Tecnicatura en Lenguas is a three-year program committed to preparing competent students in communicating in English and French as foreign languages and complementing their knowledge of Spanish as a first language. In English and French languages, students reach an upper intermediate level (or B1 according to MCERL) of language proficiency. Furthermore, three more foreign languages are taught focusing on the ability of reading comprehension. These foreign languages are: Portuguese, Italian and German, and only two of them are mandatory in the program and students have the possibility to choose among them.

Students who get their degree as *Técnicos en Lenguas* will be able to work as language assistants in institutions and companies that need to have contact with foreigners. They will be able to combine cultural, communicative and people skills together with the specialized knowledge of English, French and Spanish.

As regards English, this program offers 3 courses called English Language I, II and III. The teaching methodology used in these courses focuses on the development of the four macro skills from a communicative intercultural approach which makes the inseparable relationship between language and culture explicit.

### **1.2. Purpose of the study**

The general aim of this study is to identify and analyze the beliefs about the OCF provision and reception to the English oral production of an EFL teacher and her students in the context of the Language III course at the Tecnicatura en Lenguas.

This study aims at finding answers to the following research questions:

- 1) What does an EFL teacher believe about OCF in relation to:
  - the role of error correction in language learning?
  - the most effective way of providing OCF to her EFL students' oral production?
  - the types of errors that should be corrected?

- 2) What do the EFL students believe about OCF in relation to:
  - the role of error correction in language learning?
  - the most effective way of receiving OCF to their English oral production?
  - the types of errors that should be corrected?
  
- 3) What is the relationship between EFL teacher's and her students' beliefs about OCF in relation to:
  - the role of error correction in language learning?
  - the most effective way of providing or receiving OCF?
  - the types of errors that should be corrected?
  
- 4) What are the different OCF strategies used by the EFL teacher in her classes?
  
- 5) What is the relationship between the EFL teacher's beliefs about OCF and her classroom actions?

These five research questions were built upon the following three constructs: 1) the role of error correction in language learning; 2a) the most effective way of providing OCF; 2b) the most effective way of receiving OCF; 3) the types of errors that should be corrected. It is useful to clarify that construct number two is subdivided into two since they make reference to both sides of the same topic: the provision of OCF. In other words, if a teacher provides OCF to a student, the student is the one who receives this OCF.

### 1.3 Definition of terms

The following definitions/ operationalizations of key terms have been adopted in this study:

Corrective Feedback: In this study, the construct CF is understood as “one type of negative feedback and can consist of (1) an indication that an error has been committed, (2) provision of the correct target language form, (3) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these” (Ellis, Loewen,

& Erlam, 2006, p. 340). In this manuscript the concept of *error correction* is understood as an alternative term for CF.

Error vs. mistake: Even though in the literature there are conceptual distinctions between errors and mistakes (see Corder, 1967, as cited in Ellis, 2008), in this study these two terms will be used interchangeably.

Beliefs: In this thesis, the construct beliefs have been operationalized following Barcelos' (2006) definition: "a way of thinking, constructions of reality, ways of seeing and perceiving the world and its phenomena which are co-constructed with our experiences and are the result of an interactive process of interpretation and (re) signification" (p. 18).

Explicit and implicit beliefs: Gill and Fives (2015) and Fives and Buehl (2012) described beliefs as being explicit (or stated) or implicit. That is, if beliefs are explicit, teachers or students are able to articulate them through language. On the other hand, if beliefs are implicit, teachers or students cannot verbalize them directly, but through their words, actions and context, these implicit beliefs can be interpreted by the researcher.

#### **1.4. Overview of the chapters**

This chapter has presented the background of the problem, the significance of the study, the research questions that guided my investigation and the definitions of key terms in my thesis. Chapter II will include the theoretical framework that underpins this study. The following concepts will be explored: the definition of beliefs, their characteristics, the definition of OCF, their description from two different perspectives and OCF different taxonomies. Chapter III will present the literature review which summarizes the main studies carried out in relation to teachers and students' beliefs about OCF and teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about OCF. Chapter IV will introduce the research design and methodology of the study. Chapter V will present the results obtained from the analysis of the data in relation to the five research questions. Chapter VI will discuss and interpret the findings in relation to both, the theoretical framework and current literature in the field. Finally, chapter VII will present the



pedagogical implications, the limitations of this study and the suggestions for future research.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (2010, 6<sup>th</sup> ed.) has been followed all along this manuscript

## **CHAPTER II: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

In the previous chapter, the context and main purpose of this study were presented in detail. This chapter presents the theoretical framework of this work, which is divided into two main sections. In the first section, the concept of beliefs will be introduced and thoroughly described; then, current developments on teacher and student beliefs will be presented, and finally, the relationship among beliefs, actions and context will be discussed. In the second section, the concept of oral corrective feedback will be described from a sociocultural perspective as well as from a cognitive/interactionist one.

### **1.1 Beliefs within SLA**

The interest in beliefs in the field of SLA began in the mid 80's and it has expanded rapidly during the last decades (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2013). From that time to the present, researchers have acknowledged the great importance and influence that beliefs have on the processes of teaching and learning a foreign or second language (Andrews, 2003; Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Kissau, Agozzine & Yon, 2012; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). The importance of the study of beliefs rests on the fact that they influence our actions and may act as strong filters through which we redefine reality (Arnold, 1999; Borg, 2001; Fang, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Kagan, 1992a). Currently, certain specific issues have been studied in relation to language teaching and learning beliefs, to name a few: beliefs about grammar instruction (Loewen, Li, Fei, Thompson, Nakatsukasa, Ahn & Chen, 2009; Schulz, 2001), beliefs about teaching and learning strategies (Ali & Ammar, 2005; Hu & Tian, 2012), beliefs about error correction, (Cardoso Vieira, 2011), etc. In addition, Barcelos and Kalaja (2013) highlight that “there are crucial issues to be studied that include teacher beliefs and their relationship to (a) actions, (b) change and teacher learning, and (c) beliefs held by students” (, p. 2).

In this section and with the aim of developing the theories that frame my study the following concepts related to beliefs per se will be developed: definition, methodological approaches, characteristics, teachers and students' beliefs, and the relationship between beliefs and actions.

## 1.2 Defining Beliefs

Beliefs have been defined as “elusive” (Barcelos, 2003a) and “messy” (Pajares, 1992) concepts due to their complex nature and in turn due to the difficulty to reach a general consensus about their basic essentials. Another source of struggle in trying to define beliefs is the great array of definitions that exist in the literature which result from the diversity of fields in which beliefs have been studied (Pajares, 1992) and the variety of approaches adopted to study them (Barcelos, 2003a). Nevertheless, the significant influence that beliefs exert on teachers and learners’ actions in educational contexts is undeniable (Barcelos, 2006; Barcelos & Kalaja, 2013; Breen, 2001 as cited in Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Kern, 1995; Mori, 2002). As Barcelos and Kalaja (2013) claim “researching teacher beliefs about language learning and teaching has been a challenging task, not only because of the complex nature of the phenomenon but also because of the variety of terms and definitions introduced in the literature over the years” (p. 2). Even though researchers acknowledge the difficulty of studying beliefs, they encourage further research to continue contributing to the field so as to gain a better understanding of this “elusive” and “messy” concept.

Due to the complex nature of beliefs, they have been studied from different angles. Barcelos (2003a) identified three different approaches to study them: the normative, the metacognitive and the contextual approach<sup>2</sup>. According to the normative approach, beliefs are considered “preconceived notions, myths or misconceptions” which can be studied using Likert-type questionnaires, being the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory – BALLI (Horwitz, 1987a as cited in Ellis, 2008) the most widely used. The data are generally analyzed through descriptive statistics. In this approach, the context and its influence on beliefs is not considered. As for the metacognitive approach, it defines beliefs as metacognitive knowledge which constitutes “theories in action” (Wenden, 1987, as cited in Barcelos, 2003a). The data are collected through semi-structured interviews and self-reports, and it is analyzed by using the technique of content analysis. The information obtained only allows inferring beliefs from statements, since the context and its influence are not taken into consideration.

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<sup>2</sup> However, in recent publications, Kalaja and Barcelos (2013) claimed that research into beliefs “were conducted basically along two lines of research” naming only the normative and the contextual approaches. (p. 3)

The third approach identified by Barcelos (2003a) is called the contextual approach. As indicated by its name, within this framework, the context is considered crucial for understanding how beliefs operate. Researchers who adhere to this approach, aim at understanding beliefs in “specific contexts” rather than making generalizations about them. In this approach beliefs are described as “contextual, dynamic and social” (Barcelos, 2003a, p. 20) embedded in a context which is considered “socially constructed, interactively sustained, time-bound phenomena” (Goodwin & Duranti, 1992, as cited in Barcelos, 2003a). It involves a variety of data collection methods such as ethnographic classroom observation, case studies, metaphor analysis and diaries. Even though these data collection methods allow the researcher to study teachers and students interacting in their environment and see the relationship between beliefs and actions in a more direct way, they are time consuming and usually suitable for small samples. Barcelos (2013) asserts that “beliefs about SLA should be investigated interactively, where beliefs and actions interconnect and interrelate with each other” (p. 7).

This study is framed within the contextual approach due to the way in which beliefs are understood, the data collection methods employed and the way of visualizing the relationship between beliefs and actions. I consider this approach to be the most comprehensive and the one that better adapts to the central aims of this study. In addition, a recent out-growth of the contextual approach to study beliefs is the introduction of the sociocultural perspective to research on beliefs about SLA (Barcelos, 2011). Kalaja and Barcelos (2013) state that at present socioculturally oriented research goes hand in hand with traditional cognitively oriented research, which creates a continuum of orientations. Negueruela-Azarola (2011) adds to this concept by affirming that this Vygotskian approach has emerged as a “complementary path to exploring beliefs as contextually situated social meanings emerging in specific sense-making activities” (p. 368-369). The sociocultural approach proposes that beliefs are “historically stable because of their social meaning but susceptible to change because of their contextual nature” (Negueruela-Azarola, 2011, p. 360). This theory brings together social and psychological concepts in order to study beliefs in their natural environment. Unlike traditional cognitive perspectives, the sociocultural theory (henceforth SCT) underpinnings reside in the belief that the social dimension is crucial, while the individual dimension is of secondary importance (Vygotsky, 1979, as cited in Bernat, 2008). That is to say, “what impacts the phenomenon (e.g., learner beliefs) is of greater

importance than the phenomenon itself, yet both are important to understanding the whole” (Bernat, 2008, p. 4). Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) highlight that this framework brings all the participants together in their learning setting: the teacher, the learner, the social and cultural spectrum, their intentions, goals, resources available, etc. Cross (2010) further expands on this claim stating that this increase of the situated and social nature of learning has raised the need to understand the linguistic contexts together with all the participants involved. Negueruela-Azarola (2011) affirms that SCT “is a theory about how the social/ communicative realm is internalized into the private/conceptual realm, to then once again become social/ communicative (*ad infinitum*)” (p. 360). Everything considered, this thesis builds on the recent offshoot of the contextual approach to study beliefs called sociocultural perspective (Barcelos, 2013).

I consider that the definition of beliefs provided by Barcelos (2006) is the one that better adapts to the approach and purpose of this thesis. She defines beliefs as “a way of thinking, constructions of reality, ways of seeing and perceiving the world and its phenomena which are co-constructed with our experiences and are the result of an interactive process of interpretation and (re) signification” (p. 18). In this definition, Barcelos defines beliefs including cognitive elements (a way of thinking, constructions of reality, ways of seeing and perceiving the world and its phenomena), she makes reference to the context (the world and its phenomena) and includes the social, interactive and dialogical dimensions (which are co-constructed with our experiences and are the result of an interactive process of interpretation and (re) signification). This definition is also coherent with both a contextual approach to study beliefs (Barcelos, 2003a) and the sociocultural perspective (Barcelos, 2013; Alanen, 2003; Negueruela-Azarola, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011) adopted in this study. Furthermore, this definition makes reference to three central pillars of the sociocultural perspective, namely: the cognitive, the contextual and social elements. All in all, this definition adjusts to the study’s empirical framework and reflects my personal ideological viewpoint.

### **1.3 The characteristics of beliefs**

Many authors have proposed different characteristics for beliefs, among them: Barcelos and Kalaja (2003 as cited in Barcelos 2006), Fives and Buehl (2012), Gabillion (2005), Gill and Fives (2015), Nespor (1987), Pajares (1992).

Among the characteristics attributed to beliefs, Barcelos and Kalaja (2003, as cited in Barcelos, 2006) proposed the following set of belief characteristics: 1) dynamic, since they may change after a period of time; 2) emergent, socially constructed and contextually situated, since beliefs are not fixed mental structures but they can change and develop as we interact and modify our experiences; 3) experiential, because it is now recognized that every form of cognitive process emerges from the contextual nature of human existence and experience (Langacker, 1990, 1991, as cited in Barcelos, 2006); 4) mediated, since they can be seen as tools to regulate learning or solve problems; 5) paradoxical and contradictory, as they can be seen either as tools or as obstacles in the learning and teaching situation, and also because they are socially constructed, but they are individual and unique as well; 6) related to actions in an indirect and complex way and due to the fact that beliefs not always influence actions, there are other factors, such as context, that also play a very important role; and 7) not easily differentiated from other similar concepts such as knowledge.

In addition to these characteristics, Pan and Block (2011) argued that there is a need to consider the socially situatedness of beliefs, as emergent in moment-to-moment interaction. The links between individually expressed beliefs and larger social forces should be unveiled. As Barcelos (2003) explains, because “ [l]anguage learning is embedded in a political and historical context and learners’ views will inevitably touch upon these” (p. 237, as cited in Pan & Block, 2011), beliefs necessarily relate to the wider socio-political context.

In addition to the characteristics proposed by the above mentioned authors, Gill and Fives (2015) and Fives and Buehl (2012) described beliefs as being explicit (or stated) or implicit. That is, if beliefs are explicit, teachers or students are able to articulate them through language, i.e. they can talk, discuss or wonder about them; besides, researchers can ask teachers what their beliefs are and use those responses as the unit of analysis (e.g., Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004). On the other hand, if beliefs are implicit, teachers or students cannot verbalize them directly, but through their words, actions and context, these implicit beliefs can be interpreted by the researcher. In Fives and Buehl’s (2012) words, implicit beliefs “guide a teacher’s behavior and filter interpretation of teaching experiences without the teacher’s awareness” (p. 474). Moreover, implicit beliefs are also beyond the control of the teacher (Nespor, 1987) and cannot be influenced through personal reflective practice. Fives and Buehl (2012) claim that in the revision of pertinent literature, the implicit or

explicit nature of beliefs is often not addressed, even though these are very important belief characteristics that need to be taken into account.

A related point to consider is the new set of characteristics about the nature of beliefs from a sociocultural approach proposed by Barcelos (2011). From this perspective, beliefs are seen as fluctuating in nature since the same person can hold different beliefs about an aspect of SLA in a short period of time; fluctuation is in general influenced by significant others, the context, emotions and self-concept. What is more, beliefs are complex and dialectical because their nature is paradoxical, since they can be characterized by polarities such as being stable and dynamic, or social but personally significant. Furthermore, they are related to the micro- and macro-political contexts and discourses in which they are immersed; therefore, they are considered socio-political products. Moreover, they are intrinsically related to other affective constructs such as emotions and self-concepts and for this reason they have important implications in the way students face the language learning process. In addition, beliefs are considered other-oriented because significant others can influence the incorporation or affirmation of beliefs. Besides, beliefs can change or be redefined if they are reflected upon, or triggered by emotions.

Therefore, a sociocultural approach provides us with the tools to study teacher and student beliefs enwrapped in their natural context. The notion of beliefs as being social dialectical conceptualizations underpins the sociocultural approach to study beliefs. A further concept that is crucial in the sociocultural approach is the mediational nature attributed to beliefs. This concept is supported by many authors, e.g.: De Costa, (2011); Navarro and Thornton, (2011); Negueruela-Azarola, (2011); Yang and Kim, (2011); Peng, (2011) to name a few. Departing from the central view that the relationship between an individual and the social contexts is reciprocal in nature, Vygotsky (1978 as cited in Yang & Kim, 2011) suggested that as we use physical tools to interact with the external world, “we also use culturally organized symbolic (or psychological) tools to regulate and promote intellectual development” (Yang & Kim, 2011, p. 326). This process is called mediation and is accomplished by mediational tools such as beliefs. According to Negueruela-Azarola (2011) sociocultural theory provides new understandings of beliefs, since they are defined as “a very specific type of mediational means” (Alanen, 2003, p. 60). Once beliefs turn into mediational means, “these can have an effect on learners or teachers and their actions, and in the case of



learners either enhance their learning of languages or prevent them from learning them” (Barcelos, 2011, p.1).

This concept of mediation is central because it provides a new position to the complex concept of beliefs and restates their importance in the processes of teaching and learning an L2. Due to the nature of beliefs and to the influence they have on actions, it is of great importance to take into consideration the beliefs held by both participants of the processes of teaching and learning, i.e. teachers and students so as to have a better understanding of these processes.

#### **1.4 Teachers and Students’ Beliefs**

In addition to the characteristics attributed to beliefs in general, Barcelos and Kalaja (2013) have recently characterized teachers’ beliefs in particular. These authors described beliefs taking into consideration the contribution made by Pajares (1992) and Kalaja and Barcelos (2003). Teacher beliefs are currently characterized as follows: first, beliefs are claimed to be contextual, personal, experiential, social, cognitive, and constructed in discursive practices. Second, teacher beliefs are described as dynamic and variable from one situation to another. According to Barcelos (2006) beliefs change over a period of time and during the course of our life. Third, they are intrinsically related to actions, which guide and influence them (this topic will be further discussed in section 1.5). In the fourth place, beliefs are part of teachers’ interpretive ability to make sense of the social world around them and respond to the problems they might be faced with. This is directly related to what Arnold (1999) claimed about beliefs: they “act as strong filters of reality” (p. 256). In the fifth place, beliefs are organized into clusters; besides earlier beliefs are claimed to be more difficult to change “because these are more closely related to a teacher’s emotions and sense of self” (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2013, p. 2). This might be the reason why some beliefs are resistant to change. In the sixth place, beliefs assist teachers to better know themselves and others and better adapt to a context. As a result of this, beliefs provide meaning, structure, order, direction, and shared values. Finally, Barcelos and Kalaja (2013) concluded that beliefs also help people to feel identified with groups and social systems, consequently reducing dissension and conflicts.

In addition, student beliefs have also been described and attributed some particular characteristics. In this respect, Ellis (2008) noted that learners’ beliefs are



“neither an ability nor a trait-like propensity for language learning” (p. 698); however, learner beliefs influence both “the process and the product of learning” (Ellis, 2008, p. 699). Ellis (2008) also characterized learner beliefs as dynamic and situated that do not exist only in the students’ head; rather, they are “discursively constructed through [their] negotiation with the various social actors that surrounded [them]” (De Costa, 2011, p. 355-356). Furthermore, Yang and Kim (2011) asserted that “learner beliefs are constantly (re)shaped in accordance with L2 goals and in the context of social interaction” (p. 325). Nevertheless, when students’ beliefs are seriously incongruent with those of their teachers, problems arise, as students may misinterpret their teachers’ expectations and intentions, and this may in turn trigger students’ passive or even active resistance (Barcelos, 2000, as cited in Wan, Low & Li, 2011). The implications of these possible incongruences between teachers and students’ beliefs will be discussed in detail in the following paragraph.

It has been gradually recognized that in order to understand the complex nature of beliefs in classroom realities it is important to study the beliefs held by the two parties involved: teachers and students (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2013). Their beliefs should be compared and contrasted in the specific context where they find themselves in order to analyze a possible match in their beliefs, which is thought to be productive to learning, or a potential mismatch in their beliefs, which is thought to be counterproductive to learning. According to Barcelos and Kalaja (2013), the possibility of understanding the relationship between teachers and students’ beliefs, specifically mismatches, can provide insights into the following aspects of the language classroom: “(a) misunderstandings and miscommunication, (b) challenges by students to their teachers’ credibility, (c) the engagement of learners in strategies disapproved of by their teachers, and (d) withdrawal and feelings of unhappiness experienced by students” (p. 2-3). In sum, mismatches between teachers and students’ beliefs can affect students’ motivation, effort and performance, which may create conflicts in the classroom. Kalaja and Barcelos (2013) argue that most researchers have recognized that students’ beliefs “about aspects of language learning are much more crucial than was thought before in determining how learners approach their learning of second or foreign languages and as such are complex mediational tools intertwining with learner action in complex ways” (p. 5).

All in all, the description of beliefs and their nature provides a broader scope of this construct, and the addition of concepts from the sociocultural perspective has made

this issue more comprehensible. In order to continue adding to our understanding of beliefs, it is necessary to explicate the close relationship between beliefs and actions in their specific contexts or communities of practice.

### **1.5 Beliefs, Actions and Context**

The relationship between beliefs and actions has been a recurrent theme in research on beliefs and it is considered crucial in understanding them. According to Woods (2003, as cited in Barcelos, 2006) beliefs exert a strong influence on actions and actions, in turn, also exert a strong influence on beliefs. In earlier research on beliefs (Barcelos, 2006), this relationship was described in three different ways: as a simple cause-and-effect relationship, i.e., beliefs influence actions; as an interactive relationship, i.e., beliefs influence actions but actions also influence beliefs; or as a hermeneutic relationship, in which contextual factors might cause a discrepancy between beliefs and actions (Barcelos, 2011).

Nevertheless, as Negueruela-Azarola (2011) affirms, “the relationship between thinking, articulation of beliefs through language, and actions as learners and teachers in the L2 classroom is not a direct one” (p. 361). He points out that the relationship between beliefs and actions is undoubtedly complex and it might be multifaceted and contradictory; what is more, this relationship might be not easily captured either in research or in learning, development, or cognition theories. From a Vygotskian point of view, the fact that in some cases there is no correspondence between beliefs and action is not considered a methodological problem, but a consequence of trying to make sense of actions. Barcelos and Kalaja (2013) argue that contradictions or inconsistencies between teacher beliefs and practices can provide insights into the culture of teaching.

Richardson (1996, as cited in Barcelos, 2006) proposes two possibilities to be considered in order to better understand the relationship between beliefs and actions in a specific context. The first possibility is when beliefs do not correspond to actions; this can be explained taking in consideration the fact that beliefs may evolve but in some cases actions do not go together with this evolution because they have been fossilized in a previous state of the beliefs. Similarly, Borg (2003) adds to this conceptualization referring to what he calls behavioral change and cognitive change. He explains that a change in behavior does not directly presuppose a change at the cognitive level or the other way round.

The second possibility proposed by Richardson (1996, as cited in Barcelos, 2006) is the influence of contextual factors, which can explain why some beliefs cannot be reflected in actions. More specifically, Borg (2003) has identified some contextual factors that can shape teachers' classroom performance; they are: demands from pairs, authorities and society, difficult working conditions, and resource availability among others. In a similar way, Fang (1996) argues that inconsistencies between beliefs and actions are expected, since the complexities of classroom realities can hamper a teacher's possibility to reflect on their beliefs about their classroom actions. Barcelos and Kalaja (2013) further explain that teachers' realities "might make them subscribe to beliefs based on what they think is part of the current teaching paradigm, instead of what they actually do in class" (p. 3).

Therefore, the adoption of a sociocultural approach, in which the strong recognition of the importance of social context and interaction in the language teaching and learning processes is overtly expressed (Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994), might help researchers examine the relationship between belief, action and context, and its impact on language learning more closely. Researchers who adhere to this approach propose that beliefs are not only "socially-situated [...] but also socially constructed in that they are actually shaped by the individual's interaction with their environment" (Alanen, 2003; Woods, 2003 in Navarro & Thornton, 2011). The challenge is to capture how beliefs function in shaping learning and teaching actions (Barcelos, 2003a).

To summarize, research has proved that the relations between beliefs and actions is an intricate one, with the addition that the context in which they are immersed plays an unquestionable role in understanding and analyzing this complex relation.

As described in the previous paragraphs, the study of teachers and students' beliefs is of great importance in the field of EFL. More importantly, it has been suggested that CF plays an essential role in the kind of support that teachers provide to students to promote their L2 learning (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Therefore, in order to learn more about this complex phenomenon, the definition, the description from different perspectives and different taxonomies of OCF will be described in the next section.

## **2.1 Defining Oral Corrective Feedback**

In this section, Oral Corrective Feedback (hereafter, OCF) will be described from two different angles: a sociocultural perspective and a cognitive/interactionist view. According to Ellis (2009) “both perspectives help to illuminate CF and the role it plays in L2 acquisition” (p.16). OCF has always been a complex phenomenon and a matter of debate among ESL and EFL teachers and SLA researchers. It can be defined as the teacher’s reaction to the student’s erroneous oral production. For more than three decades, the usefulness, description, taxonomy, context, and efficacy of OCF have been under inquiry, especially after Hendrickson’s (1978) seminal study, in which he established five fundamental questions about how to handle OCF in the EFL classroom. These still prevailing questions are: “Should learner errors be corrected? If so, when should learner errors be corrected?; Which learner errors should be corrected?; How should learner errors be corrected?; Who should correct learner errors?” (Hendrickson, 1978, p. 389).

Indisputably, OCF is an integral part of teaching. Evidence of its importance is the fact that it occurs frequently in most EFL classrooms; it has been addressed in most teacher handbooks, and it has been the subject of a large number of empirical studies (Ellis, 2009). Yet, its complex nature deters from finding clear conclusions that can serve as the basis for informed advice to teachers. This complexity has implications for how OCF is handled in the EFL classroom.

### **2.1.1 OCF from a Sociocultural Perspective**

From a sociocultural perspective, error correction is considered as “a social activity involving joint participation and meaningful transactions between the learner and the teacher” (Nassaji & Swain, 2000, p. 35). According to Ellis (2009), CF is a highly complex phenomenon that manifests cognitive, social and psychological dimensions. He explains that the cognitive dimension accounts for “how learners process the information provided by CF for acquisition i.e. the interactions between input, output and the learner’s internal mechanisms” (Ellis, 2007). The social dimension makes reference to the fact that the social context and the social background of the teacher and the students influence both the practice of CF and students’ capacity to benefit from it. Finally, the psychological dimension addresses to “how individual difference factors such as beliefs about learning, language aptitude and anxiety impact

on both the teacher's choice of CF strategies and learners' responses to them" (Ellis, 2007). Ellis argues that these dimensions must be taken into account by any "error correction policy".

#### **2.1.1.1 Novice and expert interaction**

The sociocultural approach considers these three dimensions (cognitive, social and psychological), since some general principles of this perspective are that learning is a dialogical process, which occurs *in* rather than *as a result of* interaction (Ellis, 2008, emphasis in the original). This dialogical interaction makes what the students can and cannot do without assistance visible. This assistance is provided by an expert or more knowledgeable other to a novice or less knowledgeable other. This idea is known as scaffolding and, according to Donato (1994) it refers to a 'situation where a knowledgeable participant can create supportive conditions in which the novice can participate, and extend his or her current skills and knowledge to higher levels of competence' (as cited in Nassaji and Swain, 2000). One of the most important implications that this notion has for L2 learning is that "learners need to be scaffolded and supported in their complex task of learning a second language as they interact with the teacher or peers" (Nassaji & Swain, 2000, p. 36). Nassaji and Swain (2000) explain that the concept of scaffolding is a shared process which is constructed based on the learner's need operating within the learner's ZPD<sup>3</sup>. Donato (1994) explains that under these conditions "help is generated as a joint effort and through the supportive condition created in social interaction by the novice and the expert" (as cited in Nassaji and Swain, 2000). From this perspective, the effectiveness of CF does not depend exclusively on the type of feedback, but on the way CF progresses in the interaction and the way CF is negotiated between the novice and the expert (Nassaji & Swain, 2000).

A suitable and often-cited study on how SCT can be applied to CF is the work by Aljaafreh & Lantolf (1994). According to these authors, the effectiveness of OCF depends on the negotiation produced between the expert and the learner and the accurate provision of the OCF within the learner's ZPD. Furthermore, Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) determined three general principles that govern the effectiveness of feedback. Feedback must be: 1) "graduated" (i.e. the tutor should not provide more help

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<sup>3</sup> This refers to "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the level of potential development as determined through adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1986, as cited in Ellis, 2008, p. 235)

than it is needed), 2) “contingent” (i.e. the help should be provided and ceased in the right time) and 3) “dialogic” (i.e. the activity is performed between more capable and less capable individuals). These principles help us visualize the complex nature of CF and the importance of its effective implementation in the classroom context.

In conclusion, the sociocultural perspective considers the concept of CF as a highly complex phenomenon, which has three different dimensions: the cognitive, the social and the psychological ones. In addition, this perspective stresses the dialogical facet of OCF that brings together the novice with the expert in a social interaction to reach a common aim: language learning.

### **2.1.2 OCF from a Cognitive/ Interactionist View**

In the classroom context, the teacher is expected to provide evaluative feedback to his/her students’ oral productions. Following Mori’s (2011) line of thought, “to provide corrective feedback is one of the major classroom instructional responsibilities for second language teachers” (p. 421). Lyster, et al. (2013) operationalized CF as “an inherent part of classroom practices in which teachers engage to achieve instructional objectives that include consolidation of students’ L2 knowledge” (p. 2). Ellis (2009) explains that there are two types of feedback: positive and negative feedback. The former is provided to students to affirm that their responses to an activity are correct. Positive feedback is very important to enhance students’ self-confidence because “it provides affective support and fosters motivation to continue learning” (p. 3); examples of positive feedback are: “Good”, “That’s right”, “Well done”. This type of feedback has not received much attention in SLA studies because of its ambiguous nature, since it “does not always signal that learner is correct, for they may merely preface a subsequent correction or modification of the student’s utterance” (p. 3). On the other hand, negative feedback signals that the student’s production is not correct; it may be linguistically deficient. As opposed to positive feedback, negative feedback has received careful attention from both SLA researchers and language educators but they have not been able to reach to a consensus regarding whether to correct errors, what errors to correct, how to correct them, and when to correct them (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Sheen, 2004). Corrective feedback constitutes one type of negative feedback and can consist of “(1) an indication that an error has been committed, (2) provision of the correct target language form, (3) metalinguistic information about the nature of the



error, or any combination of these” (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006, p. 340). However, Yoshida (2010) highlights that “teachers give feedback in the classroom to prompt learners to use more appropriate expressions or sentences, even when their utterances are grammatically correct” (p. 294).

### 2.1.3 OCF taxonomies

A great amount of research has investigated types of CF, developing different taxonomies to classify them. The study that has been the most influential in the last 20 years is the taxonomy presented by Lyster and Ranta (1997) which has helped lay the groundwork for more comprehensive and systematic investigations of OCF in SLA and trigger interest in the pedagogical utility of different CF types (Sheen, 2010).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) distinguished six types of feedback used by the teachers in their study: 1) recast, 2) metalinguistic feedback, 3) elicitation, 4) repetition, 5) clarification request, and 6) explicit correction, (p. 46-48). As regards *recast*, Yoshida (2010) defines it as “an utterance that involves the reformulation of a learner’s erroneous or inappropriate utterance, usually contrasting the utterance with the learner’s erroneous utterance. Recasts occur immediately after the erroneous or inappropriate utterance” (p. 302). Second, *metalinguistic feedback* is defined as “an utterance that provides metalinguistic comments, feedback, or questions without providing a reformulation” (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302). Third, *elicitation* makes reference to “an utterance that strategically pauses in the middle of the utterance to elicit a learner’s completion” (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302). Fourth, *repetition* is defined as “an utterance by either a teacher or a classmate that repeats a learner’s erroneous or inappropriate utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302). Fifth, *clarification request* is described as “an utterance that asks a question for clarification”. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302); finally, *explicit correction* makes reference to “an utterance that clearly indicates that a learner’s utterance is incorrect or inappropriate and provides the correct form”. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302). This taxonomy is the one adopted in this study.

However, as the classification provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997) lacked a non-linguistic OCF strategy, I have decided to add a seventh OCF type proposed by Ellis (2009) to the previously mentioned taxonomy. This OCF type is called

*paralinguistic signal*, and has been defined as the gesture or facial expression made by the teacher to indicate that the student has made an error (Ellis, 2009).

Table 1 illustrates the taxonomy adopted in this study based on the classifications provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Ellis (2009).

In an attempt to further understand the complex nature of OCF, other authors have taken the categories proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and re-organized them into the following categories: implicit or explicit (Ellis, Loewen and Erlam, 2006) and input- providing or output-prompting (Ellis, 2006 as cited in Ellis, 2009).

Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) recategorized Lyster and Ranta's (1997) six types of OCF in terms of how implicit or explicit they are. In the case of implicit feedback, there is no overt indicator that an error has been committed; under this category we can find: recast, repetition and clarification request, whereas in explicit feedback types there is indication that an error has been made; the CF types under this division are: explicit correction, metalinguistic explanation and elicitation. The category named paralinguistic signal (Ellis, 2009) falls under the type of explicit CF strategy. Ellis (2008) argues that this distinction between explicit and implicit strategies should be seen as a continuum rather than a dichotomy, as many of the OCF strategies can be placed in this continuum more or less near the explicit or implicit extremes.

OCF types can also be distinguished in terms of whether they are input-providing or output- prompting (Ellis, 2006, as cited in Ellis, 2009). The former "provides learners with input demonstrating target language forms" (Ellis, 2008, p. 227); the latter "indicates that an error has been made but does not supply the correct forms" (Lyster, 2004, p. 266). Instead, output- prompting types of OCF encourage the students to try to self-correct. Ellis (2008) highlights that this distinction is of theoretical importance because "it is related to the nature of the data that learners obtain" (p. 227). The OCF types that fall under the category input-providing are: recast and explicit correction; on the other hand, repetition, clarification request, metalinguistic explanation, elicitation and paralinguistic signals fall under the category output-prompting. In Table 2, the two re-categorizations previously discussed and presented are organized in a visual fashion.



Table 1: Types of OCF, definitions and examples

Types of Corrective Feedback	Definition	Examples
<b>RECAST</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	An utterance that involves the reformulation of a learner's erroneous or inappropriate utterance, usually contrasting the utterance with the learner's erroneous utterance. Recasts occur immediately after the erroneous or inappropriate utterance. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302)	L: I went there two times. T: You've been. You've been there twice as a group? Ellis (2009, p. 9)
<b>METALINGUISTIC CUES/ EXPLANATION/ FEEDBACK</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	An utterance that provides metalinguistic comments, feedback, or questions without providing a reformulation. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302)	T: Can you find your error L: Mmm T: It is feminine Lyster and Ranta (1997, p. 47)
<b>ELICITATION</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	An utterance that strategically pauses in the middle of the utterance to elicit a learner's completion. The teacher uses a partial repetition of the learner's erroneous or inappropriate utterance or asks the learner questions (excluding the use of yes/no questions) to elicit the learner's reformulation. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302)	L: I'll come if it will not rain. T: I'll come if it .....? Ellis (2009, p. 9)
<b>REPETITION</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	An utterance by either a teacher or a classmate that repeats a learner's erroneous or inappropriate utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302)	L: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you. L: I'll show you Ellis (2009, p. 9)
<b>CLARIFICATION REQUEST</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	An utterance that asks a question for clarification. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302)	L: What do you spend with your wife? T: What? Ellis (2009, p. 9)
<b>EXPLICIT CORRECTION</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	An utterance that clearly indicates that a learner's utterance is incorrect or inappropriate and provides the correct form. (Yoshida, 2010, p. 302)	L: On May. T: Not on May, In May. We say, "It will start in May." Ellis (2009, p. 9)
<b>PARALINGUISTIC SIGNALS</b> Ellis (2009)	The corrector uses a gesture or facial expression to indicate that the learner has made an error. (Ellis, 2009, p. 302)	L: Yesterday I go cinema. T: (gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past). Ellis (2009, p. 9)

Table 2: OCF (re)categorizations

Types of Corrective Feedback	Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006)	Ellis, 2006, as cited in Ellis, 2009 (p. 8)
<b>Recast</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	<b>Implicit</b>	<b>Input - providing</b>
<b>Metalinguistic Cues/ Explanation/ Feedback</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	<b>Explicit</b>	<b>Output-prompting</b>
<b>Elicitation</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	<b>Explicit</b>	<b>Output-prompting</b>
<b>Repetition</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	<b>Implicit</b>	<b>Output-prompting</b>
<b>Clarification Request</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	<b>Implicit</b>	<b>Output-prompting</b>
<b>Explicit Correction</b> Lyster and Ranta (1997)	<b>Explicit</b>	<b>Input- providing</b>
<b>Paralinguistic Signals</b> Ellis (2009)	<b>Explicit</b>	<b>Output-prompting</b>

2.1.3.1 Timing of the OCF - Immediate or Delayed

Among the multitude of decisions that teachers need to take at the spur of the moment, they are also faced with the choice of either correcting immediately following the student’s erroneous utterance or delaying the correction until later. It is not an easy task for teachers to decide on the best time for error treatment. Ellis (2009) explained that there is general agreement that in accuracy oriented activities correction should be provided immediately and in fluency oriented activities correction should be delayed to the end of the activity. Furthermore, there is no firm evidence to show that immediate correction is any more effective than delayed (Ellis, 2009). It is not possible to arrive at any general conclusion regarding the relative efficacy of immediate and delayed OCF. Once more, it is the teacher’s decision whether to correct immediately or delayed the correction for a later time.

2.1.3.2 Types of errors

In this study, errors were operationally defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as: phonological, lexical, grammatical and unsolicited use of L1. Grammatical errors include non-target use of closed classes such as determiners, prepositions and pronouns, tense, verb morphology, auxiliaries, subject-verb agreement, pluralization, negation, question formation, relativization and word order. Phonological errors are inaccurate

pronunciation of words that often lead to difficulty of comprehension of the target words. Lexical errors include inaccurate, imprecise or inappropriate choices of lexical items in open classes (nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives), non-target derivations of nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives involving incorrect use of prefixes and suffixes (Ting, Musa and Lau, 2011). Lyster and Ranta (1997) admit that unsolicited use of L1 might not be considered an error per se, but it is important to acknowledge that some teachers may react differently to the students' production of unsolicited use of L1. For this reason, it might or might not be considered an error. In this study, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error classification will be adhered.

Corrective feedback has been approached from two different perspectives: the first one is identified as sociocultural approach and the second one is interactionist/cognitive theories. It is unquestionable that both perspectives contribute to a better understanding of the nature of CF and the role it plays in language acquisition; for this reason every teacher should know about these perspectives so they can take informed decisions about which the most effective type of OCF would be according to his/her classroom context.

In this chapter, the theoretical framework of this study was presented. In the first place, the definition of beliefs, the approaches to study them, their characteristics, and the relationship among beliefs, actions and context were introduced. Then, the concept of OCF was presented and discussed from different perspectives. The rationale for choosing one theoretical framework in preference to another was based on my firm belief in its power to better explain how and why a specific phenomenon is happening.

In conclusion, CF is a complex phenomenon which every teacher should reflect upon in order to be able to handle and adapt it to their educational contexts to promote language learning. Ellis (2009) claims that every teacher education program should give CF its place since the important role that CF plays in L2 learning is undoubted.

### CHAPTER III: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides an account of previous studies which have investigated the central issues of this thesis, namely: EFL teachers and students' beliefs about OCF, the relationship between teachers' beliefs about OCF and their classroom practices, and teachers' choice of OCF types in relation to students' preferences, perceptions and opinions.

Corrective feedback has been considered “one of the most powerful influences on learning and achievement” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 81) and “one of the major classroom instructional responsibilities for second language teachers” (Mori, 2011, p. 451); for these and many other reasons, the study of OCF is of great significance for the field of ESL teaching and learning. In addition, many researchers have stressed the importance of studying teachers' beliefs in relation to OCF (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Mori, 2002; Sheen, 2004), which suggest that looking for additional information can provide more depth to the understanding of OCF practices in the classroom context. In addition, Mori (2011) argues that examining teacher's beliefs regarding why they correct errors the way they do will enable researchers to obtain “findings from more complex, multifarious perspectives, thereby providing more powerful explanation of classroom CF practice” (p. 454). As important as teachers' beliefs about OCF are students', since they are a fundamental gearing of this complex machinery that is the ESL classroom. For this reason, students' beliefs about OCF should also be taken into account (Farahani and Salajegheh, 2015; Da Silva and Figueiredo, 2006; Cohen and Fass, 2001; Schulz, 2001), since if students and teachers' beliefs about EC and OCF can converge, then teachers would have a better chance of guiding their students to successful language learning; otherwise, the mismatches could create potential conflicts in the processes of teaching and learning an L2. Even though it has been recognized that teachers and students' beliefs have an important impact on the teaching and learning processes, research studies are still scarce.

Hence, this chapter will provide a summary of previous studies about the following main aspects: 1) EFL teachers and students' beliefs about OCF in EFL classrooms; 2) EFL teachers' beliefs about OCF and their relationship to classroom practice, 3) teachers' choice of OCF types in relation to students' preferences.

### 3.1 EFL teachers and students' beliefs about OCF

To the best of my knowledge, and after an extensive literature search for studies which have compared teachers and students' beliefs about the provision and reception of OCF in EFL classes, I can state that not many studies have been published on the topic. Among the scholars who have studied this issue, the following can be mentioned: Farahani and Salajegheh (2015), Da Silva and Figueiredo (2006), Cohen and Fass (2001) and Schulz (2001) can be mentioned. It is worth noticing that all these studies except one have been carried out in Latin America.

Farahani and Salajegheh's (2015) study aimed at investigating teachers and students' beliefs regarding: giving and receiving spoken error correction, frequency for giving and receiving spoken error correction, and the types of spoken errors that need to be corrected. They administered a 5-point-Likert-scale questionnaire with 25 items to 429 Iranian FL students and a 5-point-Likert-scale questionnaire of 26 items to 31 teachers. The results obtained showed agreement between teachers and students on most of the questions. However, there were some discrepancies between teachers and students' beliefs specifically related to the frequency of giving and receiving OCF. Farahani and Salajegheh infer that these differences might be evident when different teaching methodologies are practiced in the language classroom since they adopt different procedures. These scholars concluded that to select an appropriate OCF strategy in the correct moment, teachers should consider the social and situational context and take into consideration the factors that may play a role in the teaching-learning processes such as: students' level, age, needs, skill, time, materials, etc. Consequently, students' language learning can be hampered if their specific beliefs about the role of error correction and expectations cannot be met. Farahani and Salajegheh affirmed that it is the teacher's own responsibility to examine or not his/her students' beliefs about OCF to improve language learning and to ascertain whether student preferences or pedagogical practices are to be changed to prevent conflicts between the two. Furthermore, they concluded that if students' expectations cannot be met there might be a decrease in student motivation and teacher credibility since they perceive the teacher as a specialist whose role is to teach the language and provide feedback to them.

Similarly, Da Silva and Figueiredo (2006) sought to identify beliefs related to oral and written error correction held by two Brazilian public school EFL teachers and compare them to some of their students' beliefs. They collected data by means of



questionnaires, interviews, field notes, class observations and video-recordings. Amongst the conclusions reached, they reported that the teachers' prior experiences as EFL students influenced their daily classroom practice, as well as the ways they dealt with error correction. The participant teachers believed that the best way of providing OCF to their students' mistakes was a direct one, without giving any extra explanation about them. Such beliefs were shared by some of the students, but conflicted with some others, who believed for example, that students should be given the opportunity to find and produce a correct utterance before being given the right answer. The results highlighted the importance of offering opportunities for teachers to get to know, reflect, argue and question their beliefs in general, not only about error correction, in order to improve the EFL teaching and learning processes.

Other researchers who compared teachers and students' beliefs about OCF were Cohen and Fass (2001). They carried out an action research at a private Colombian university with the purpose of examining the beliefs and practices of 43 EFL teachers and 63 EFL students regarding the teaching, learning and assessment of the speaking skill. The data was collected through teacher and student beliefs questionnaires, teacher oral assessment and materials questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. Data revealed that the majority of teachers and students believed that teachers talked more than students did; however, students felt this even more strongly. An additional outcome was that teachers wanted to adopt a communicative approach to their classes but they lacked the knowledge to do so. The evidence was that pronunciation and grammar were found to be the most important characteristics that teachers considered when assessing students orally rather than more communicative aspects of oral production. Moreover, there was no prevalent method among teachers for giving feedback; instead, they preferred using the assessment tasks provided in the textbook. The researchers concluded that the beliefs held by teachers and students did not reflect the communicative approach to L2 teaching which the teachers had stated to follow in their classroom practices. Thereby, they proposed that teacher training programs should incorporate tools and strategies aimed at helping teachers to enact their beliefs in the classroom practice and match their students' beliefs to avoid incongruity in the classroom practice.

Similarly, Schulz (2001) investigated teachers and students' beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction across U.S. and Colombian cultures by administering a survey to 122 Colombian FL instructors, 607 Colombian FL students,

92 U.S. FL instructors, and 824 U.S. FL students. In relation to error correction, students from both cultures expressed strong expectations on their teachers' provision of oral error correction, and the majority of them expressed preference for their teachers to correct their oral errors during class. With respect to teachers' perceptions, there was a discrepancy between the two Colombian groups and the two U.S. groups about the desirability of correcting oral errors in the classroom. Only half of the teachers surveyed from both cultures believed that oral errors should be corrected in class, which reveals a mismatch between students and teachers' expectations regarding error correction. The researcher concluded that it is the teachers' responsibility to ascertain students' beliefs and expectations in order to either help modify what students believe, or to adjust their own instructional practices to meet the students' expectations.

The investigations carried out by Farahani and Salajegheh (2015), Da Silva and Figueiredo (2006), Cohen and Fass (2001) and Schulz (2001) emphasized the importance of studying teacher and students' beliefs about OCF. They highlighted the importance of providing the students with the opportunity of getting to know and reflecting upon their beliefs about error correction and OCF in order to improve the EFL teaching and learning processes. Most of the researchers emphasized that it is the teacher's own responsibility to find a point of encounter between his/her students' beliefs and her classroom practices, in order to meet the students' expectations.

As it was previously stated, research on teacher and students' beliefs about OCF are still scarce. However, other scholars have focused their attention only on students' beliefs about OCF. These studies will be reported in the next paragraphs.

There is a general agreement among SLA researchers that students' beliefs may affect the way they view and perform language tasks (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995). Similarly, it is also known that students mostly favor oral feedback on errors in the classroom (Cohen & Fass, 2001; Schulz, 2001; Yoshida, 2008, among others). Accordingly, some scholars have studied students' beliefs about OCF claiming that their beliefs constituted an essential source of information to improve L2 learning and teaching. The studies of Zhang and Rahimi (2014) and Martinez Agudo (2012) will be reviewed in the following paragraphs.

In their study, Zhang and Rahimi (2014) investigated the role of anxiety in students' OCF beliefs when they were made aware of the purpose, significance, and types of OCF. To accomplish this purpose, they used questionnaires which were administered to 160 Persian EFL young adult students. The first step was to assign the

participants into a high-anxiety group or a low-anxiety group. The results showed that both high- and low-anxiety groups, regardless of their anxiety level, strongly supported the frequent provision of OCF as evidenced by their responses to the necessity and frequency of OCF. Moreover, students believed that their errors should be corrected immediately and they ranked errors which caused problems in conveying meaning as the most important errors to be corrected. They also favored explicit feedback as the most facilitative in promoting their language learning. As a conclusion, Zhang and Rahimi emphasized that raising students' awareness of the purpose, significance, and types of OCF would be an effective approach to help learners form positive attitudes towards OCF.

Another researcher who studied students' beliefs about CF was Martinez Agudo (2012). The main goal of this study was to examine Spanish EFL students' opinions and beliefs about the effectiveness of oral and written CF as well as their preferences about how CF should actually be provided in classroom settings. One hundred and eighty two students completed a structured questionnaire of 15 items and 2 final open questions. Martinez Agudo determined that learners did not always receive the CF that they expect and/or prefer. He highlighted that affective aspects should not be overlooked because the resulting data also suggested that CF could have a potentially harmful effect on some students' emotional states, in terms of personalities and attitudes. In this sense, students' individual differences and affective aspects are believed to significantly influence the effectiveness of CF. He concluded that it was of great importance to consider the influence of students' individual differences and characteristics when providing CF in classroom settings.

The investigations carried out by Zhang and Rahimi (2014) and Martinez Agudo (2012) have demonstrated that studying students' beliefs with regard to the importance of OCF role, purpose, types and effectiveness, constituted an essential source of information to improve L2 learning and teaching. These studies have highlighted the strong support that ESL students provide to the reception of OCF in their ESL classes. What is more, these researchers have emphasized the importance of taking into consideration the students' individual characteristics and emotions when providing OCF in EFL classrooms.

In the following paragraphs, research works that have studied the relationship between teachers' beliefs about OCF and their language practices will be presented.



### **3.2 EFL teachers' beliefs about OCF and their relationship to classroom practice**

According to Pajares (1992) teachers' beliefs influence their perceptions and judgments, which, in turn, affect their classroom behavior. Some of the scholars who have studied EFL teachers' beliefs about OCF and the relationship among these beliefs with their classroom actions are Mori (2002, 2011), Farrokhi, (2007), Carazzai and Santin, (2007), Junqueira and Kim (2013), and Kamiya (2014).

Mori's study was carried out in 2002 and later replicated by her in the year 2011 with different participant teachers. The aim of the studies was to examine the relationship between teacher beliefs and the CF that they provided to their students in their EFL classes. Two EFL professionals participated in each study; they had different linguistic and cultural backgrounds and orientations to instructional practice. The data was collected by means of the following instruments: nonparticipant observation of classroom instruction and field notes, loosely structured interviews, letters from the researcher addressed to the teachers and follow-up interview about the letters, a videotape of a lesson and a follow-up interview, and documents such as textbooks and handouts. Mori determined that teachers' thoughts, beliefs and prior experiences as EFL learners and professionals exerted a powerful influence on how they conceptualized CF in their classrooms and that they have an impact on classroom teaching behavior. Mori (2002, 2011) concluded that, in general, teachers' provision of CF was attuned with their beliefs. In addition, she identified the factors that also determined why the participating teachers provided or opted not to provide CF; to name a few: instructional focus, time constraints, frequency of occurrence of errors, students' personality and students' level of communication ability. She established that the two pairs of teacher cases revealed that they had their own firm beliefs about OCF; however, their classroom actions appeared not only to be influenced by them but seemed to be strongly affected by the interplay of all the identified factors. Mori (2011) highlighted that the participating teachers had in common two main agendas that they kept in mind as they taught: firstly, to teach the target language and secondly, to encourage values such as confidence, independence, and reasonable ability to communicate, which they believed to be undervalued in the specific cultural context in which they taught.

Farrokhi (2007) also identified factors that played a role in EFL teachers' classroom behavior. He studied the relationship between teachers' beliefs about OCF and their relationship with their classroom actions. More specifically, he concentrated

on teachers' beliefs about the effectiveness and appropriateness of OCF types. He observed and audio recorded the lessons of five ESL teachers and administered a self-reported feedback questionnaire. The particularity of this questionnaire was that in order to choose among the 5-point Likert scale options, teachers were provided with an error correction situation. After choosing the effectiveness or appropriateness of the provision of OCF in the given situation, they had to provide reasons for their choice. His conclusions were that teachers' stated beliefs did not always match what they actually did in their lessons, due to a number of factors that might have been at play when teachers had to take on-the-spot decisions to tackle their students' non-target-like oral productions. Among the factors that might be preventive of teachers' beliefs to be translated into classroom actions, Farrokhi mentioned situational demands, contextual constraints, practical considerations and affective variables.

It has not always been the case that teachers' beliefs cannot be enacted into classroom practices. In some studies, teachers' positive previous experiences, especially as ESL students, paved the way for translating beliefs into classroom actions. The results of the following studies support this assumption.

Carazzai and Santin (2007) focused on beliefs about error correction, influence of former teachers, language used when giving feedback and type of feedback strategies used by an ESL teacher in her lessons. They concentrated on grammatically incorrect students' productions. Using a variety of data collection instruments as classroom observations, recording of the classes, field notes and interviews, Carazzai and Santin identified that the participant teacher frequently provided OCF to her students' ungrammatical oral productions making use of a great variety of OCF strategies. Furthermore, these researchers determined that the participant teacher's attitude towards the grammatical errors produced by her students was positive since she considered errors to be part of the learning process. Carazzai and Santin inferred that this positive attitude had its origin in the teacher's previous experiences as ESL student, since she had manifested that she used to have a positive stance in relation to the reception of OCF. In sum, it was concluded that the participant teacher's provision of OCF and her classroom actions were influenced by her own beliefs about OCF and her past experiences as an ESL student, since her aim when providing OCF was that her students could communicate accurately.

Similarly, Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study investigated how teaching experience along with teachers' previous education and beliefs might influence

teachers' provision of CF and their awareness of CF practices in their classroom situations. Therefore, the aim of this case study was to compare the CF practices and beliefs of an ESL novice teacher and an ESL experienced teacher in the context of their ESL oral communication classes, taking into consideration their past training and learning as well as teaching experiences. They used multiple data collection instruments such as observations, videotaped classes, stimulated recalls and semi-structured interviews. The results of this study made Junqueira and Kim conclude that even though the experienced teacher generated more teacher-learner interactions and provided more types of CF, teaching experience and teacher training did not seem to impact on the teachers' beliefs regarding the provision of CF, while their previous experiences as ESL students appeared to have a greater influence on both teachers' beliefs about error correction and their classroom practices.

Kamiya (2014) investigated the relationship between stated beliefs of four ESL teachers about teaching and OCF and their actual classroom practices. He collected the data through a videotaped classroom observation and a semi-structured interview. The objectives of the interview were to obtain background information of the teachers' L2 learning, their teacher training, their teaching practice, the current teaching context, and their stated beliefs about teaching and the use of OCF. The results show that their stated beliefs regarding their teaching practices were found to be in accordance with their stated beliefs concerning OCF. Furthermore, their classroom practices were found to be largely in agreement with their stated beliefs about OCF in the sense that, following their common stated belief of teaching that creating a comfortable environment for students was crucial, they avoided the use of explicit correction which could potentially humiliate learners, and instead opted for a more implicit type of OCF, such as recasts.

The studies previously described analyzed the connections between teachers' beliefs regarding OCF and the factors influencing classroom actions. After all, research results have been consistent in relation to the multitude of factors that play a role and influence ESL teachers' beliefs about OCF and their classroom practices. Mori (2011) and Farrokhi (2007) mentioned a series of contextual factors that might have impeded the enactment of teachers' beliefs in their classroom practices such as instructional focus, time and contextual constraints, frequency of occurrence of errors, students' personality, students' level of communication ability and affective variables among others (see Table 3 below for a complete list of factors).

On the other hand, Carazzai and Santin, (2007), concluded that other factors such as: positive previous experiences as ESL student and teacher’s positive attitude towards the grammatical errors produced influenced in a positive way how teachers enacted their beliefs in their classroom practices. However, Junqueira and Kim (2013) determined that the teachers’ previous experiences as teachers and trainee teachers might have not impacted on their translation of their beliefs into action. Table 3 below summarizes and categorizes these factors.

Table 3: Categorization of factors that affected (or not) teachers’ beliefs

Factors that might have prevented the enactment of teachers’ beliefs in classroom actions	Factors that might have had a positive impact on the enactment of teachers’ beliefs in classroom actions	Factors that might not have impacted on teachers’ beliefs to be translated into classroom actions
<p><b>Mori (2011)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- instructional focus</li><li>- time constraints</li><li>- frequency of occurrence of errors</li><li>- students’ personality</li><li>- students’ level of communication ability</li></ul> <p><b>Farrokhi (2007)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- situational demands</li><li>- contextual constraints</li><li>- practical considerations</li><li>- affective variables</li></ul>	<p><b>Carazzai and Santin (2007)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- positive previous experiences as ESL student</li><li>- teacher’s positive attitude towards the grammatical errors produced</li></ul> <p><b>Junqueira and Kim (2013)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- previous experiences as ESL students</li></ul>	<p><b>Junqueira and Kim (2013)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- teaching experience</li><li>- teacher training</li></ul>

In the following section, studies that focused on teachers’ choice of different types of OCF in relation to the students’ preferences will be described.

3.3 Teachers’ choice of OCF types in relation to students’ preferences

Other angles from which OCF has been investigated, apart from teacher and student beliefs, are teachers’ choice and students’ preferences, perceptions and opinions. The studies carried out by Yoshida (2008, 2010), Ting, Musa and Lau (2011), Lee (2013) and Abedi (2015) will be presented in this section.

In her study about teachers’ choice and learners’ preference for CF types in an Australian university in Japanese as a foreign language (JFL) classrooms, Yoshida (2008) attempted to answer the following research questions: How do teachers choose



the type of CF in relation to the errors of particular learners?; Do learners prefer receiving recasts over the other types of CF and, if so, why? And if not, why? Two teachers and 7 second-year level students volunteered to participate in the study. The data was gathered by means of audio-recorded classroom observations and stimulated recall interviews. Among the most interesting findings was the fact that both, teachers and students, perceived that self-correction and the provision of more explanation after CF were more effective for language learning. Despite this, the participant teachers often chose recasts, mainly because of time restrictions, and also to avoid intimidating the students by explicitly correcting their errors or asking them to self-correct in front of the whole class. Consequently, there was an evident gap between the teachers' CF preference and their CF use, in addition to the dissonance between the teachers' use of CF and the learners' CF preferences.

In the same way, Yoshida (2010) investigated teachers and learners' CF perceptions in relation to the classroom contexts in which CF occurred, from a sociocultural perspective. She employed the same data obtained from her previous study in the year 2008, to answer a set of different research questions: Does a learner's response to CF indicate that he or she has noticed it?; Do teachers perceive learners' responses to CF as the learners' noticing?; Is there a discrepancy between teachers' intentions when giving CF and learners' perceptions of it and between learners' perceptions of CF and teachers' interpretation of the learners' responses to it? If so, why does the discrepancy occur? Two kinds of discrepancies were found in the teachers and learners' perceptions. The first was a discrepancy between the teachers' intentions when providing CF and the learners' perceptions of the CF. Teachers frequently used implicit CF in order to avoid students' embarrassment; however, it did not tend to lead to students' noticing of CF. The second was a discrepancy between the learners' perceptions of CF and the teachers' understanding of the learners' perceptions of the CF. The learners' responses to CF without noticing the CF seemed to be related to teachers' preference for not triggering social strain or embarrassment in the classroom and not to CF noticing. She concluded that in both cases, further negotiation, which might have elicited learners' noticing and understanding of correct forms, was needed.

Likewise, the study by Ting, et al. (2011) examined the types of errors made by adult ESL students in a Malaysian university and the types of OCF used by the instructor. Instructor-student interaction data were obtained from audio recordings of 20 two-hour lessons. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) corrective discourse model was adapted as

the framework to analyze the interactions. They focused on three types of errors: phonological, lexical and grammatical. The results revealed a tendency for instructors to notice and respond to grammatical errors, followed by phonological errors, with lexical errors not receiving as much attention as the other two types of mistakes. Among the six different types of OCF, recast was the most preferred by instructors, followed by explicit correction. Similar to Yoshida's (2008) conclusions, Ting, et al. determined that instructors' preference for implicit rather than explicit feedback suggested a concern for maintaining a safe environment for students to develop communicative skills in English. Therefore, this indicated that instructors are mindful of how error treatment may cause anxiety to students.

Another researcher who examined both teacher and student preferences regarding OCF was Lee (2013). In her study, she investigated the patterns of OCF and learner repair in advanced-level adult ESL classrooms. Sixty advanced-level graduate students from diverse backgrounds and four teachers participated in the study. The data were collected through classroom observations, questionnaires, and in-depth follow-up interviews. The findings of this study, based on classroom observations, were that the most frequent type of OCF used by the teacher was recast, followed by explicit corrections. Students wanted to be provided OCF to all their mistakes; however, the teachers strongly disagreed with this statement and asserted that they did not feel an obligation to provide CF to all the students' errors. Furthermore, students preferred to receive explicit and immediate corrections in the middle of their conversations and during teacher-student interactions because they felt explicit correction gave them the best and most accurate answers from their teachers, and they felt they were learning something straightforwardly. Even though the participant teachers perceived that immediate correction of students' errors was efficient and enhanced their oral proficiency, they did not want to be compelled to provide error corrections when student errors occurred. Contrary to the results obtained by Yoshida (2008) and Ting, et al. (2011), Lee found that students and teachers disagreed with the fact that teachers' feedback might cause the students embarrassment, even when the corrections occurred in front of other classmates. Instead of feeling any frustration by receiving such feedback in front of their classmates, the students welcomed the chance to correct their mistakes in the middle of their conversations and during teacher-student interactions. Lee concluded that there were significant gaps between students' OCF preferences and the actual OCF their teachers used in the classroom, and it was the teachers' task to

bridge this gap since their OCF might play significant roles not only in making the students aware of their errors in an efficient way, but also in facilitating their oral English proficiency.

At a different context, Abadi (2015) obtained similar results to the ones obtained by Yoshida (2008), Ting, et al. (2011) and Lee (2013). The aim of his study was to investigate Iranian EFL adult students' opinions about their teachers' error correction (henceforth EC) practices and also to see what kind of OCF strategies (direct or indirect) their teachers applied during oral EC. To this end, a self-reporting corrective feedback Likert-scale questionnaire and an observation check-list were used to collect the data. The results showed that recast was the most frequent strategy used by the teacher followed by explicit correction. Besides, grammatical errors were the most frequent errors treated by the teacher, followed by lexical and phonological errors. Regarding the students' opinions about OCF, the findings revealed that they were not in line with their teachers' actual EC practices, i.e. they wanted to receive indirect OCF strategies, but their teachers used direct ones. Therefore, the implication of this study could be that EFL teachers should take into account their learners' opinions about OCF strategies that they use during classroom interaction. Abadi concluded that when providing OCF, teachers should provide different OCF strategies to cater for differences in their students' opinions and preferences.

All in all, the studies carried out by Yoshida (2008, 2010), Ting, et al. (2011), Lee (2013) and Abedi (2015) regarding teachers' choice and students' preferences, perceptions and opinions in relation to OCF types in foreign language classrooms have evidenced the existence of a gap between the teachers' OCF classroom practices and their students' OCF preferences. Furthermore, recasts continued being the most frequent OCF strategy employed by the teachers but the least preferred by the students. All the researchers called for further research about this issue and proposed an opener classroom negotiation between teachers and students about this topic, in order to reach consensus and obtain better language results.

### **3.4 Conclusion**

As this literature review suggests, EFL teachers and students bring to the classroom specific beliefs, expectations and attitudes, which should be studied in order to understand their complex nature. Therefore, the relevance and importance of the

issue of beliefs about OCF in the EFL field have been highlighted. Prevalently, what all the reviewed studies have stressed is the fact that the teacher's own duty is to look for consensus in their classroom regarding the provision and reception of OCF in order to improve the EC practice. It has also been stressed that if the students' expectations cannot be met in the ESL classroom, there might be a decrease in their motivation and their teacher credibility. That is why it is very important to offer opportunities for teachers to get to know, reflect, argue and question their beliefs about EC in order to enact them in the classroom setting and also improve the EFL teaching and learning processes. However, the relationship between beliefs and actions is not a direct one, and many factors can deter beliefs from being enacted into classroom practices, as it has been stated in the previously reviewed articles.

Therefore, this thesis will attempt to provide evidence on whether the participant teacher beliefs are translated into her classroom action and whether the teacher's and her students' beliefs about OCF in the EFL classroom are in consonance or dissonance.

The aim of this chapter has been to account for previous studies which have researched on teachers and students' beliefs about OCF in EFL classrooms, the relationship between teachers' beliefs about OCF and their classroom practices, and teachers' choice of OCF strategies in relation to students' preferences, perceptions and opinions about OCF types. In the following chapter, the methodology used in this study will be described in detail.



## **CHAPTER IV: METHODOLOGY**

The aim of this chapter is to describe the research design of this study, including participant selection and description, setting description, instruments designed to gather information, data collection procedures and procedures used to analyze the data.

### **4.1 Research Design**

This study consisted of a qualitative case study. It has been defined qualitative following Patton's (2015) definition: "qualitative methods typically produce a wealth of detailed information about a much smaller number of people and cases [which] increases the depth of understanding of the cases and situations studied but reduces generalizability" (p. 91). The importance of examining and interpreting observable phenomena in context is generally emphasized in qualitative studies, and the main principle is not to alter people's regular activities. According to Duff (2008), "these contexts tend to be naturally occurring ones, which in applied linguistics might include language testing sessions, classrooms, etc." (p. 30). Furthermore, it has also been decided to carry out a case study since it is "an in-depth exploration of a bounded system (e.g., activity, event, process, or individuals) based on extensive data collection" (Creswell, 2007, in Creswell, 2012, p. 455). Creswell (2012) explains that a bounded system means that "the case is separated out for research in terms of time, place, or some physical boundaries" (p. 455). The bounded system under study was the English Language III course, that is, a teacher and seven students.

The qualitative methodology was chosen since the aim of this study was to capture and understand varied perspectives, observe and analyze behaviors in context, find patterns in what human beings do and think and consequently examine the implications of those patterns (Patton, 2015). In sum, "qualitative research often inquiries into the stories of individuals to capture and understand their perspectives" (Patton, 2015, p. 59).

### **4.2 Contextualization of the study**

This study took place at the National University of Río Cuarto (hereafter UNRC). This is a medium- size public university located in the center of Argentina. Among the academic programs offered by this university, students can choose

“Tecnatura en Lenguas Inglés – Frances”. This three-year program is offered by the Language Department at the Faculty of Humanities, UNRC. The main aim of this program is to prepare competent students in communicating in English and French as foreign languages.

During their course of studies, the students attend Spanish, French and English Language courses among others. As regards the English Language, they attend three successive English Language courses (I, II and III) which take students from pre-intermediate level to upper-intermediate level (or from B1 to B2).

This study was conducted in the English Language III course. This is a 26 week-long course taught eight hours per week during the whole academic year. The course book selected by the teachers was Life Upper Intermediate (Dummett, Hughes, & Stephenson, 2013). This course is taught by two EFL teachers. The participant teacher teaches three hours per week, while the other five hours are taught by another ESL teacher. The syllabus of the course (available at <https://sisinfo.unrc.edu.ar/sial/bajarprograma>) acknowledges that its general aim is to form competent students who can effectively communicate in English to understand and produce oral and written texts belonging to the following genres: expository, descriptive, narrative and argumentative. In addition, students are made conscious of the degree of formality and principles of politeness expressed in the English language. The method adopted in this course is a combination of communicative and intercultural approaches in which students are made aware of their own culture in order to be able to compare it to the target culture under study (Byram, Gribkova, & Starkey, 2002; Puren, 2004).

### 4.3 Participants

The participants of this study were the EFL teacher in charge of the course English Language III at Tecnatura en Lenguas and her seven students during the year 2015. Patton (2015) defines this sampling strategy as *complete target population* since it “involves interviewing and/ or observing everyone within a group of interest” (p. 639). Patton (2015) adds that the chosen group is unique and worthy of study in its own right because it is information- rich.

The English Language III class was deliberately chosen due to the students’ level of English proficiency. After attending the course, the students are supposed to

reach an Upper-Intermediate level of proficiency in English or B1<sup>4</sup>, therefore, I assumed that there would be greater possibilities of finding instances of rich oral interaction and provision of OCF.

#### **4.3.1 The ESL Teacher**

Raquel (pseudonym was used throughout this manuscript) is a 38-year old ESL teacher. She obtained her degree as Teacher of English in 1999 from the UNRC and she now holds the position of full-time adjunct professor at this university. She has vast experience in teaching, since she taught for more than 15 years at a primary school and she has been teaching English at *Tecnicatura en Lenguas* since 2001, the opening year of this course of studies. In relation to her academic formation, Raquel is currently writing her master's thesis to get her Master's degree in English orientated to Applied Linguistics and she attended a program called "Diplomatura de Enseñanza de Español como LE" during the years 2014 - 2015. She is the coordinator of the English Language Module of the *Tecnicatura en Lenguas* program, which includes the following courses: English Language I, II and III. Raquel co-teaches all the courses. As a consequence, she knows the students very well because she teaches them throughout the whole course of studies.

#### **4.3.2 2015 English Language III Students**

The seven students enrolled to attend the course English Language III during the 2015 academic year volunteered to participate in this study. This group of students had already attended the subjects English Language I and II.

As illustrated in Table 3 below, the seven participants involved in this research study were female and their ages ranged from 21 to 60 years old. All the names were pseudonyms assigned by the researcher who had access to the real names. Six out of seven students had studied English for at least 6 years before entering *Tecnicatura en Lenguas*, either at primary or at secondary school or at a private language institution. There was only one student who had never had formal instruction in the English language before entering this program. As regards the time that they have been studying

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<sup>4</sup> According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Language.

at the Tecnicatura en Lenguas, four of them have spent three years and the rest have spent between four and five years studying it.

Regarding the participants’ reason for enrolling in the program, five out of seven reported that they liked and enjoyed studying foreign languages, one of them expressed that she liked the English language in particular and another participant stated that she had chosen this program by default but she was really happy with her choice. However, those were not the only reasons manifested by the students; some of them affirmed that they wanted to complement an already obtained degree or a future degree; another expressed that she wanted to communicate with foreign people and another student said that the reason was that she wanted to improve her oral skills (see Table 4).

Table 4: Participant Description

Participants	Micaela	Vanina	Mariana	Carolina	Lucía	Valentina	Ana
Age	25	24	60	24	26	24	21
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Female	Female	Female	Female
Years of previous English studies	11	8	None	6	11	6	6
Place of previous English studies	Primary and Secondary School	Secondary School and Private Language Institution	No formal instruction	Secondary School	Secondary School and 2 years in the UNRC Language Teaching Program	Secondary School and Private Language Institution	Secondary School
Years studying Tecnicatura	3	3	4	5	3	3	5
Purpose of enrolling in Tecnicatura	- By default	- Foreign language affinity - to complement an already obtained degree	- Foreign language affinity - a postponed matter	- Foreign language affinity - good at English at school - to complement a future degree	- Foreign language affinity - did not want to be a teacher - to communicate with other people	- English language affinity	- Foreign language affinity - to improve her oral skills

4.4 Instrument Design

According to Patton (2015), qualitative methods generally resort to three types of data collection: 1) in-depth, open ended interviews; 2) direct observation; and 3) written documents (p. 72). In this study, the following types of data gathering instruments described by Patton were designed and implemented, namely:

- 1) A classroom observation grid (Appendix A)
- 2) A stimulated recall teacher interview protocol (Appendix B)
- 3) A standardized open-ended ad hoc teacher interview about beliefs regarding OCF (Appendix C)
- 4) A standardized open-ended ad hoc student interview about beliefs regarding OCF (Appendix D)

These multiple data sources were selected in order to obtain high-quality qualitative data which could be triangulated to address the issues of credibility, trustworthiness and authenticity, as Patton (2015) explained:

Multiple sources of information are sought and used because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective on the program. By using a combination of observations, interviewing and document analysis, the fieldworker is able to use different data sources to validate and cross-check findings. (p. 860)

Since every data collection instrument has strengths and weaknesses, using a combination of various data sources would compensate for the individual weaknesses, increasing the credibility of the study.

Especially noteworthy in the current study is that there were three variables common to the ad hoc instruments that guided the analysis, namely: *1) the role of EC in language learning, 2a) the most effective way of providing OCF, 2b) the most effective way of receiving OCF, 3) the types of errors that should be corrected.*

In the following two sections, the design and implementation of the data collection instruments will be fully described. In the third section, the data analysis procedures will be reported.

#### **4.4.1 Classroom Observation Grid**

The main purpose of classroom observation was to have a first-hand contact with the social and physical environment where the teacher and her students interacted. In this way the researcher is better able to understand and capture the context within which people interact (Patton, 2015). Furthermore, during the observations, the researcher had the role of a “nonparticipant observer” who, according to Creswell (2012) “is an observer who visits a site and records notes without becoming involved in

the activities of the participants” (pp. 214-215) and could witness the working atmosphere generated in the lessons.

It is important to mention that the lessons were video-taped, thus the observations complemented the video recordings; in this way the information obtained from the classes was more detailed and accurate. More importantly, by means of the class observations and video recordings the researcher was able to infer beliefs from the participants’ decision-making and classroom practices during the lessons.

In order to design the classroom observation grid (Appendix, A) the three categories of analysis were taken into consideration: *1) the role of EC in language learning, 2a) the most effective way of providing OCF, 2b) the most effective way of receiving OCF, 3) the types of errors that should be corrected.* Table 5 illustrates the classroom observation grid items and the categories of analysis that they were based on. A related point to consider is that the grid had an open format so that the researcher could add any element or relevant information that might have emerged from the observations.

#### **4.4.2 Stimulated-recall interview Protocol**

The stimulated-recall interview had as its aim to access the participant teacher’s ‘retrospective verbal accounts [in order] to examine their interactive thinking’ (Borg, 2006, p. 210) during a post-lesson observation. The number of SRIs administered and the number of episodes that were showed to the teacher were decided in order to minimize the chances that the teacher would get aware of the real purpose of the study and in this way avoid data skew. Only two SRIs were administered after the third and fourth classroom observations because it was considered that after having observed two classes previously, the participant teacher and her students would feel more relaxed and there would be more spontaneous classroom interactions; subsequently, there would be more instances of teacher’s provision of OCF to students’ erroneous oral productions. An additional aspect that was taken into consideration was that the episodes showed to the teacher consisted of OCF episodes and distracter episodes.

In order to avoid memory decay, each stimulated-recall interview was conducted within the 24 hours the classroom observation took place (Gass & Mackey, 2000). That is why the two stimulated-recall sessions took place 15 hours after the observed lessons had finished. The researcher had at hand the following set of prompting questions: What



Table 5: Classroom observation grid items and categories of analysis

CATEGORIES OF ANALYSIS Beliefs about:	Observation Grid items
1) The role of EC in language learning (Schulz, 2001)	Were there instances of OCF?
2a) The most effective way of providing OCF (Yoshida, 2008)	How was OCF provided? Teacher’s attitude: Body language: Tone of voice:  OCF strategy used: Recast: Clarification Request: Metalinguistic Clues: Explicit Correction: Elicitation: Repetition: Paralinguistic Signals:
3)Types of errors that should be corrected (Cardozo Vieira, 2011)	Types of errors corrected: Grammatical: Lexical: Phonological: Unsolicited use of L1:
2b) The most effective way of receiving OCF (Yoshida, 2008)	Students’ attitude: Body language: Tone of voice:  Students’ involvement in the activities: Were they active participants? Were they motivated? Were they willing to learn?

were you thinking about at that moment?, What was your aim in this activity/ behavior/ answer/ etc.?, Was your aim achieved?, Why did you decide to do or not to do that? (See Appendix B).

The focus of the SRIs was to spot the consistencies and inconsistencies between the teacher’s previously stated beliefs in the OEI and her classroom practices observed from the videotaped class observations.

4.4.3 Standardized open-ended ad hoc teacher interview about beliefs regarding OCF

Patton (2015) explains that the purpose of qualitative interviewing is “to capture how those being interviewed view their world, to learn *their* terminology and judgements, and to capture the complexities of their individual perceptions and experiences” (emphasis in original, p. 963). The standardized open-ended ad hoc

teacher interview about her beliefs regarding OCF had as its aims to obtain demographic information and to explore the teacher's beliefs about the three categories of analysis: 1) *the role of EC in language learning*, 2a) *the most effective way of providing OCF*, 2b) *the most effective way of receiving OCF* and 3) *the types of errors that should be corrected* (see Appendix C). This interview was designed in the English language. It consisted of four demographic questions and ten guided questions that inquired about the teacher's beliefs about the three guiding variables. Patton (2015) denominates this type of interview *standardized open-ended interview* because the interviewer designs a series of questions to ask the participant in order to make certain that all the topics are covered.

Table 6: Standardized open-ended ad hoc teacher interview questions and categories of analysis.

CATEGORIES OF ANALYSIS Beliefs about:	INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
<b>1) The role of EC in language learning</b> (Schulz, 2001)	1) Do you provide OCF to your students? Why?  3) Do you believe that error correction enhances or hinders students' language learning process? Why?  6) Are you satisfied with the way you handle OCF in your classes? Why? Why not?
<b>2a) The most effective way of providing OCF</b> (Yoshida, 2008)	2) How do you usually provide OCF to your students? What does it depend on?  5) In your opinion, which is the most effective way of providing OCF to your students? Why do you believe so?
<b>2b) The most effective way of receiving OCF</b> (Yoshida, 2008)	7) Do you believe that your students want to receive OCF? Why do you believe that?  8) Do you believe that your students prefer to receive OCF in a particular way? Why do you believe so?  9) Do you believe that the way you provide OCF affects or has an impact on students' feelings? Why do you believe so?  10) Would you talk to them about how they prefer to receive OCF? Why?
<b>3) Types of errors that should be corrected</b> (Cardozo Vieira, 2011)	4) What aspects do you believe that you should focus on when providing OCF to your students? Why do you think so?



Table 6 illustrates the 10 guiding questions of the standardized open-ended interview and the categories of analysis that they were based on.

**4.4.4 Standardized open-ended ad hoc student interview about beliefs regarding OCF**

This standardized open-ended ad hoc student interview had the same aim and format as the standardized open-ended ad hoc teacher interview. According to Patton (2015), the standardized open-ended interview “is used when it is important to minimize variation in the questions posed to interviewees” (p. 959). The only difference was that it was administered in Spanish so that the students felt comfortable and at ease answering the questions in their mother tongue.

Table 7: Standardized open-ended ad hoc student interview questions and the categories of analysis.

CATEGORIES OF ANALYSIS	INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
Beliefs about:	
1) The role of EC in language learning (Schulz, 2001)	6) ¿Crees que hay alguna relación entre cometer errores y aprender inglés? ¿Por qué crees esto?
2b) The most effective way of receiving OCF (Yoshida, 2008)	1) ¿Qué tipos de errores te corrigen habitualmente en la clase de inglés?  3) ¿Cómo preferís que te corrijan los errores cuando estás hablando en inglés? ¿Por qué?  4) ¿Crees que es mejor que te corrija la profesora o un compañero? ¿Por qué?  5) ¿Cómo te sentís cuando la Profesora te marca un error cuando vos estás hablando en inglés? ¿Por qué?  7) ¿Cuál crees que es la mejor forma de recibir correcciones cuando estás hablando inglés?  8) Has notado que en algunas ocasiones la Profesora no corrige algunos errores, ya sea a vos o a tus compañeros, ¿Por qué crees que ella hace esto?  9) ¿Crees que se debería negociar en el aula la forma en la que cada alumno quiere ser corregido? ¿Por qué?
3) Types of errors that should be corrected (Cardozo Vieira, 2011)	2) ¿Crees que hay otros errores que te deberían corregir a parte de los que acabas de mencionar? ¿Por qué?

This interview was designed having as its basis the three categories of analysis (see Appendix D). Table 7 describes the nine guiding questions of the standardized open-ended student interview and the categories of analysis that they were based on.

#### **4.5 Piloting of the instruments**

A pilot study was conducted for all the research instruments before the final implementation in order to ensure the clarity and effectiveness of the questions and statements. Besides, the pilot study further enhanced the validity of this study by pre-testing the research instruments. There were three main reasons for conducting the pilot studies: to develop and test adequacy of the research instruments, to assess whether the research protocols were realistic and workable, and to train the researcher in as many elements of the research process as possible (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2010).

The observation grid was piloted in a two-hour lesson taught in the same program but in the course called English Language I. In this opportunity, the way the video camera should be positioned was also piloted. The following day, the stimulated-recall interview protocol and the standardized open-ended teacher interview were piloted with the ESL teacher in charge of the module English Language I. Subsequently, the standardized open-ended student interview was piloted with three volunteer students from a similar population attending English Language I at the ESL Teacher Training program. These students were selected because they had similar English language proficiency as the participant students from the *Tecnicatura en Lenguas*. Both sets of standardized open-ended interview protocols were piloted with the intention to get feedback on the clarity of the items and also to identify ambiguous and difficult concepts in the items.

After the pilot study of all the research instruments and technological devices, few changes were made in accordance to the responses and comments from the samples. For example: the display of the categories in the Observation Grid was changed; a new question in the student interview was added and a question in the teacher interview was paraphrased.

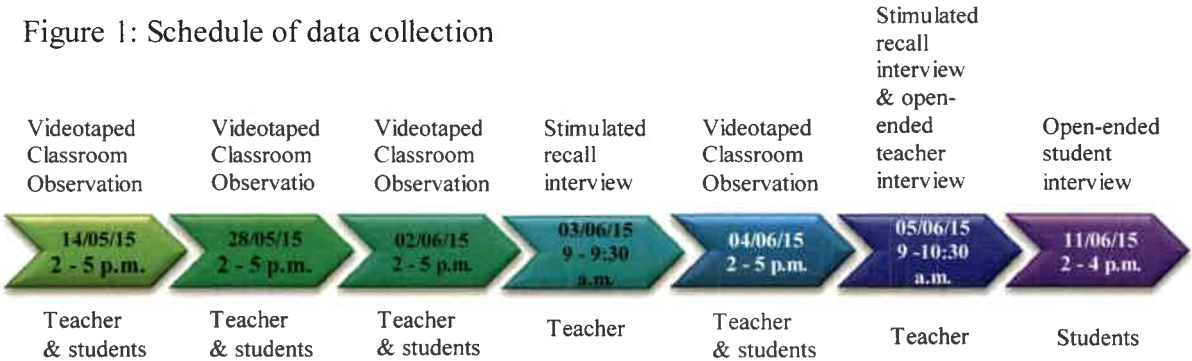
#### **4.6 Data collection procedures**

In November, 2014, I talked to the teacher in charge of coordinating the English Modules in the *Tecnicatura en Lenguas* program and asked for her participation in this study together with her students from the module English Language III. She kindly

agreed to participate in this study and allowed me to contact her students so I could ask for their participation. I went to one of the students’ lessons in order to ask for their willingness to participate in this study. In that opportunity, I also explained the purpose of the study to them and expressed the need for signing a written informed consent (see Appendix E). At this point, I explained the teacher and the students that this step was necessary due to ethical reasons in research involving human subjects. I made sure that all the potential participants had taken an informed decision. A schedule of data collection is showed in Figure 1 below.

As a side note, in order to avoid any possible behavioral changes in Raquel’s teachings and the students’ class participation, and therefore skewing of the data, the participants were informed that the research goal was to examine general teaching techniques as it was done by Junqueira & Kim (2011), Mori (2011, 2002). In other words, I did not completely disclose the purpose of this study.

Figure 1: Schedule of data collection



4.6.1 Videotaped class observations

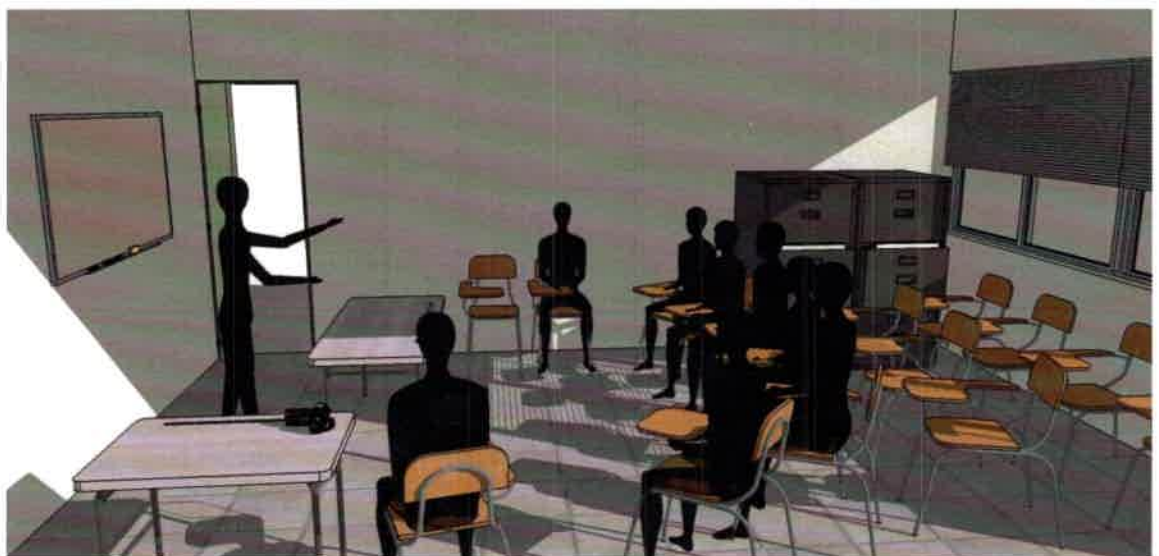
In order to have access to the English Language III lessons, I talked to Raquel, who provided me with the students’ schedule. She taught a three-hour lesson every Thursday from 2 to 5 p.m. in a small classroom situated in the same building where the teachers’ offices are located. I observed four lessons during the months of May and June, a total of 12 hours approximately. As I had explained the research purpose and had anticipated my presence that day in their lessons, it was not necessary to give further information when I entered the classroom. In the classroom set up, as it is sketched in Figure 2, I sat on the teacher’s right-hand side, between the teacher’s desk and the students’ desks. I positioned the video camera on an empty auxiliary table situated on my left-hand side and I sat at a desk with my laptop ready to take notes in

the observation grid protocol. I was able to move the video camera in order to capture teacher-student interactions, facial gestures, non-verbal behaviors, body language, among other aspects of the classroom situation. The classroom was relatively small; there were approximately 15 desks, a whiteboard and two file cabinets. In addition, there was a desk right in front of the whiteboard. It was luminous since it had a wall-to-wall window in the back part and another window in one of the sides. From my point of view, it was a cozy classroom.

It is worth mentioning that the participants never entirely forgot about the presence of the camera; I could perceive their uneasiness from the first videotaped class and then I could confirm this when I watched the tapes; I could see how students gazed at the video camera and gossiped about it from time to time. I could not use more than one video camera in the same classroom because of the logistics of operating two cameras and also the increased intrusiveness. Once the class was over, I immediately turned off the video camera and I could see how the students relaxed and started to make jokes about the fact that they had been video recorded.

Observing classes allowed me to get to know the classroom routines, the usual interactions among the students and the teacher. I also tried to observe if some of their beliefs would be verbalized or enacted during class and how the students participated in each activity the teacher proposed to them.

Figure 2: Classroom physical representation



#### **4.6.2. Stimulated Recall Interviews**

After the third-class observation, I arranged a meeting with Raquel for the following morning in the same classroom. I told her that I needed further information about some topics from her lessons. When the time came, I explained that she would watch seven short extracts from the previous day lesson and that she should try to remember what she was thinking at that moment. I read the prompted question aloud and explained that the questions from the protocol were prompts and it was not necessary to answer them all. I let her choose to answer in English or in Spanish. She preferred to do it in English; nevertheless, she seemed to be a bit nervous since this was the first time she had participated in this type of interview. Raquel's answers were audio-recorded.

For the first stimulated recall interview, three OCF episodes and four distracters, which consisted of the teacher encouraging the students to deploy certain strategies, were chosen. After the fourth and last observation class, I arranged another meeting with the teacher in order to administer the second stimulated recall interview. In this second instance, only two distracters and five OCF episodes were presented to the teacher. At this time, she felt more relaxed and secure because she knew how the session would go about.

The two interviews took approximately 20 minutes each. During these two recalls, the concept of OCF was not mentioned. Once the second and last stimulated recall interview was over, and before the open-ended interview was administered, the concept of OCF was mentioned for the first time.

#### **4.6.3 Standardized open-ended ad hoc teacher interview about beliefs regarding OCF**

Once the second stimulated recall interview was completed, the standardized open-ended interview was conducted. It was decided to administer this interview at this stage in order not to reveal the specific purpose of the study in an earlier stage of the study. This was the first time that the term OCF was used in conversation with the teacher since I read to her how the term was operationalized in this study.

In the interview, Raquel was asked about personal information, her teaching background, and her beliefs about OCF practices (see Appendix C). All the questions in the guide were asked even if the topic of the question had already been addressed in



previous answers. She was relaxed and outspoken during the 30 minutes that the interview lasted.

The interview was audio recorded. According to McKay (2006) the advantage of audio recording an interview is that this conserves the actual words that are used, providing an objective record of what was said that can later be analyzed. However, the disadvantage of audio recording the interview is that the presence of a tape recorder might contribute to the anxiety of the participants.

#### **4.6.4. Standardized open-ended ad hoc student interview about beliefs regarding OCF**

Subsequently, the following class (see figure 1), I went to the classroom and asked Raquel to allow the students to leave the classroom one by one, for no more than ten minutes each, in order to complete the last data collection procedure. She kindly agreed. I took the student interview individually in a small classroom in the same building. I audio recorded the interviews and administered it in Spanish so that the students felt more relaxed and comfortable. During the time that I was alone with each student, I could talk to them more openly about my research and I could answer their questions. Finally, I thanked them and gave them a small present as a sign of gratitude for their kind participation.

### **4.7 Data analysis procedures**

Given the characteristics of this study, two qualitative strategies were selected for analyzing the data obtained: “content analysis” Patton (2015) and “interaction analysis” (McKay, 2006). Regarding content analysis, Patton (2015) explains that it “refers to any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings” (p. 1178). He claims that one of the major challenges of qualitative analysis is to find a way to creatively synthesize and present findings (Patton, 2015). In relation to interaction analysis, McKay (2006) considers that this method can be used to study classroom oral discourse. She defines interaction analysis as the use of “some type of coding system to investigate the communication patterns that occur in a classroom” (p. 90). The data obtained from the teacher and student open-ended interviews, the teacher stimulated

recall interview and the notes taken during the classroom observations were analyzed using content analysis: whereas the data obtained from the videotaped classroom observations were analyzed using interaction analysis.

The first step and main challenge was to develop a coding scheme for analysis. After the raw data from the teacher and student standardized open-ended and the stimulated recall interview were thoroughly transcribed, and the instances of teacher-student interactions where the teacher provided OCF to the students' erroneous production were identified and transcribed, the data analysis procedure per se started.

#### **4.7.1 Content analysis of the standardized open-ended ad hoc teacher interview about beliefs regarding OCF**

Once the teacher interview was thoroughly transcribed, I carefully read the transcriptions several times adding comments in the margins and highlighting sections that could illustrate important concepts. The Microsoft Word tool "track changes" was used to highlight extracts and write comments in the comment bubbles. Patton (2015) explains that this process of organizing the data by specific cases for in-depth study and comparison is defined as *case analysis*. This was the first attempt of data-reduction and sense making effort to identify the teacher's beliefs regarding the three pre-established guiding variables and possible emerging beliefs about OCF. The data analysis took place alongside data collection for emerging interpretations. I constantly kept an open mind to be alert to the emergence of new categories, which would be synthesized in relation to the research questions. This enabled me to gain a holistic interpretation of the data as well as a comprehensive understanding of the influences the context may have on teachers' beliefs about OCF.

After having critically examined and carefully interpreted and synthesized the information in order to identify the teacher's beliefs, I completed different tables with the purpose of organizing the data and making it easy to read for me. They are not included in this manuscript but their content is presented in different graphs and figures.

#### **4.7.2 Content analysis of the standardized open-ended ad hoc student interview about beliefs regarding OCF**

In relation to the standardized open-ended student interview, I carried out the same procedures as with the teacher interview. However, in this instance the way of

organizing the data was that of *cross-case analysis*; this means that I grouped “together answers from different people to common questions” (Patton, 2015, p. 1164). The Microsoft Word tool “track changes” was also used, as well as the completion of tables to summarize and organize the data.

The purpose of this analysis was to answer the second research question: What do the EFL students believe about the use of OCF strategies in relation to: *1) the types of errors that should be corrected; 2b) the most effective way of receiving OCF to their English oral production; 3) the role of error correction in language learning?*

#### **4.7.3 Interaction analysis of the videotaped class observations**

After having collected all the data, I started analyzing the videotapes of the observed lessons with the purpose of identifying all the instances of teacher-student interactions in which the teacher provided OCF to an erroneous student production; the instances which contained errors which were overlooked by the teacher or corrected by a classmate were not included in the analysis since they were not the focus of this study. More specifically, the coding system used is *limited coding scheme* which deals “only with the moves that are used in a particular type of classroom interaction” (p. 91) and “categories are developed in reference to a specific classroom activity” (p. 96). It is important to mention that two types of classroom interactions were taken into account: spontaneous teacher-student interactions and reading-aloud activities. In this study, only the moves which involved OCF provided by the participant teacher were transcribed and analyzed.

All the moves were transcribed and categorized according to:

a) Six types of OCF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and one strategy contributed by Ellis (2009), namely: 1) recasts, 2) metalinguistic cues, 3) elicitations, 4) clarification requests, 5) explicit corrections, 6) repetitions and 7) paralinguistic signals (see Table 1, p. 22), and

b) Four types of errors presented by Lyster and Ranta (1997): 1) grammatical, 2) lexical, 3) phonological, 4) use of L1. Further operational definitions are provided in section 2.1.3.2 in the Theoretical Framework.

The interaction analysis applied to all the moves which involved OCF provided by the teacher to an erroneous student’s production was carried out in order to answer research question four: What are the different types and frequency of occurrence of



OCF strategies used by the EFL teacher in her classes? An external EFL teacher was asked to code the OCF strategies identified and the types of errors targeted by the participant teacher. The presence of an inter-rater helps reduce the potential bias that comes from a single researcher analyzing the data and gives credibility to the findings of the study (Patton, 2015).

#### **4.7.4 Content analysis of the classroom observation notes taken by the researcher**

The data analysis of the notes taken during the classroom observations were of utmost importance to carefully describe the atmosphere created and the social interaction that took place in the classroom. That is why the results obtained from this instrument helped in the contextualization of the results section as a whole, but they were not described as a separate section in the chapter of results. The notes taken by the researcher together with the information provided by the completion of the observation grid were critically examined and carefully interpreted and synthesized in order to contribute to a more finished classroom atmosphere description.

#### **4.7.5 Content analysis of teacher stimulated recall interview**

The answers obtained from the stimulated recall interview were fully transcribed verbatim and analyzed qualitatively. I carried out the same procedures as with the open ended teacher and student interviews. After that, the findings from the teacher open ended interview, the videotaped classroom observations and from the stimulated recalls were compared by highlighting common themes and recurrent topics in order to identify possible relationships of congruence and incongruence between the teacher's beliefs, her classroom practices and her reflections about the latter.

### **4.8 Enhancing Trustworthiness of this study**

It is important to take into account measures that ensure qualitative research trustworthiness, in order to reflect the reality in its natural setting. According to Patton (2015), "the credibility of your findings and interpretations depends on your careful attention to establish trustworthiness" (p. 1471). The following sections will explain how the overall trustworthiness of this qualitative study was enhanced, including

maintaining its credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, as cited in Patton, 2015).

#### **4.8.1 Credibility**

The researchers' purpose in addressing the concept of credibility is "to attempt to demonstrate that a true picture of the phenomenon under scrutiny is being presented" (Shenton, 2004, p. 63). In this study, credibility is related to whether the data collected from the teacher and her students evidence a true relationship between the concepts of teacher and students' beliefs about OCF, the teacher's actual use of OCF, and the teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices.

The following steps were followed to enhance the credibility of this study (Shenton, 2004): the development of an early familiarity with the culture of participating organizations (section 4.6), triangulation (section 4.4), use of tactics to help ensure honesty in informants when contributing data (see below), frequent debriefing sessions (see below), thick description of the phenomenon under scrutiny (sections 4.2, 4.3) and examination of previous research findings (see Literature Review section).

Regarding the tactics used to ensure the informants' honesty, Shenton (2004) explained that each person should participate in the study voluntarily to ensure that the data collection sessions "involve only those who are genuinely willing to take part and prepared to offer data freely" (p. 66). In addition, concerning the debriefing sessions, they took place during the whole process and stages of this research project on a weekly basis. In these sessions, I discussed alternative approaches, theoretical frameworks, and potential flaws among many other topics with the project director and co-director. Furthermore, as regards member checking, Lincoln & Guba, (1985, as cited in Shenton, 2004) claimed that "checks relating to the accuracy of the data may take place on the spot in the course, and at the end, of the data collection dialogues". Therefore, the use of SRIs might be considered member checking instances, which took place during the data collection procedure.

#### **4.8.2 Transferability**

To allow transferability, researchers should provide sufficient detail of the context of the fieldwork and the case under study so that "readers could establish a

degree of similarity between the case studied and the case to which findings might be transferred” (Patton, 2015, p. 1472). That is to say that transferability deals with the issue of generalizability in terms of case -to -case transfer (Patton, 2015). In agreement with what was previously stated, this study attempts to assure its transferability by providing an exhaustive description of the phenomenon under study (sections 4.2, 4.3), the data collection procedures and analysis (sections 4.6, 4.7), so that potential researchers could be able transfer the data and interpretations to other contexts.

#### **4.8.3 Dependability**

Dependability focuses on “the process of the inquiry and the inquirer’s responsibility for ensuring that the process was logical, traceable, and documented” (Patton, 2015, p. 1472). In this study, the following steps were followed in order to enhance its credibility: its research design was made explicit; details of data gathering and evaluation of the project were also described (sections 4.6, 4.7).

#### **4.8.4 Confirmability**

Patton (2015) explained that confirmability is concerned with “establishing the fact that the data and interpretations of an inquiry were not merely fragments of the inquirer’s imagination” (pp. 1472-1473). Shenton (2004) emphasized once more the role of triangulation in promoting confirmability to reduce the effect of investigator bias. Besides, he continues explaining that a detailed methodological description allows “the reader to determine how far the data and constructs emerging from it may be accepted” (p. 72). In order to uphold the confirmability of this study a triangulation of data collection instruments was conducted; this procedure reduces researcher bias by having the informants perform member checking, they might also confirm whether the researcher’s interpretations reflect participants’ beliefs.

### **4.9 Conclusion**

The aim of this chapter was to describe the methodology which underpinned the present study, the context in which this research was conducted, the data collection instruments, the piloting of the instruments, and the procedures to collect the data and

the way the trustworthiness of this study was enhanced. In the following chapter, the results obtained will be described.

## CHAPTER V: RESULTS

In the preceding chapter the research methodology used in this study was presented. The current chapter aims at reporting on the results obtained from three different data collection instruments, namely: the open ended teacher and student interviews, the videotaped classroom observations and the teacher stimulated recall interview. Three variables common to the ad hoc instruments employed guided the analysis: *1) the role of error correction in language learning, 2a) the most effective way of providing OCF, or 2b) the most effective way of receiving OCF, 3) the types of errors that should be corrected.*

The methodology adopted to analyze the data and accomplish the aims of this study was content analysis and, at the same time, case analysis and cross-case analysis (Patton, 2015). This chapter is organized in five sections: first, the teacher's beliefs about OCF will be reported. The next section of this chapter will report the students' beliefs about OCF. In the third section the teacher and students' beliefs will be compared. In the fourth section, the different types of OCF strategies used by the EFL teacher and the frequency of occurrence will be presented. In this section, the methodology adopted to analyze the teacher-student interactions was "interaction analysis" (McKay, 2006). Finally, in the last section, the relationship between the EFL teacher's beliefs about OCF and her classroom practices will be presented.

### **5.1. Teacher's beliefs about the provision of OCF to her EFL students' oral production**

In this section I will report on Raquel's beliefs about the provision of OCF to her ESL students. The results of the content analysis of the data obtained from the open ended interview (henceforth OEI) will be presented in order to answer the first research question: What does an EFL teacher believe about OCF in relation to: *1) the role of error correction in language learning, 2a) the most effective way of providing OCF, 3) the types of errors that should be corrected?*

Raquel was informed about the specific purpose of the study and the concept of OCF before the administration of the OEI; this was also the first time that OCF was mentioned and explained to her; until that moment, she had only been told that the purpose of this study was to examine general teaching techniques in order to avoid

changes in her classroom practices and consequently skewing the data. The results will be organized according to the three guiding variables mentioned above.

### 5.1.2 Teacher's beliefs about *the role of error correction in language learning*

When Raquel was explicitly asked about the role error correction (henceforth EC) had in language learning, she replied that EC led to language learning. Specifically, she believed that EC was an important stage in this process. She expressed this idea as follows:

*I think that if you don't correct you might have productions that do not improve in a way because you need to be corrected I think that correction is part of learning.<sup>5</sup>*

Therefore, according to Raquel's stated belief, *EC contributes to language learning*. Kalaja and Barcelos (2013) have acknowledged that "some beliefs are more important than others" (p. 4) which may influence classroom actions and thus either enhancing or preventing language learning. Hence, Raquel's previous stated belief might be considered an important belief which could influence her classroom actions.

As regards her provision of OCF to her students' erroneous oral production and the reason why she did so, Raquel answered she had never taken into account this issue before. However, she considered that if she did not correct her students' erroneous oral production they would not progress in their learning. She acknowledged that she was not completely conscious of her behaviour regarding EC, but she stressed that she knew she had to do it. Hence, another important belief expressed by Raquel was that her role as a teacher is to correct students' errors; she believed that *EC was inherent in a teacher's role*. In her own words:

*I have never thought about this before, I know that I need to correct because if you don't correct they won't advance in their learning (sic).*

In sum, as shown in figure 3, Raquel revealed having entrenched beliefs about the role of EC in her students' language learning process even though she expressed

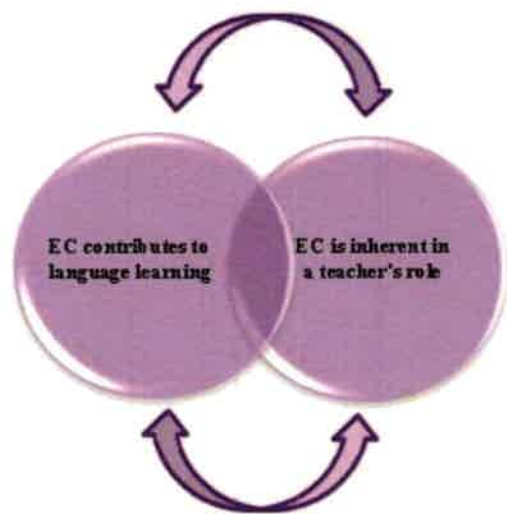
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<sup>5</sup> All the participant's responses have been transcribed verbatim and in their original language.



never having taken into account this issue before. Figure 3 shows how these beliefs are intertwined with one another. The relationship illustrated in figure 3 could be explained as follows: Raquel believed that EC contributes to her students’ language learning and it was inherent in her role as a teacher. The double directed arrows represent the intertwined relationship between these beliefs.

Figure 3: Raquel’s beliefs about the *role of error correction in language learning*



**5.1.3 Teacher’s beliefs about *the most effective way of providing OCF***

Regarding Raquel’s beliefs in relation *to the most effective way of providing OCF*, she honestly expressed not knowing which the most effective way could be, because similarly to her previous answers, she stated never having considered this issue before. She expressed that she provided OCF in an intuitive way. As she said:

*I never thought about which would be the best way, it is like intuitively.*

The fact that Raquel was unable to articulate her beliefs about OCF might entail that she did not have firm established beliefs regarding this issue, or if she did, she might have been unaware of them. However, through the analysis of the participant teacher’s answers to several other questions she was asked during the interview, it was possible to identify the following explicit beliefs related to the most effective way of providing OCF.

Raquel believed that she should *let students speak without interrupting them* because, in her view, it could be counterproductive and discouraging for students. Therefore, she believed that letting her students speak without her interruption was beneficial for them, even though their productions might contain mistakes. However, she admitted that on some occasions, she interrupted her students to provide OCF, and she added that she was working on how to avoid this behavior since she knew it did not lead to good results.

*I interrupt; sometimes I try not to interrupt because, as I've told you, I think that it can be [...] not productive.*

Raquel went deeper into her reflections and stated that she believed that *she should guide her students to discover their mistakes*. She expressed this belief as follows:

*They should correct themselves and [I should] guide them to achieve that aim of correcting themselves.*

Closely related to this explicit belief, Raquel also believed that *she should give students the opportunity to self-correct*. Raquel expressed that EC led to meaningful language learning, especially, if students recognized the mistake by themselves. That is to say, in order to learn from mistakes, students are supposed to discover the error on their own with the teacher's guidance. She expressed this belief in the following way:

*I think that my underlying belief might be that I want them to realize by themselves.*

*I think that in order to learn from an error I really think that you have to discover the error yourself.*

However, she asserted that if her students could not realize about their mistakes by themselves, she would tell them the right answer as her last resource. She expressed it as follows:

*They would never get that [the right answer] from me. I don't know why, because I always work in the same manner with all the skills.*

*I try they discover by themselves, the first try is to give them the opportunity to discover or to change something, if they can't, the last resource would be to tell them.*

Hence, in relation to the variable *the most effective way of providing OCF*, Raquel's explicit beliefs were: that *she should let students speak without interrupting them; she should give the students the opportunity to self-correct*, and that she should do that by *guiding them to discover their own mistakes* and not providing the right answer immediately after her students' erroneous production.

In addition to Raquel's explicit beliefs, it was possible to infer some of her "implicit beliefs" (Gill & Fives, 2015; Fives & Buehl, 2012) from her descriptions of her classroom practice. According to Fives and Buehl (2012), these types of beliefs "guide a teacher's behavior and filter interpretation of teaching experiences without the teacher's awareness" (p. 474). Thus, Raquel was less conscious about them because she could not articulate them as she did with the explicit beliefs previously discussed. These implicit beliefs seemed to be hidden, not on the surface. The analysis of her answers revealed that Raquel took into consideration many aspects related to the way she provided OCF to her students, such as *when, when not to, to whom and how much*.

Raquel unveiled that she provided OCF *when there was a risk of communication breakdown*. That is to say, when there was a problem which impeded to get the message through. Raquel believed that mistakes that hindered communication should be corrected; as she put it:

*When I see that a problem breaks the message (sic) in a way I correct.*

Raquel also disclosed *when not to* provide OCF to the students' erroneous oral productions. She detailed that she avoided correcting her students when it was evident that *they were struggling to communicate*, even if they were unable to achieve this purpose. She expressed this as follows:

*[When] I notice that there's a difficulty in speaking and they try and try and I can see effort on the part of the students and if they can't get their meanings through I sometimes don't correct.*

Furthermore, she continued explaining that it was easier for her to provide OCF to students *who did not struggle to get their messages through*, in contrast to the ones who were making a great effort to get their meanings across. In her own words:

*The ones that are not struggling I don't have any problem, I can correct them easily, but when I see difficulty and that they are making an effort [it is not so easy].*

*There are students that make so many mistakes that, if I have to correct them all the time, they wouldn't be able [...] to produce two words together.*

Lastly, as regards the amount of provision of OCF to her students' erroneous oral productions (*how much*), Raquel believed that *excessive OCF could affect students' participation in speaking activities*. As she expressed it:

*I think that if I overcorrect it might have a negative effect...*

*I think that it can be over productive (sic) or not productive to correct them too much, especially because they are struggling to speak...*

*... if you correct too much I think that they won't speak...*

In this regard, Raquel openly expressed to believe that *in order to develop the speaking skill, students had to have high self-confidence*; for this reason, she deliberately omitted the provision of OCF to some of her students' erroneous oral production in order not to lower their self-confidence since she implicitly believed that *extensive interruptions and provision of OCF might provoke students' negative emotions*. As she clearly explained it:

*Speaking relies a lot on confidence, on being confident to speak; so if you correct too much I think that they won't speak. If you want to develop fluency I let some mistakes pass, (sic.) I would say. But not all errors, I think that speaking is one of these skills in that you need confidence; maybe because of me, because of my personality I don't know if all the people think in this way.*

In her answer, Raquel implied that the source of her belief regarding the speaking ability might be related to her own personality, and she immediately admitted that this belief might not be shared by her students. Closely connected to this was her explicit belief that *teachers should be sensitive when providing OCF to their students* because, as she expressed it, they could affect their self-confidence.

*I am very sensitive to the way I should correct because I know that there are some ways which can be negative. [...] So, you should be very sensitive whether you affect confidence or not and whether that can help or not.*

As Raquel was continuously considering the students' emotions that might arouse when receiving OCF, she believed that *the effort that students make to get their meanings through should be praised by avoiding the correction of some mistakes*. The teacher attributed this belief to the fact that she took into consideration the nature of her students' course of studies; she believed that *studying different languages simultaneously might be difficult*, that is why she behaved in that way. She further explained that this belief came from her background knowledge about the topic of plurilingualism. Furthermore, she was aware of the particular characteristics of *Tecnicatura en Lenguas* students and of the aims of this program:

*It is difficult in a course of study like this because we don't have many references, but when I read I see that when you learn different languages, more than two languages, you don't acquire the same competence in all the languages. So for me it is better to let them try, whether they are fluent I don't need them to be very accurate as long as they can get their meanings through.*

All in all, Raquel expressed that some of the decisions she took regarding the provision of OCF could have been subjective and intuitive, because they depended on what she perceived in the classroom. However, as we went deeper into conversation, she disclosed that she took many decisions about this issue deliberately. For a visual representation of Raquel's explicit and implicit beliefs regarding *the most effective way of providing OCF* see figure 4 on page 68.

Through the descriptions about how the participant teacher proceeded when she had to correct her students' erroneous oral productions, it was possible to infer the OCF strategies that she might employ in her classes. Although Raquel did not name any of the OCF strategies found in the literature (See Table 1, p. 22), it could be inferred from her descriptions, that she believed that output-prompting types of OCF (Ellis, 2006 as cited in Ellis, 2009) would be the most effective strategies when providing OCF to her students' erroneous oral production. As Raquel had previously expressed, she wanted her students to realize by themselves that they had made a mistake; if this was not possible, she would guide them to produce the right version. In other words, she would attempt to prompt her students to self-correct. The OCF strategies that have been classified as output-prompting such as metalinguistic cues, elicitation, repetition, clarification request and paralinguistic signals, are the ones that she might use in her classroom practices. As she has already mentioned, Raquel admitted that if she did not succeed in prompting her students to produce the correct version of an erroneous production, she would use the provision of the right version as her last resource. That is to say, she would use input-providing OCF strategies (recast, and explicit correction). It is important to highlight that she explicitly stated that this strategy was used as her last course of action. She probably believed that this type of OCF was not the most effective one.

Finally, Raquel explained that on some occasions, such as students' oral presentations, she provided OCF once the speaking activity had finished. She specified



that she took notes of the students’ mistakes and after the activity was over she would provide OCF to each student in front of the whole class. In her own words:

*... to write down the mistakes and then I talk to them in relation to some mistakes.  
[...] In some other cases I have prepared like papers [handouts] giving them the mistakes and asking them to reflect on their mistakes.*

Raquel’s explanation of this way of providing OCF has been described in the literature as “delayed CF” (Ellis, 2009, p.11). The teacher’s choice of delaying the correction until later might depend on the focus of the activity, if it is fluency or accuracy (Ellis, 2009). When Raquel used delayed OCF, she prompted her students’ reflection on their mistakes and fostered students’ fluency. For a summary of Raquel’s own explanation of her classroom practices and its classification see table 8 below.

Table 8: Raquel’s description of her classroom practices and inferred types of OCF

Raquel’s descriptions of her classroom practices	Inferred type of OCF
<i>- I want them to realize by themselves. They should correct themselves and [my role is to] guide them to achieve that aim of correcting themselves</i>	<b>Output- Prompting</b> metalinguistic cues, elicitation, repetition, clarification request and paralinguistic signals
<i>- to write down the mistakes and then I talk to them in relation to some mistakes. - to prepare papers [handouts] giving them the mistakes and asking them to reflect on their mistakes.</i>	<b>Output- Prompting</b> Delayed metalinguistic cues, delayed elicitation, delayed repetition, delayed clarification request and paralinguistic signals
<i>- I try they discover by themselves, the first try is to give them the opportunity to discover or to change something, if they can’t the last resource would be to tell them.</i>	<b>Input- Providing</b> recast, and explicit correction

In sum, from the descriptions of her own classroom practices, it could be inferred that she believed that not providing the right version of her students’ erroneous productions was more beneficial for them, which is closely related to her explicit beliefs that *teachers should guide students to discover their own mistakes and teachers should give students the opportunity to self-correct.*

#### 5.1.4 Teacher's beliefs about *the types of errors that should be corrected*

As regards *the types of errors that should be corrected*, Raquel believed that *teachers should focus on pronunciation mistakes, errors that hinder communication and mistakes related to appropriateness*. The following excerpts illustrate Raquel's beliefs:

*I'm sure that they should be able to pronounce the words correctly.*

*I always correct and this is mainly because when I see that they cannot get their messages through, but I have also corrected for example when they produce messages that aren't appropriate.*

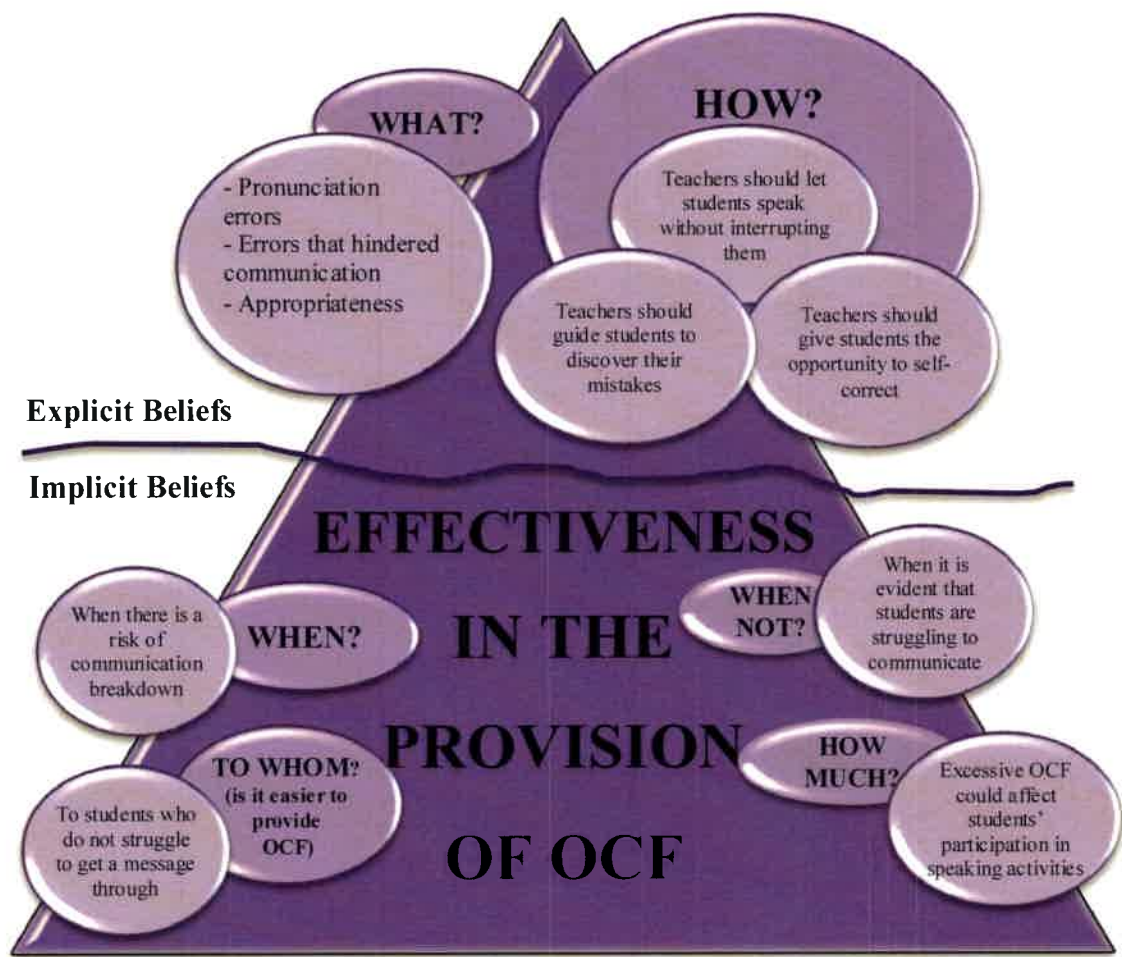
In closing, regarding Raquel's beliefs about *the type of errors that should be corrected* in her EFL lessons, she assertively expressed what her focus of attention was: pronunciation mistakes, errors that hindered communication and appropriateness. These beliefs were included in figure 4 in the bubble named *what*.

As shown in figure 4, Raquel's level of consciousness of her beliefs is represented by the pyramid. Raquel's explicit belief clusters are situated near the top of the pyramid, whereas the implicit belief clusters are distributed from the middle to the bottom.

#### 5.1.5 Teacher's beliefs about the provision of OCF: Summary of Raquel's implicit and explicit beliefs

Everything considered, in the analysis of the participant teacher's beliefs regarding the provision of OCF many explicit beliefs were verbalized by Raquel. In general terms, Raquel firmly believed that *EC contributes to language learning* and that *it is inherent in the teachers' role*. The most effective way of providing OCF was to *give the students the opportunity to self-correct and let them speak without interruptions*, since students' emotions could be affected negatively if they received extensive interruptions when to providing OCF. In this regard, Raquel expressed her beliefs regarding the relationship between the speaking ability and students' self-confidence; she believed that *to develop the speaking skill, students have to have high self-confidence*.

Figure 4: Raquel’s explicit and implicit beliefs regarding *the most effective way of providing OCF and the type of errors that should be corrected*



Even though she had admitted that she provided OCF intuitively and subjectively, she was consciously aware of the potential harm that the provision of extensive interruptions to provide OCF could cause on the students’ self-confidence since, as she put it, speaking and self-confidence were closely related. *She believed that a teacher had to be very sensitive when providing OCF to the students’ erroneous oral production because their self-confidence could be affected in a negative way.* What is more, Raquel expressed that the contextual factors related to the type of program she was teaching in and the students’ individual characteristics should be taken into consideration when providing OCF, since she firmly believed that *studying different languages simultaneously must be difficult.*

In addition, Raquel also believed that in order to learn from mistakes, *teachers should guide students to discover their own mistakes.* Consequently, she believed that in this way students would advance in their learning. That was one of the reasons why it

was inferred that Raquel believed that the most effective way of providing OCF was output-prompting types of OCF strategies, since by using these strategies, she would be able to guide her students to produce errorless oral messages.

Finally, her explicit beliefs regarding the types of errors that should be corrected were: pronunciation mistakes, errors that hindered communication and appropriateness.

Among the implicit beliefs that were inferred from Raquel's accounts of her classroom practices emerged the following: that she should provide OCF *when there was a risk of communication breakdown*, but she should avoid the provision (when not to) *when students were struggling to communicate*. She considered this avoidance as a prize for their effort. In addition, she implicitly believed that *it was easier for her to provide OCF to students who did not struggle to get their message through*.

In conclusion, even though Raquel expressed that she had never considered this topic before, it was evident that she held many explicit and implicit beliefs about EC and the provision of OCF.

## 5.2 Students' beliefs about the reception of OCF to their oral production

In this section I will report on the seven participant students' beliefs about the reception of OCF to their oral production. The results of the content analysis of the data obtained from the student OEI will be presented in order to answer the second research question: What do the EFL students believe about OCF in relation to: *1) the role of error correction in language learning; 2b) the most effective way of receiving OCF to their English oral production; 3) the types of errors that should be corrected?*

The participant students answered the OEI questions after four of the lessons had been observed. This interview was administered in Spanish and individually, but the answers will be reported jointly. Patton (2015) defined this type of analysis as cross-case analysis, since the answers from different people are grouped together taking into account common central issues. At the beginning of the OEI each student was informed about the specific purpose of this study since previously, they had only been told that the purpose of the study was to examine general teaching techniques in order to avoid changes in their classroom actions and consequently skewing the data.



### 5.2.1 Students' beliefs about *the role of error correction in language learning*

When this group of students was inquired about *the role of EC in language learning*, they manifested having a positive attitude towards their own errors. They showed having a confident stance by expressing a popular belief that asserts that people learn from their own mistakes. As they put it:

*Y... de los errores se aprende. (Macarena, Mariana, Lucía & Ana)*

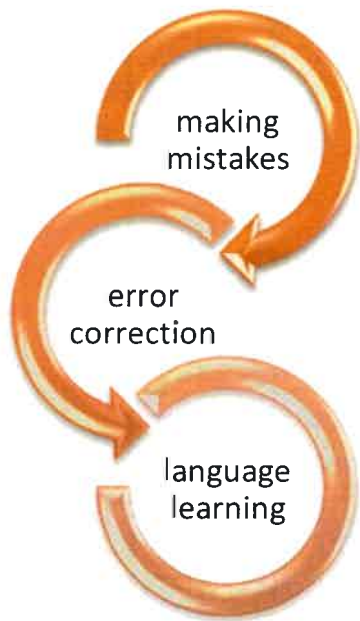
*Porque si uno no se equivoca no aprende. (Valentina)*

So, apparently this group of students believed that *making mistakes is part of the language learning process*. In addition, they manifested believing that the role of EC was very important in language learning since most of them perceived it as a necessary step to progress in their learning. These beliefs were, in their view, closely connected since they could see a relationship among making mistakes, EC and language learning. (See figure 5). As a consequence of their positive view towards these three central topics, they could be considered to be in a favorable position for receiving OCF to their erroneous oral productions. The students expressed this as follows:

*Siempre me gustó que me corrijan porque de esa forma uno intenta buscar otra forma para decirlo y una mejor forma y va aprendiendo. [...]. De los errores viene el aprendizaje, siempre hay que buscar una manera de mejorar. [...]. Si está mal, nos corrigen para que lo digamos bien. (Lucía)*

*Siempre voy a cometer errores para poder aprender, y si no sería todo muy recto. (Vanina)*

Figure 5: The relationship among making mistakes, EC and language learning



Furthermore, it was possible to infer that students implicitly believed that *EC* was *inherent in the teachers’ role* and therefore, it was an expected teacher behavior, especially because many of the participants perceived the teacher as a source of knowledge. The students expressed these beliefs as follows:

*Porque sabe más la profe [es mejor que me corrija ella] sí, tengo más confianza en la profe. (Carolina)*

*... la profesora por supuesto sabe mucho más que yo y si me ayuda, es muy bueno. (Lucía)*

However, when they were specifically asked whether they preferred receiving OCF from the teacher or a classmate, even though they had expressed that EC was an expected teacher’s task, in general, they explicitly believed that there was no difference if it was the teacher or a classmate because they wanted to receive OCF from someone who knew more than they did. As they put it:



*En realidad me da lo mismo, si mi compañera sabe es mejor que me lo diga y bueno, la profesora obviamente me lo va a decir. Pero si mis compañeros saben, está bueno que me lo digan. (Micaela)*

*La profesora, pero si el compañero también sabe... yo aprendo, de lo que puedo aprendo. No me molesta. (Vanina)*

*A mí no me molesta si me corrige alguna compañera, es más, nos corregimos muchas veces [...] está bueno que te corrija alguna compañera. (Mariana)*

The fact that most of the students expressed believing that *either the teacher or any of their classmates should provide OCF* is of foremost importance because they clearly perceived the learning process as dialogic in nature, where all the participants of this process play a role in each other's learning.

Overall, this group of students had clearly articulated beliefs regarding the role of EC in their language learning process, the teacher's role in EC and that of their classmates. Therefore, this positive attitude towards EC might put them in an advantageous position to learn from their mistakes.

### **5.2.2 Students' beliefs about *the most effective way of receiving OCF***

In this section, students' beliefs about *the most effective way of receiving OCF* will be presented. In the OEI, students received more guidance than the teacher through more specific questions and the researcher's extra explanations to help them express their beliefs.

When the students were inquired about how they believed they should receive OCF, the majority answered the question with another question: "How?" or "What are you making reference to?" They could understand the questions but they were not aware of the different ways they could be provided OCF. Therefore, they were guided with some prompts. The majority of the students concurred on the belief that *students should not be interrupted while speaking*. As they expressed it:

*... que termine aunque diga mal la oración, porque si no me voy del hilo y me olvido lo que voy a decir o me empiezo a confundir, prefiero por ahí terminarlo. (Vanina)*

*Cuando estoy hablando, no me gustaría que me interrumpen cada vez que digo una palabra porque es un poquito tedioso, pero si es posible al finalizar oraciones. (Lucía)*

*[Cuando] estamos leyendo un texto y ahí no más nos van corrigiendo sobre la marcha, [...] a veces esto es medio frustrante. (Carolina)*

In the previous three excerpts, it is evident that the participant students' emotions were awakened due to the teacher's interruptions. Askew (2000, as cited in Hultström, 2006), explained that receiving OCF arouses emotions that some students may find difficult to control. Three different negative emotions were mentioned: confusion, tediousness and frustration. In addition, one of the students, Carolina, admitted that negative emotions might be aroused not only from the students, but also from the teacher. She explained that the teacher may avoid providing OCF because she had already provided it so many times that it may be frustrating for both, the teacher and the student. Therefore, this group of students believed that *the teacher could let some mistakes pass unnoticed or not corrected to avoid negative emotions to be aroused*. This was exemplified by a student by putting herself in the teacher's shoes:

*Porque a lo mejor ya lo ha corregido muchas veces y si esta persona no se da cuenta, no sé, la profesora se sentirá "ah bueno, otra vez le tengo que decir", puede ser por eso. (Carolina)*

What is more, one student described another situation where a classmate felt embarrassed and even annoyed when receiving OCF:

*Yo tengo compañeros que se enojan cuando los corrigen. Estábamos en una clase ayer y recibimos una corrección y mi compañera dijo "bueno, yo me tengo que ir" y agarró y se fue. Era un trabajo de grupo y era una corrección, bueno si está mal nos corrigen para que lo hagamos bien. Es que uno no sabe la devolución [reacción] que puede llegar a tener el alumno. (Lucía)*

Lucía acknowledged that adopting a reluctant attitude towards receiving OCF was not beneficial for language learning.

Moreover, when the students were specifically asked about the emotions that were aroused when they received OCF from the teacher they manifested that they felt "Ok", for example:

*No me siento mal, es más, mejor que me lo marque así yo lo aprendo, si no lo voy a seguir repitiendo mal y voy a seguir con el mismo error, por eso, es mejor que me lo corrija. (Micaela)*

*No, no me siento mal, digamos. O sea, no me molesta que me corrijan porque yo vengo a aprender, o sea que, se supone que están para eso, para ayudarme a progresar a corregirme. Si me molestara que me corrigieran... bueno, tendría que ahí nomás dejar de venir porque están para eso, están para enseñarme. (Mariana)*

*No me siento mal, digamos, o sea. Me gusta siempre avanzar, me veo tal vez un poco frustrada cuando me olvido, porque muchas veces tengo una palabra que la digo mil veces y las mil veces la digo mal. (Ana)*

Another student acknowledged that at the beginning she did not feel very well when receiving OCF, but she could overcome this and at the moment, she enjoys receiving it. She expressed this as follows:

*Eh... bien, ahora bien, pero al principio en 1er año o en 2do no tanto, pero hasta que le agarro la confianza más que nada con las profe, con mis compañeras. Ya*

*ahora lo tomo bien y trato de corregirlo y me gusta, o sea, está bien que nos corrijan. Pero al principio era medio chocante. (Carolina)*

All these examples show that receiving OCF evidently aroused emotions which might depend on many factors, but one of the most influential ones could be the way OCF is provided by the teacher. Therefore the implicit belief that this group of students shared was that *OCF should not make students feel frustrated or embarrassed*.

Another belief shared by the students was that they should be given the opportunity to self-correct, i.e. they wanted to be given the opportunity to reflect upon their mistakes. They expressed these ideas as follows:

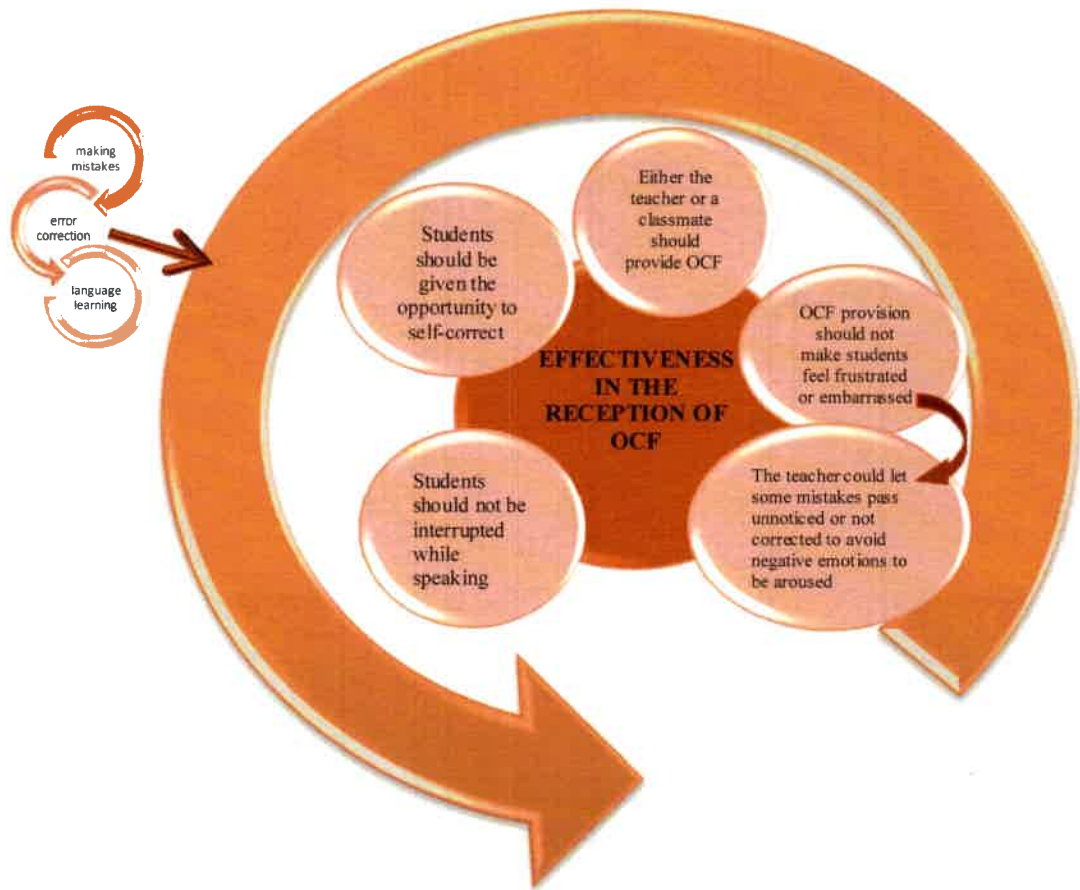
*Que te hagan pensar, entonces uno mismo, a partir de los conocimientos que ya viene teniendo puede realizar su propia corrección. (Lucía)*

*Creo que esta bueno que nos hagan pensar para recordar ¿no? Porque si ahí nomás la profe nos da la respuesta, a lo mejor otra vez volvemos a tener el mismo error cuando pasa el tiempo. (Carolina)*

Through their descriptions, it could be inferred that they believed that the most effective way of receiving OCF to their erroneous oral production coincided with the characteristics of output-prompting types of OCF (Ellis, 2006, as cited in Ellis, 2009), since they believed *the teacher should give them the opportunity to self-correct* instead of being told the right answer directly without any explanation. Thus, the stated beliefs about the reception of OCF held by this group of students might position them in an advantageous condition to learn the language.

Figure 6 represents how the implicit and explicit students' beliefs are clustered around *the most effective way of receiving OCF* construct.

Figure 6: Students’ beliefs about the most effective way of providing OCF



**5.2.3 Students’ beliefs about the *types of errors that should be corrected***

When the students were asked what *types of errors should be corrected*, most of them replied either that they did not know the answer for that question or that it was even difficult for them to realize that they were making mistakes. Therefore, it was even tougher for them to verbalize the types of mistakes that should be corrected. After declaring that, they took the safest way out and answered that they relied on the teacher’s judgement on the mistakes she usually corrected. Mariana expressed:

*No, creo que está bien [lo que nos corrigen]. (Vanina)*

*Sí, tal vez no en mí, tal vez no me doy cuenta, pero tal vez escucho a otros compañeros leyendo un texto y sé que no pronunciaron bien una palabra y no, no se corrige. (Ana)*

*Eh... no sé porque, que se yo, cuando uno comete los errores no sabés que los estas cometiendo porque tratas también de autocorregirte o registrar esas palabras que decís mal para no seguir diciéndolas o sea que no sé. Sí, obviamente que tengo muchísimos errores, pero pienso que nos corrigen los errores para que podamos seguir avanzando. (Mariana)*

Evidently, it was difficult for them to answer this question because, as we can see in the examples, they were not able to realize that they were making mistakes. However, they were completely aware of the fact that most of the time they received OCF on their pronunciation. Based on that experience, they claimed that if they had a specific module on English phonology, they would probably overcome this difficulty; for example Carolina declared:

*Creo que si tuviéramos una materia como fonética a lo mejor serian menos frecuentes los errores tanto de la escritura como al hablar. (Carolina)*

In addition, other students expressed that they tended to pronounce the English words with French accent because many of them are written in a similar way. This type of error was common to all Tecnicatura en Lenguas students since they study English and French simultaneously. For example Mariana said:

*Errores de pronunciación y bueno me los corrigen pero como parte del mismo aprendizaje, digamos ¿no? Porque muchas veces se me confunden la pronunciación o el acento francés, que lo tengo más afianzado, con el inglés. Y sobre todo en palabras que son medias (sic) transparentes en francés – inglés, entonces siempre tiendo a decirlas en francés y no en inglés. (Mariana)*

In sum, it was evident that students were aware of the types of errors that triggered the teacher's provision of OCF, but they could not go beyond that fact. They admitted that it was difficult for them to realize that they were making mistakes.



#### 5.2.4 Students' beliefs about the use of OCF: Summary of most recurrent beliefs

Without regard to specific details, this group of students firmly believed that *making mistakes was part of their language learning process*. Even though they had never been made aware of the different OCF strategies that they could have received, they had a positive attitude toward EC; they even expressed that they liked receiving OCF. Moreover, even though they implicitly believed that *EC was inherent in a teacher's role*, this group of students explicitly believed that *either the teacher or any of their classmates should provide OCF*. Furthermore, they believed that *they should not be interrupted while speaking* to receive OCF, because they might lose the stream of thought and that would impede that they finish expressing their ideas. In addition, another explicit belief shared among these students was that the *teacher should give them the opportunity to self-correct*. Moreover, most of the students admitted that different emotions were aroused when they were provided OCF; not only negative ones, but also positive ones. When students were specifically asked about the emotions that were aroused when receiving OCF from their teacher they belief that *OCF should not make the students feel frustrated or embarrassed*. In this regard, students also believed that *the teacher could let some mistakes pass unnoticed to avoid negative feelings to arouse*. Besides, they admitted to be conscious that if they did not have a positive attitude towards the reception of OCF, this would not be beneficial for their language learning.

Finally, regarding the answer to the *type of errors that should be corrected*, they expressed their difficulty in noticing when they were making a mistake, so it was hard to answer this question. Nevertheless, they were completely aware of the types of errors that triggered the teacher's OCF: pronunciation errors. That is why they claimed the need for a specific course on English phonology to overcome this weakest point.

### 5.3 The relationship between the teacher and her students' beliefs about the use of OCF

In this section I will report on the converging and diverging teacher and her students' beliefs related to the use of OCF in the EFL classroom. The results of the content analysis of the data obtained from the teacher and student OEIs will be presented in order to answer the third research question: What is the relationship between EFL teacher's and her students' beliefs about OCF in the classroom in relation to: 1) *the role of error correction in language learning*; 2a) *the most effective way of*

*providing OCF; 2b) the most effective way of receiving OCF to their English oral production; 3) the types of errors that should be corrected?*

### **5.3.1 Teacher and students' beliefs about *the role of error correction***

In relation to this variable, the teacher's and her students' beliefs were related, since the teacher believed that *EC contributes to language learning* and the students believed that *making mistakes is part of their language learning process*. Even though these beliefs are not the same, they are intertwined. It is evident that in holding these beliefs, Raquel and her students had a positive stance towards making mistakes and EC which empowered the students with a confident attitude to face the reception of OCF and the teacher to be assertive in her OCF provision.

Another point of agreement among the teacher and her students' beliefs was the fact that the act of EC was considered *inherent in the teacher's role*. Hence, the provision of OCF was a teacher's assumed role that no one challenged.

So, regarding the role of EC in language learning, it could be concluded that even though the teacher and her students did not hold exactly the same beliefs they were interwoven. These beliefs, together with the shared belief about the role of the teacher in EC might lead to better language learning results.

### **5.3.2 Teacher and students' beliefs about *the most effective way of providing or receiving OCF***

In relation to the *most effective way of providing or receiving OCF* the teacher and her students' beliefs seemingly converged entirely.

An important point of encounter between the teacher and her students was the shared belief that *the teacher should give students the opportunity to self-correct*. In other words, students should be given time to discover and reflect upon their mistakes rather than to be provided the right answer by the teacher. Coincidentally, the teacher believed that *she should guide students to discover their own mistakes* instead of providing the right answer straight away. We can conclude that both, the teacher and her students believed that output-prompting strategies were the most effective way of providing and receiving OCF, since they are the ones that prompt students' self-correction.

Another shared belief was that *students should not be interrupted while speaking*, because they might lose their train of thought. The majority of the students believed that if they were interrupted it may be difficult for them to recover what they wanted to express. Therefore, they preferred to be allowed to finish the idea they were conveying and then receive OCF; a belief also shared with Raquel. Furthermore, students manifested that negative emotions are aroused when they are interrupted by the teacher. As for the teacher, she admitted that she was conscious that she had interrupted her students to provide OCF, but she was working on this classroom practice since she believed it affected the students' flow of ideas and produced students' negative emotions. Therefore, Raquel *believed that teachers should be sensitive when providing OCF*, in order not to provoke negative emotions on the part of the students, and students believed that *OCF should not make them feel embarrassed*. Closely related to this, Raquel believed that *to develop speaking ability, students have to have high self-confidence*. So, she was aware that extensive amount of OCF might lower the students' self-confidence and at the same time, this could cause the students uneasiness and even their reluctance to participate in speaking activities. That is why, on some occasions, she avoided to correct some students' mistakes.

The fact that Raquel and her students' belief clusters regarding *the most effective way of providing OCF* were intrinsically related and seemed to be in congruence might be translated into a safe and secure classroom atmosphere conducive to language learning.

### **5.3.3 The teacher and her students' beliefs about *the types of errors that should be corrected***

As regards the results obtained related to the *types of errors that should be corrected*, Raquel explicitly affirmed that she believed that pronunciation was the most important aspect to focus on when providing OCF to her students' oral productions. On the other hand, the students' were not aware of the mistakes they made; sometimes they could notice some mistakes when a classmate was speaking but not when they were speaking. So their beliefs were not explicitly stated. However, all of them were aware that the majority of the OCF that they received was targeted to their pronunciation. Even though students' answers are related to the teacher's beliefs, it was not possible to establish a relationship.

### 5.3.4 The teacher and her students' beliefs about the use of OCF: Summary of most recurrent beliefs

All in all, the results of both OEIs showed a partial consensus of beliefs between Raquel and her students. They shared the following beliefs: *making mistakes and EC are part of the language learning process*; that *EC is inherent in a teacher's roles*; that *students should be given the opportunity to self-correct*; that *there should not be interruptions while speaking to get OCF because negative feelings may be aroused*. However, it was not possible to compare Raquel and her students' beliefs about the types of errors that should be corrected. Raquel believed that she should provide OCF to pronunciation mistakes, but the students could not express their beliefs because they were just aware of the fact that the teacher targeted her OCF to their pronunciation mistakes mainly. This complex relationship between the teacher and students' beliefs might make the processes of teaching and learning more efficient and effective in this particular classroom setting.

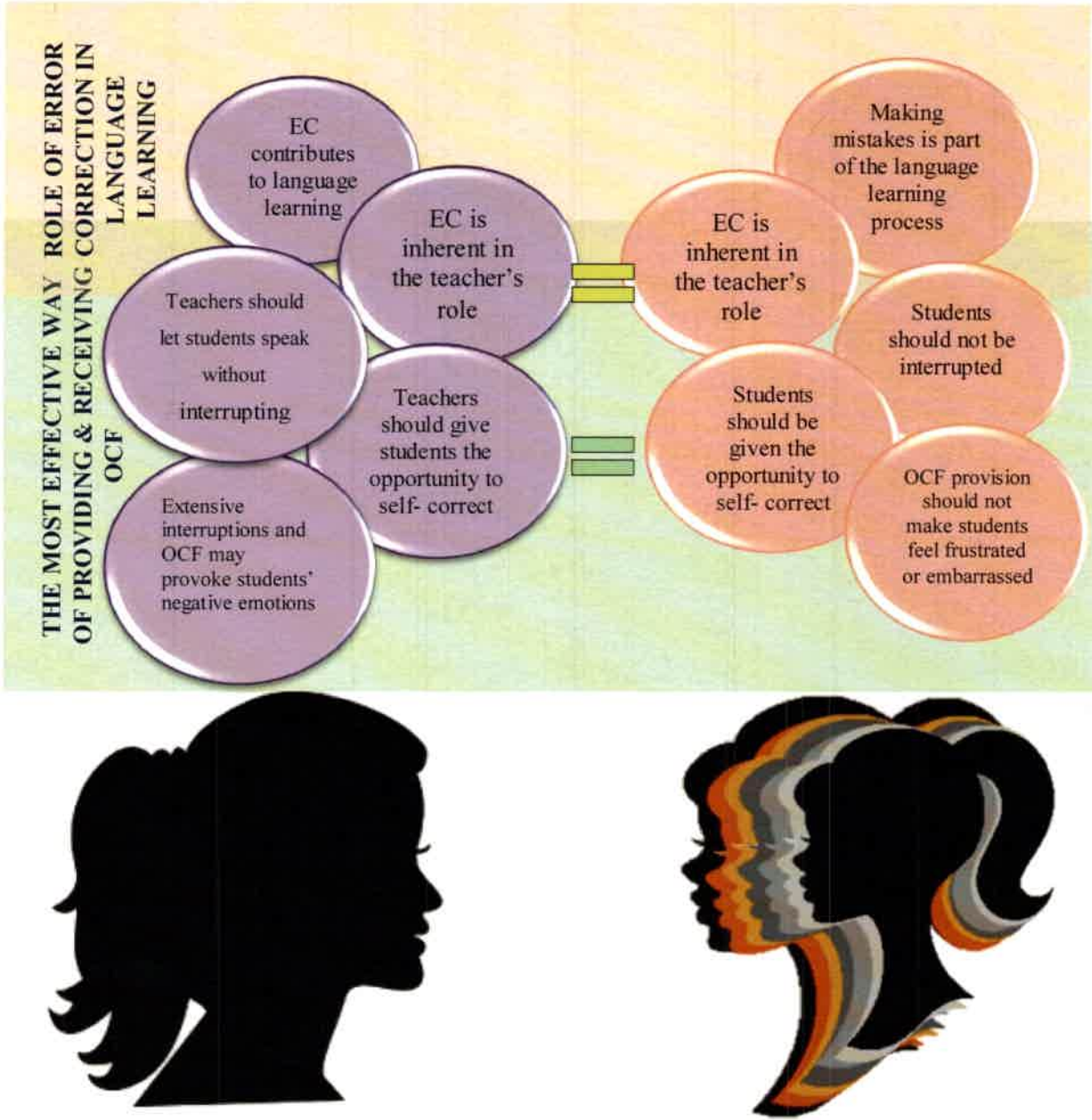
Figure 7 illustrates how the teacher's and her students' beliefs are intrinsically intertwined in the context of the EFL classroom.

### 5.4. Teacher's use of OCF strategies

In this section, I will report on the types and frequency of use of the OCF strategies used by Raquel. The results of the analysis of the four videotaped classroom observations will be presented in order to answer research question N° 4: What are the different OCF strategies used by the EFL teacher in her classes and their frequency of occurrence? The OCF strategies selected for the analysis of the data are based on Ellis (2006 as cited in Ellis, 2009), and Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categories of corrective feedback types in response to student's errors (See Table 1, p. 22). The method used to study classroom oral discourse was "interaction analysis" (McKay, 2006), which "uses some type of coding system to investigate the communication patterns that occur in a classroom" (p. 90). In order to identify the OCF strategies, the unit of analysis was defined as every instance of teacher-student interaction in which the teacher provided OCF to an erroneous student's production. Further operational definitions are provided in the Data Analysis Procedure section.



Figure 7: Congruent relationship between the teacher and her students’ beliefs clusters



5.4.1. Types and frequency of OCF strategies used by Raquel

Forty one teacher-student interactions in which the teacher provided OCF to erroneous students’ productions were identified in the four videotaped classroom observations. In these 41 interactions, the participant teacher provided 73 instances of OCF strategies to 57 students’ errors (see Appendix F). This interesting finding indicated that, on some occasions, Raquel provided more than one OCF strategy in response to a single student mistake. In the example below it can be seen that Raquel

responded to a student's mistake using three different OCF strategies: recast, elicitation and explicit correction.

Micaela: *this was an image of a girl who draw /ˈdrɔːu/*  
Teacher: *who drew /ˈdru/* **RECAST**  
Micaela: *landscapes*  
Teacher: *so, can you repeat the sentence? A girl...* **ELICITATION**  
Micaela: *A girl who drew /ˈdrɔːu/*  
Teacher: *the past of draw /ˈdrɔː/ is not draw /ˈdrɔː/* **EXPLICIT CORRECTION,**  
*who...* **ELICITATION**  
Lucía: *drew /ˈdru/*  
Micaela: *drew /ˈdru/ a landscape*  
Teacher: *excellent!*

The example above shows that the first OCF strategy used by Raquel was a recast. Then, as she realized that the student had not noticed the recasted verb, she used elicitation to prompt the student to reformulate the utterance. As the student did not realize about her teacher's correction, Raquel opted for a more direct and explicit OCF strategy and provided an explicit correction. In this case a classmate recasted again the correct verb tense and the student repeated the correct form.

Another important finding was that Raquel used the seven types of OCF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Ellis (2006, as cited in Ellis, 2009) with different degrees of frequency. Recast was found to be the most frequent with 43 instances, representing 59% of the total number of instances. It was followed far behind by 10 instances of metalinguistic cues (14%); and eight instances of elicitation (11%). In addition, three instances of clarification requests, three of explicit correction, three of repetition and three of paralinguistic signals were identified, each one representing 4 % of the total number of incidents. Examples of each OCF strategy will be presented in the following paragraphs starting from the most frequent. These examples illustrate Raquel's concern with offering students different ways to correct their erroneous productions.



## 1) Recast:

Valentina: *In my opinion about the weather, because ... maybe humans are destroying the planet and it's time to stop it and take conscience*

Teacher: *ok. To become conscious **RECAST***

Valentina: *yes*

Teacher: *ok*

This OCF category was the most frequently used by Raquel (59%) and probably enacting her beliefs, Raquel might have preferred to simply reformulate the sentence in order not to break the flow of the conversation, besides, she might have wanted to control Valentina's frustration and avoid her exposure in front of her classmates. In the taxonomy presented by Ellis (2006 as cited in Ellis, 2009) recast has been categorized as input-prompting type of OCF, i.e. students are given the correct answer immediately after making an error, without being given the opportunity to reflect upon it.

## 2) Metalinguistic Cues:

Lucía: *Well, actually in the paseo de las Artes, that is right next to de Libero Pierini en la Placita de las Malvinas, some weekends there are people representing some acts, I mean, circus acts*

Teacher: *they... which is the verb that you can use? **METALINGUISTIC CUE** ((she points at a list of words projected on a whiteboard)) **PARALINGUISTIC SIGNALS***

Lucía: *perform*

Teacher: *excellent, very good*

Lucía: *they perform there*

Metalinguistic Cues were the second most frequently used strategy (14%). In this example, Raquel provided a metalinguistic comment without providing a reformulation, accompanied by another OCF strategy, a paralinguistic signal, to help the student produce an appropriate message. In the example, Raquel provided OCF to an inappropriate lexical choice. This strategy was classified as an output-prompting type of OCF (Ellis, 2006 as cited in Ellis, 2009) since she guided the student to reflect upon the mistake in order to prompt the production of a more appropriate form.

### 3) Elicitation:

Teacher: *What can you say about theatres?*

Lucía: *There aren't many theatre in Rio Cuarto*

Teacher: *ok. Many...? **ELICITATION***

Lucía: *theathreS*

Elicitation was the third most often used strategy (11%). This strategic pause to elicit the student's completion could indicate that Raquel might want to facilitate the students' conscious reflection about the errors they made. Elicitation is an output-prompting type of OCF strategy, which may indicate that in using it, the teacher gives the students the opportunity to reflect upon their errors.

The use of the remaining four OCF strategies was very infrequent; three instances of each of the following strategies were identified: clarification requests, explicit correction, repetition and paralinguistic signals (4% each). A characteristic shared by clarification requests, repetitions and paralinguistic signals is that they are classified as output-prompting types of OCF; whereas explicit correction is classified as input-providing. An interesting finding was that in almost all the instances where the above mentioned strategies were used, they were generally accompanied by another OCF strategy. This is illustrated in the following examples:

### 4) Clarification Request and 5) Explicit Correction

Teacher: *Can you make predictions about other areas in which we may use this driverless machine?*

Lucía: *the other day I saw robots that are being created to assisting on people ... they are in charge of taking care of them, taking ancient?*

Teacher: *ancient people? **CLARIFICATION REQUEST***

Lucía: *ancient people... Instead of taking them to...*

Teacher: *old people, you say old not ancient, ancient is not for people **EXPLICIT CORRECTION***

Clarification requests are utterances that ask a question for clarification. In this case Raquel probably did not understand what Lucía wanted to express, so she asked for clarification. As Lucía did not notice Raquel's correction, the teacher employed an input-providing: explicit correction, through which Raquel clearly indicated that the

student's utterance was inappropriate and provided the correct form. Raquel's first attempt was to provide an output-prompting type of OCF, but as this was not effective, she provided an input-providing type of strategy in order to avoid any other type of confusion and misunderstanding:

#### 6) Repetition:

Teacher: *why did you vote?*

Mariana: *I prefer this product because\_ is our product*

Teacher: *ok*

Mariana: *but is a\_ ecological ((overlooked))*

Teacher: *but is... **REPETITION** you are missing something there **METALINGUISTIC CUE**, but... **ELICITATION***

Mariana: *but IT is an ecological product, renewable energy and adding more benefits to the university*

In the example above, the teacher repeated part of the student's erroneous utterance highlighting the error by means of emphatic stress. In this case, repetition was used in first place, and then it was followed by a metalinguistic cue and elicitation. It might be inferred that Raquel believed that repetition might be less effective than the other OCF strategies since the three instances of repetition found in the data were used accompanied by another strategy.

#### 7) Paralinguistic Signals:

Teacher: *Can you add any other forms of art?*

Mariana: *sculpture /sku'tiə'/*

Teacher: *((she makes a gesture with her face and hand asking the student to repeat what she said)) **PARALINGUISTIC SIGNAL***

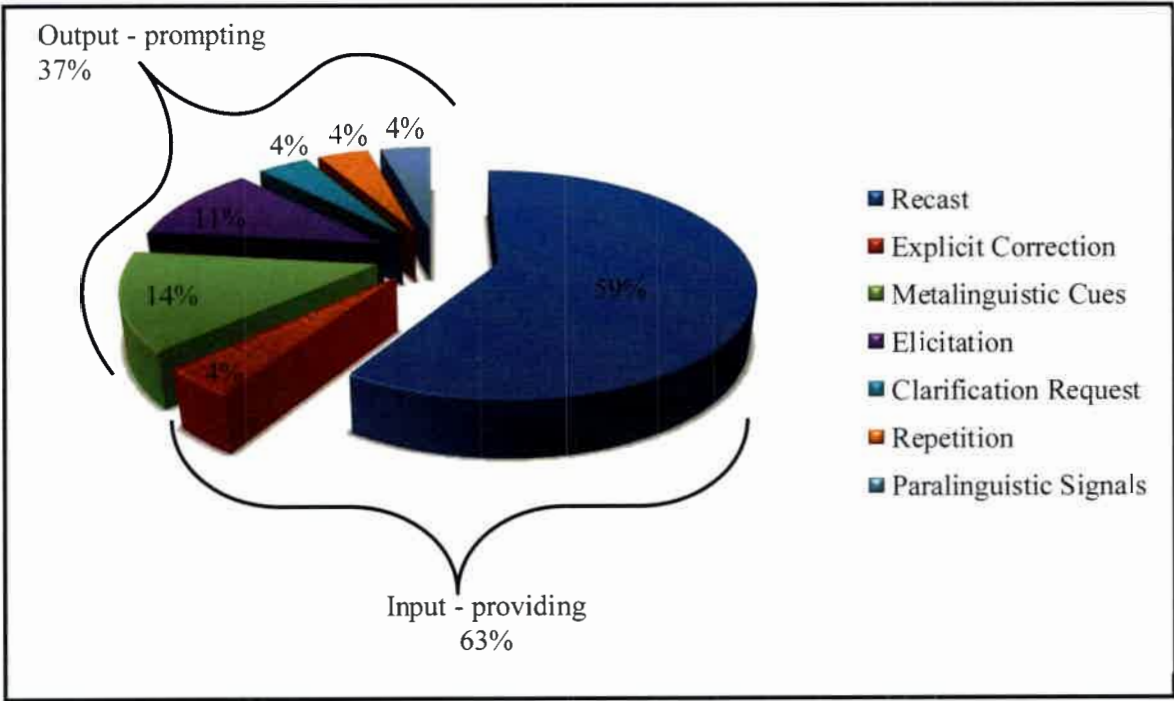
Mariana: *sculpture /sku'tiə'/*

Teacher: *Sculpture /'skʌlptʃə'/, **RECAST** very good, sculpture /'skʌlptʃə'/*

Paralinguistic signals make reference to any gesture or facial expression made by the teacher to indicate that the student has made an error. In this case, Raquel used a paralinguistic signal to make the student repeat a mispronounced word.

Concerning the types and frequency of OCF strategies used by Raquel, it was possible to observe that she used the seven category types listed in this study. Her ability to use them spontaneously might have contributed to the students’ relaxed interaction and increased motivation in the classroom. The graphs below show the distribution of use of the OCF classified into output-prompting and input-providing types.

Graph 1: Types and frequency of use of Raquel’s OCF strategies



As it can be seen, Raquel used input-providing types of OCF strategies 63% of the times, distributed unevenly between recasts and explicit corrections. On the other hand, the remaining 37% of the output-prompting types of OCF strategies used were provided by Raquel in a more uniform way.

**5.4.1.1. Delayed OCF strategies**

As mentioned before, on one occasion, Raquel provided delayed OCF to her students. In the interview, Raquel specified that when her students gave oral presentations, she took notes of their mistakes and after the activity was over she would provide OCF to the whole class. In the analysis of the delayed OCF excerpt, it was noticed that five out of the six delayed OCF strategies employed were metalinguistic

cues, which aimed at prompting the students' reflection on their grammar mistakes. This makes it evident that during the oral activity, Raquel allowed her students to make their presentation without interruptions and delayed her OCF to focus on accuracy. The excerpt below shows the whole section where Raquel provided delayed OCF:

Teacher: *I want to work briefly with some mistakes...*

Teacher: *Did you notice any grammatical problems? **DELAYED METALINGUISTIC CUE***

Micaela: *yes, she told me that we forgot the subjects*

Teacher: *ok, very good! Some of you forgot the subjects and some of you had problems with... which part specially? **DELAYED METALINGUISTIC CUE***

Mariana: *verbs*

Teacher: *verbs? In some cases I've noticed ((she gives examples)). But did you pay attention to questions? **DELAYED METALINGUISTIC CUE** I wrote some questions like: it is expensive ((raising intonation)) you asked **DELAYED REPETITION**. What was wrong with that? **DELAYED METALINGUISTIC CUE***

Lucía: *Is it*

Teacher: *Is it, **IMMEDIATE REPETITION** inversion. **DELAYED METALINGUISTIC CUE**. It is a product with a long life ((raising intonation))*

Lucía: *Is it*

Teacher: *Is it a long life product? **IMMEDIATE RECAST***

It is important to clarify that in the total number of OCF strategies identified, the distinction between immediate and delayed strategies was not taken into account.

#### 5.4.2. Errors that triggered Raquel's provision of Recasts

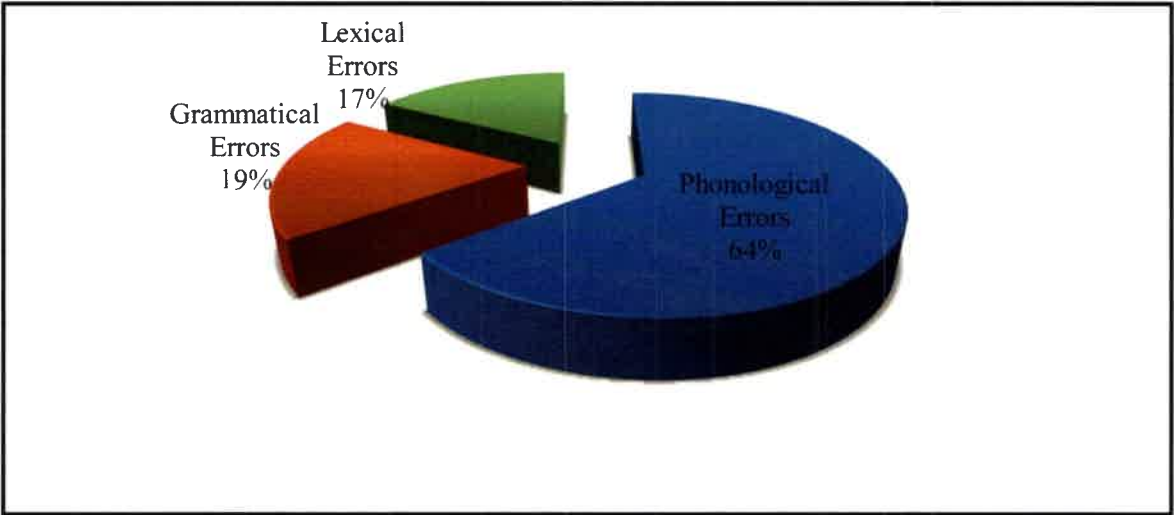
Even though Raquel made use of seven different types of OCF strategies, she did not use them evenly; she provided recast 59% of the total, followed far behind by metalinguistic cues (14%) and elicitation (11%).

Due to the great discrepancy of use of the OCF strategies, it was interesting to go deeper in the analysis of the errors that triggered the predominance of recast. Therefore, the types of students' errors that triggered the teacher's provision of recast were identified. Results showed that there were altogether 57 instances of language errors that received OCF from Raquel. It needs to be noted that the number of errors

identified in the videotaped class observations was not an absolute number. The frequency refers to errors which were responded to by the teacher with immediate or delayed OCF. Three out of four types of language errors (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) were identified: grammar errors, phonological errors and lexical errors. No instances of unsolicited use of L1 errors were found.

When examining the results in search of patterns between the types of mistakes and OCF provision, it was evident that phonological errors were mostly treated by Raquel with recasts. That is to say, out of 43 instances of recasts, Raquel provided them 64% of the times to correct phonological errors, 19% to treat grammatical errors and 17% to correct lexical errors. Put in other words, most of the times that Raquel used recast as a strategy, it was to provide OCF to phonological mistakes. Graph 2 shows how frequently Raquel provided recast to three different types of students' errors.

Graph 2: Frequency of use of recast targeted to different types of errors



**5.4.3. Types and frequency of OCF used by Raquel in her classes: Summary of the results**

In conclusion, many interesting findings were obtained from the interaction analysis carried out on the videotaped classroom observations. Firstly, it was observed that on some occasions, Raquel responded to a single student's erroneous oral production using more than one OCF strategy. Secondly, Raquel provided OCF to her students' erroneous oral productions making use of seven different strategies, which evidenced her ability to implement a variety of OCF strategies. However, she did not use the seven strategies in an even and balanced way, since recasts were used 59% of



the times. What is more, 64% of the times that Raquel provided recasts, it was to treat phonological errors.

## **5.5 The relationship between the teacher's beliefs about OCF and her classroom practices**

In this section I will report on the relationships between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices. The results obtained from the teacher OEI, the videotaped class observations, and the SRI will be presented with the purpose of answering research question N° 5: What is the relationship between the EFL teacher beliefs about OCF and her classroom practices? As a first step, the results were triangulated and organized according to the three guiding variables: *1) the role of error correction in language learning, 2 a) the most effective way of providing OCF, 3) the types of errors that should be corrected.*

The SRI provided Raquel with an opportunity to watch herself teaching and analyze her classroom practices. This exercise made her realize about many issues related to her role as a teacher and her classroom practices regarding OCF, which will be reported in the following paragraphs. It is important to remember that when the SRI was administered to Raquel, she did not know yet what the focus of this study was.

### **5.5.1 Teacher's beliefs and classroom practices: *the role of error correction in language learning***

In relation to this variable, Raquel believed that *EC contributes to language learning*; besides, she believed that *EC is inherent in a teacher's role*, she specified that if she did not provide EC, her students would not progress in their learning. During her classes, Raquel was able to enact these beliefs, since it was observed that EC was present in all her lessons and she employed different OCF strategies to treat the students' mistakes in relation to different aspects of language. Even though she did not correct all the mistakes produced by her students, Raquel provided OCF to most of the students' erroneous oral productions. Apparently, there was consistency between Raquel's beliefs regarding the importance of EC in language learning, her role as a teacher and her classroom practices.

### 5.5.2 Teacher's beliefs and classroom practices: *the most effective way of providing OCF*

As regards the relationship between Raquel's beliefs about *the most effective way of providing OCF* and her classroom actions, it was possible to find consistencies and inconsistencies among them. They will be reported taking into account the organization followed in section 5.1.3 where many aspects related to the way Raquel provided OCF to her students were presented, such as: *how, when, when not to, how much, and to whom*.

In relation to her beliefs about *how* to provide OCF effectively, Raquel believed that teachers should *give students the opportunity to self-correct*; that is to say, she believed that she *should guide students to discover their mistakes* rather than to give them the correct answer straight away. The above stated belief would probably result in the provision of output-prompting OCF strategies. However, during her classroom practices, Raquel provided input-providing OCF strategies most of the times, which resulted in an inconsistency between beliefs and actions. Seemingly, a discrepancy was observed between her explicit beliefs regarding students being given the opportunity to self-correct and her classroom practices. This inconsistency was verbalized in the SRI. When Raquel was asked to comment on the excerpt presented below, she claimed that she was trying to guide the student to self-correct through questions. However, as she recollected what she had done in her classroom practices, she realized that the student had not understood her questions as OCF, but as prompts to keep talking.

Teacher: What about you Carolina?

Carolina: I learned to play\_guitar and\_piano ((overlooked)) some time ago, but I actually no actually no, eh...

Teacher: at the moment? **RECAST – IMPLICIT – INPUT-PROVIDING**

Carolina: at the moment, yes I didn't play

Teacher: I don't play **RECAST – IMPLICIT - INPUT-PROVIDING**

Carolina: I don't play eh, but I love making handicrafts?

Teacher: Oh! Very Good! Crafts! **RECAST – IMPLICIT - INPUT-PROVIDING**  
Very Good! We have another [handy student]... What kind of crafts?

Carolina: decorate, decorating or for decorate

Teacher: what do you decorate? **CLARIFICATION REQUEST – IMPLICIT – OUTPUT-PROMPTING**

Carolina: *decorative?*

Teacher: *ok!*

Carolina: *Eh... to decor, decorative a house*

Teacher: *maybe, interior design? You would like to decorate houses*

Carolina: *no, no, no...eh... crafts ...*

Teacher: *ok, crafts*

Carolina: *to decorate a house*

Teacher: *ok, very good!*

It is at this stage, when Raquel realized that she could have provided explicit, output-prompting strategies, instead of implicit and input-providing ones. Nevertheless, she provided an output-prompting OCF strategy (a clarification request), which did not prompt the student's right utterance. A possible explanation could be that clarification requests are implicit strategies, and, as such, might be ignored by students. In Raquel's own words during the SRI:

*I think that the problem was that maybe I should be more explicit because maybe she didn't realize that... when I was in class I didn't notice that she didn't realize that I was correcting her or trying to help her convey the meaning so that I could understand, but I didn't say that explicitly so I used questions to guide her, but I don't know whether she ... now that I see her, whether she was understanding that they [the other students] couldn't understand. I don't know if she noticed that [...]. Well, sometimes I should have said "I'm not understanding", "you're missing something" or "you are not using the right verb" but I didn't say that ... I tried to use questions to help her to correct herself.*

In her reflection over her classroom practice, Raquel became conscious that the student had not realized that she was trying to guide her; consequently, Raquel questioned the OCF strategy that she had used by proposing more explicit options. This might evidence the complex, multifaceted and contradictory relationship that exists between beliefs and classroom practices.

In addition, Raquel specified she believed that she *should let students speak without interrupting them* because of two reasons: first, because her students might lose their train of thought and consequently, break the communication flow; and second,

because interruptions may produce students' negative feelings like reluctance to participate in speaking activities, frustration and discouragement. This belief was observed in her classroom practices, since there were almost no instances of teacher interruptions, and in general, all the students were able to finish their ideas. Presumably, there was consistency between Raquel's stated belief (*teachers should let students speak without interrupting them*) and her classroom practices.

Another aspect of *how* to provide effective OCF was related to the types of strategies employed by Raquel. Her explicit belief was that she *should give students the opportunity to self-correct*, therefore, she should provide OCF strategies that elicited the students' correct version such as metalinguistic cues, elicitation, repetition, clarification request and paralinguistic signals, rather than strategies that provided the right answer immediately after her students' erroneous production, like recasts and explicit corrections. She made it clear that she would provide the right answer if the students could not achieve self-correction only as her last resource<sup>6</sup>. This belief was supported by her description of her own classroom practices (see section 5.1.3). Even though it is known that the relationship between beliefs and classroom practices is not a direct one, several instances of metalinguistic cues, elicitation, repetition, clarification request and paralinguistic signals strategies were expected in her classroom practices. Whereas fewer instances of input-providing types of OCF, such as recasts and explicit corrections were estimated, since she believed that they were not effective and she would use them as her last course of action. However, Raquel's practices revealed the use of recasts 59% of the times, which indicated that she provided the right answer straightforwardly without allowing the students to reflect upon their mistakes and to self-correct. Apparently, there is a relationship of contradiction between her stated beliefs and her classroom practices, since Raquel did not use recasts as her last resource, but as her first choice. During the SRI she realized about this incongruence and reflected upon it, while watching the following excerpt:

*Teacher: Any other? Carolina? Can you report on something you discussed?*  
*Carolina: eh... about festivals ...*  
*Teacher: ok*

<sup>6</sup> It is important to remember that Raquel did not directly name any of the OCF strategies found in the literature; they had to be inferred from her classroom practice descriptions.

*Carolina: eh... there are few festivals in Rio Cuarto and sometimes when there are an exposition like wine exposition eh... may, there are a festival too*  
*Teacher: ok there IS a festival too RECAST, ok*

She verbalized:

*Again, I couldn't understand the last part of the message and I wanted her in a way realize that there was a problem with the message so I repeated the right sentence but she didn't do anything so maybe that activity didn't work, that behavior didn't work because she didn't change the sentence, I don't know if she knew that she was making a mistake. I thought that she would realize or she would understand the last part but maybe, I don't know if that technique worked at that time. I think it didn't work.*

As we can see, during the SRI, Raquel admitted that the way she was correcting the student's erroneous oral production did not achieve its purpose.

In relation to Raquel's beliefs about *when* to provide OCF to her students' erroneous productions, she specified that it was *when there was a risk of communication breakdown*. Accordingly, during her classroom practices, it was observed that Raquel provided a great amount of recasts (59%) which targeted phonological errors at the segmental level (64%). This might indicate that she may consider that pronunciation carries meaning and thus phonological mistakes could cause communication breakdown. Seemingly, there was congruence between Raquel's beliefs and her classroom actions.

Regarding Raquel's beliefs about *how much* OCF she should provide and *when* to avoid providing it, she explained that she purposely overlooked some mistakes made by students who make a great effort to get messages through. She specified that she would not provide OCF even if the student was unable to communicate the message. This belief might be closely related to Raquel's belief that to develop the students' speaking skill, *teachers should be sensitive when providing OCF*. She should be careful about the way and the frequency she provided OCF, since she could affect the students' self-confidence. Raquel believed that overlooking some students' mistakes would not lower their self-confidence and in turn, they would be able to develop their speaking ability. Raquel's classroom practices mirrored her beliefs, since there were many instances when she did not provide OCF to the students' erroneous productions,

allowing them to continue speaking. This was considered by Raquel when she was asked to discuss her classroom practice in the following excerpt:

*Teacher: Mariana, Do you want to start?*

*Mariana: I think, for example cinema is important the quantity and quality /'kalɪtɪ/*

*Teacher: quality /'kwɒlɪtɪ/ RECAST*

*Mariana: quality /'kwɒlɪtɪ/ of the film because\_ is ((overlooked)) the sometimes in the Buenos Aires por ejemplo, for example; the film in Rio Cuarto are in the same time with Buenos Aires or the other city of the world*

*Teacher: ok*

*Mariana: the... the... demos?*

*Teacher: the quality? The release? RECAST*

*Mariana: the release ...*

*Teacher: so they are of the same quality as... ELICITATION*

*Mariana: as the Buenos Aires or the other /ɒðə/ cities*

*Teacher: OTHER /'ʌðə/ cities RECAST. What about in relation to quantity? What can you say?*

*Mariana: the... place, the specific place is a few quantity, but the quality*

*Teacher: It's good, you were taking about quality is good*

*Mariana: yes*

*Teacher: Can you tell me how many theatres there are in Río Cuarto? ((referring to the whole class))*

In the first seven lines of the excerpt presented above, it is possible to observe that Raquel recasted a phonological error and overlooked several student's mistakes. What is more, she encouraged the student to continue speaking by saying "ok". It is possible that Raquel's beliefs that she should not provide OCF if the student was struggling to get the message through was being enacted. In the preceding lines, she provided recasts twice and she tried to elicit the student's correct utterance once. She also overlooked some of the student's mistakes. This excerpt depicts how Raquel struggled to provide OCF to help the students communicate, but the low level of proficiency demonstrated by this student made it so difficult that Raquel abandoned her attempt. In the SRI, she reflected upon this classroom practice and implied a feeling of frustration:



*It was impossible for me to understand what she was saying and I wanted to model in a way or to guide her to use the right grammar especially, because it was not only pronunciation, it was grammar, and I remember I tried to use the expression "the same as" so that she could continue the phrase but she couldn't do it. Then I wanted to guide her to use a quantity expression because she hadn't been using it and she couldn't do it either so I think I quit, I don't know what I did, but I didn't try any longer, well I don't know why because sometimes I look at the faces of the rest of the people and they start becoming nervous and sometimes that's ... I don't know.*

In her description of her classroom practices, Raquel explained how she repeatedly attempted to guide Mariana to produce a coherent and cohesive message, but she could not do it. The reason Raquel provided for abandoning the conversation was that she sympathized with Mariana and with the rest of the class who were showing signs of nervousness and uneasiness. As one of Raquel's beliefs was not to create an atmosphere of tension and social strain, she stopped exposing Mariana by addressing the class as a whole.

In connection with the students who struggle to get their meanings across when speaking in English, Raquel believed that it was easier to provide OCF *to students who do not struggle to get a message through*. There seemed to be a very complex, non-linear relationship between this belief and her classroom actions. Apparently, in this complex relationship, the teacher's as well as the students' emotions are involved. In the enactment of this belief, a connection has to be made among the type of feedback provided, the students' characteristics, and the participant's emotional state. Raquel was asked to reflect about the following excerpt where she provided OCF to students who could get their meanings through.

Micaela: *this was an image of a girl who drew /drɔ:u/*

Teacher: *who drew /dru/ RECAST*

Micaela: *landscapes*

Teacher: *so, can you repeat the sentence? A girl... ELICITATION*

Micaela: *A girl who drew /drɔ:u/*

Teacher: *the past of draw is not draw, EXPLICIT CORRECTION*  
*who... ELICITATION*

Lucía: drew /dru/

Micaela: drew /dru/ a landscape

Teacher: excellent!

Raquel noticed that she provided different types of OCF to different students. Besides, she made reference to her own emotions:

*Well, again, now that I see myself it seems to me that with some people I correct them explicitly and some others... I don't know, [...] I don't know which is the reason (sic) but well...*

During her reflection, Raquel expressed not knowing the reason why she provided different types of OCF to different students, but she could verbalize that she had different feelings when providing OCF to different students:

*But now that I see that, I can see that with some students I feel like more relaxed to correct them and with other students I don't, I don't know.*

Raquel admitted that she felt relaxed when provided OCF to some students, and consequently it could be inferred that she might feel tenser when providing OCF to some others.

In short, Raquel's explicit and implicit beliefs about *the most effective way of providing OCF* and her classroom practices were intertwined in a complex, non-linear, hermeneutic relationship, in which her beliefs, her consideration of the students' particular characteristics and her concern about the students' emotions were combined in an intricate way.

### **5.5.3 Teacher's beliefs and classroom practices: *the types of errors that should be corrected***

In relation to Raquel's beliefs about *the types of errors that should be corrected*, she overtly stated that she should provide OCF mainly to pronunciation mistakes. This belief might be in line with her classroom practices, since she provided OCF mainly to phonological mistakes. Although Raquel held the belief that *pronunciation mistakes should be corrected* she started to realize how excessive attention she paid to phonological errors during her classes.

*Ok, again I was correcting pronunciation; I cannot believe that I corrected pronunciation so much, I don't know ... Sometimes, in previous stages I would have tried to avoid that, because the purpose was not ... they had to communicate, but sometimes I see that they have so many problems with pronunciation, I have started correcting pronunciation all the time, I don't know if that will favor them or inhibit them.*

She admitted that she should not have done that because she was not sure about the impact it might have on students' self-confidence; besides, Raquel acknowledged that this classroom practice was against the communicative focus of oral classes, since students should be able to communicate and get ideas across. During the observation, Raquel brought to her mind the aim of the program, the characteristics of the *Tecnicatura en Lenguas* students, and their emotions. At the same time, she started to wonder if her continuous stress on pronunciation mistakes would have a negative effect on students' self-confidence.

In brief, as regards Raquel's beliefs about *the types of errors that should be corrected*, she stated that pronunciation errors should be corrected. This belief was enacted in her classroom practices. However, when she reflected upon her actions, she was doubtful about the negative effect she could cause to students' self-confidence, since the aim of *Tecnicatura en Lenguas* program is to develop fluency over accuracy.

#### **5.5.4. Teacher's beliefs and classroom practices: Summary of main findings**

Everything included, in the analysis of the relationship between Raquel's beliefs and her classroom practices many interesting finding were observed. As regards the consistencies and inconsistencies between Raquel's beliefs and her classroom practices, it could be concluded that despite the complex nature of this relationship, they were largely in harmony.

There was evidence that Raquel could enact the following beliefs in her classroom practices: *that EC is inherent in a teacher's roles*, *that EC contributes to language learning* that she should *let students speak without interrupting them*, that she should *provide OCF when there is a risk of communication breakdown*, that she should *avoid the provision OCF when it is evident that students are struggling to communicate*,

because she felt tense and she probably wanted to avoid to arouse students' negative emotions. This might be one of the reasons why she believed *it was easier to provide OCF to students who do not struggle to get a message through*. Finally, she could enact her belief that *she should provide OCF to pronunciation errors*.

One of the most interesting findings was that apparently there was an inconsistent relationship between Raquel's beliefs and her classroom practices regarding students being given the opportunity to self-correct. Raquel held the belief that *she should guide her students to discover their own mistakes* so that their learning would be more meaningful, a belief shared by her students. In the same way, she believed that self-correction could be achieved if the students were allowed to reflect on their mistakes rather than if they were provided the right answer immediately after their errors. Accordingly, output-prompting OCF strategies would be the most appropriate for guiding the students' to self-correct and in turn to promote meaningful learning. However, these actions were not generally observed, since Raquel provided a great amount of recasts (59%), which are classified as input-providing and implicit types of OCF strategy. This OCF strategy does not allow self-correction since the correct answer is provided by the teacher.

A possible explanation for this incongruence might be related to another of Raquel's entrenched beliefs. She repeatedly manifested that in order for students to develop the speaking ability, they need to have high self-confidence. Hence, Raquel believed that teachers should be sensitive in the way they provided OCF, by letting students speak without interrupting them and by not providing excessive OCF, because these classroom actions could affect students' participation in speaking activities and in turn the development of this skill. In addition to the sensitive classroom actions, Raquel would avoid to embarrass her students by not providing OCF strategies that would expose them in front of their classmates, such as output-prompting ones. Therefore, Raquel's frequent use of recasts during her classes might mean that her aim was not lowering her students' self-confidence. She might use recasts because they are the least intimidating type of OCF strategies since students are not forced to self-correct in front of the whole class (Yoshida, 2008). Therefore, it seemed that Raquel was faced with a dichotomy: to generate a tension free classroom atmosphere where students were able to develop their speaking skill without social strains, or to prioritize students' effective language learning by giving them the opportunity to self-correct. In her practices, Raquel enacted her belief regarding her students' protection of their integrity and self-

confidence. Raquel's concern about students' emotions seemed to be more important than providing OCF strategies that allowed students to self-correct.

## CHAPTER VI: DISCUSSION

The aim of the previous chapter was to present the results obtained from the analysis of the data in relation to the five research questions that guided this study. The current chapter will discuss the major findings and connect them to the theoretical framework and the literature review presented in chapters II and III respectively. In the next paragraphs, I address the five research questions, which will be organized into two main sections. In the first section I will discuss research questions N° I, II and III focusing on the relationship between the teacher and her students' beliefs about OCF. In the second section, research questions N° I, IV and V will be reported together in order to describe the relationship between the EFL teacher's beliefs about OCF and her classroom actions.

### **6.1 Research questions I, II and III: Comparison between the teacher and her students' beliefs about OCF**

In this section the relation between the teacher and her students' beliefs about OCF will be discussed in the light of previous results and the theories that frame this study.

Many authors have acknowledged that mismatches between teachers and students' beliefs could cause students' withdrawal and feelings of unhappiness, which might also affect their motivation, efforts, and the types of activities they choose to take part in. (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2013, Schulz, 2001). Furthermore, previous studies results have demonstrated that teachers and students' beliefs about OCF were in conflict (e.g.: Da Silva and Figueiredo 2006, Lee, 2013; Zhang and Rahimi, 2014 among others). On the other hand, studies have also observed that teachers and students' beliefs about OCF might be in agreement (e.g.: Farahani and Salajegheh, 2015; Kartchava and Ammar, 2014; Martinez Agudo, 2012), which is the case of the findings in the present study.

When Raquel was inquired about her beliefs regarding OCF, she explicitly and repeatedly manifested never having thought about the topic of OCF before, but as she tried to answer the interview questions, she brought to conscious attention her own classroom behaviors and revealed her beliefs about OCF. On the other hand, for the students it was also difficult to verbalize their beliefs at the beginning of the interview, but with some guidance they were able to disclose them. Thus, the beliefs that Raquel and her students could express during the interview were explicit beliefs (Gill & Fives,



2015; Fives & Buehl, 2012) even though they had to make an effort to put them into words. Not all the beliefs recovered from the data were explicit, since some of the teacher's beliefs had to be inferred from her explanations of her classroom practices (Zheng, 2015). These beliefs were implicit.

One of the most interesting findings was that students believed that making mistakes is part of their language learning process. Likewise, Martinez Agudo (2012) arrived at a similar conclusion since the students in his research believed that error making constituted an essential and necessary phase for effective L2 learning. This finding might be closely related to the teacher's belief that EC contributes to students' language learning. Even though these beliefs are not identical, they are probably interrelated, since they seem to be two sides of the same coin. Both sides appear to be complementary and intertwined in a complex way. This finding is consistent with Park's (2010) assertion that if students hold the belief that making mistakes is part of the learning process, and if their teachers try to help them, they would probably take risks when producing oral messages and build up confidence through practice. On the other hand, students' who do not believe that making mistakes is part of language learning may have a slower language development, since error correction may create barriers between teachers and their students. All in all, the students' approval of their mistakes as a necessary step in their language learning is very important in shaping their beliefs and emotions towards the reception of the teacher's EC.

Closely connected to the act of making mistakes is the provision of OCF. It was a shared belief between the teacher and her students that the teacher's role is to provide them with OCF. Apparently, there was agreement between this teacher and her students' beliefs regarding this issue. Barcelos & Kalaja (2013) stressed that teachers and students' match in their beliefs could be productive to language learning. Similarly, in a study about Iranian teachers and students' preferences for correction of classroom oral errors, Farahani and Salajegheh (2015) found that students perceived the teacher as a specialist whose role was to provide feedback and teach the language to them. In the same way, Schulz (2001) arrived at a similar result when comparing teachers and students' beliefs from different cultural origins. He concluded that regardless of their cultural background, teachers were seen as expert knowers and sources of knowledge.

Even though the *Tecnicatura en Lenguas* students stated that they believed that the source of knowledge was the teacher, they also expressed being open to receiving OCF from their classmates too. As they believed that making mistakes was part of their

language learning, then, error correction could come from someone who knew more than they did, either the teacher or a classmate. Clearly, they perceived the learning process as dialogic in nature, where all the participants play a role in each other's learning. According to Nassaji and Swain (2000), the concept of dialogic learning has important implications in the field of SLA, since the students need to be linguistically scaffolded in the difficult task of learning an L2 as they interact with their classmates and teacher in the classroom context. In line with this, Ellis (2008) asserted that "language learning occurs *in* rather than *as* a result of interaction" (emphasis in the original, p. 526). In other words: neither students are isolated and self-sufficient, nor their processes of learning are disconnected from the world they belong to; instead, learning is socially constructed (Ellis, 2008). As Hawkes (2012) explained, the help provided by the more knowledgeable other, the teacher or a classmate, is both affective and cognitive in orientation. It is affective because it tries to "control frustration during the problem-solving situation" (Bruner & Ross, 1976, as cited in Mitchell & Myles, 2004); it is cognitive, because in order for the student to be linguistically scaffolded, the help they receive should be contingent and in continuous adjustment with the student's ZPD.

Another important belief agreement between Raquel and her students was that the teacher should guide the students to discover and self-correct their mistakes by guiding them and not by providing the right answer immediately after the mistake. Furthermore, the students believed that they should be given time to reflect upon their mistakes and self-correct them. These beliefs might come from a general belief regarding the fact that students' self-correction would promote meaningful language learning. Among the authors who have obtained similar results was Yoshida (2008) who stated that the teachers and students in her study also considered self-correction to be more effective for learning than the provision of correct forms. In addition, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) found that students preferred the teacher to take more time, provide longer explanations and use different types of OCF, so, in this way, they were given more time for self-correction in order to promote more effective learning. Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) also found that the three teachers participating in their study believed that students' self-correction should be promoted. In addition, Li (2014) explained that encouraging self-correction is more motivating and makes classes more dynamic and interactive. In her own words:

this ‘prompt-then-provide’ approach is also supported by Sociocultural Theory, according to which CF should be contingent (i.e. provided only when it is necessary) and tailored to the needs of individual learners (Lantolf 2000). Thus, ‘indirect CF’ (for example clarification request, elicitation, or repetition) should be favoured, at least initially, over ‘direct CF’ (recasts, explicit correction, or metalinguistic feedback), because excessive feedback can thwart learner autonomy. (p. 197)

Contrasting findings were also found in the literature; for example, Da Silva and Figueiredo (2006) discovered that the teachers in their study believed that the best way of providing OCF to their students was a direct one, without giving any extra explanation about it. The teachers believed that their students should repeat the right model in order to promote effective language learning. Some of the students shared these beliefs, but others believed that it was better to be given the opportunity to find the errors and produce a correct utterance. Furthermore, Lee (2013) also found that the four teachers that participated in her study perceived that immediate correction of students’ errors was efficient and enhanced their oral proficiency. Additionally, Zhang and Rahimi (2014) found that students believed that learning was more effective when their errors were corrected immediately and explicitly.

The analysis of the data also revealed that there seemed to be agreement between Raquel and her students’ beliefs regarding teacher’s interruption when making mistakes. According to the participants, being interrupted could result in cognitive and emotional strain such as losing the train of thought and as a consequence, finding it difficult to recover the message to convey, and/ or experiencing negative emotions such as embarrassment, uneasiness and frustration. These results go in line with Martinez Agudo’s (2012) findings. He pointed out that most of the students interviewed believed that they should be corrected after delivering their message. More importantly, he concluded that students’ attitudes towards OCF should not be ignored, since it could have a potentially harmful effect on students’ emotional states. In addition, Kartchava and Ammar (2014) also concluded that students were well aware of the negative effects that OCF could invoke and that the negative impact OCF could potentially produce depended on the manner in which the feedback was delivered and on the specific type. This idea was also expanded by Breen (2001, as cited in Yoshida, 2010) who explained that:

language classes are social situations as well as places of learning, noting that teachers usually correct errors based on the learner’s language ability, flexibility,

and emotional state and that a learner's self-esteem can be affected by the teacher's response (p. 297).

In this regard, the topic of students' emotional states was an openly disclosed topic between the teacher and the students. Both parties were well aware of the negative emotions that students might experience during EC and consequently, it is likely that students resist or reject the provision of OCF. As some authors have explained, emotions and feeling towards EC are dependent upon how OCF is handled in the classroom (Cohen & Fass, 2001; Yoshida, 2010). Raquel believed that a teacher should be very sensitive and thoughtful when providing OCF in order to prevent students from being negatively disposed to EC. Smith (2010) claims that a teacher who is cognizant of the impact that negative emotions can have on students' ability to process and concentrate on their language learning will be able to provide appropriate OCF types so that students can benefit from EC. For this reason, Raquel explained that on some occasions she intentionally overlooks some students' mistakes to assure a comfortable and secure classroom atmosphere so as not to lower the students' self-confidence and be able to develop their speaking ability. Raquel's explicit belief that to develop the speaking skill students have to have high self-confidence was evident. Besides, students believed that Raquel did not provide OCF to all their mistakes in order to avoid frustration or embarrassment. In contrast to these findings, Lee (2013) found that the students from her study wanted to be provided OCF to all their mistakes; however, the teachers strongly disagreed with this belief and refused to provide OCF to all the students' errors.

In relation to Raquel and her students' beliefs about the types of errors that should be corrected, it was not possible to find a relationship. Raquel specified that she believed that pronunciation was the most important aspect to focus on when providing OCF to her students' oral productions; whereas the students were unable to realize when they made mistakes. They were aware of their classmates' mistakes, but not the ones they produced themselves. They were able to express that the majority of the OCF that they received was targeted to their pronunciation. Thus, it was not possible to establish any relationship between the teacher and her students' beliefs regarding this construct. The fact that Raquel believed that pronunciation mistakes were the ones to be corrected more frequently coincides with Da Silva and Figueiredo's (2006) findings. They observed that the participant teacher only provided OCF to her students' pronunciation

mistakes. On the other hand, a recent study by Ting, et al. (2011) asserted that ESL teachers of adult students at university English courses tended to have lower tolerance of grammatical inaccuracies compared to phonological and lexical errors. In brief, there appear to be several congruencies between the teacher and her students' beliefs. By answering the interview questions, and verbalizing their beliefs, Raquel and her students were able to construct their classroom realities. Besides, this congruence puts in evidence that beliefs are "socially constructed and contextually situated" (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2003, as cited in Barcelos, 2006) as well as "experiential" (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2013, p. 2). Furthermore, this correspondence between the teacher and her students' beliefs might increase students' motivation and teacher credibility; what is more, it can pave the way to students' language learning achievements (Schulz, 2001).

## **6.2 Research questions I, IV and V: The relationship between the teacher's beliefs about OCF and her classroom practices**

In this section, the results obtained regarding the relationship between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices will be discussed in view of previous studies and the theories that frame this work.

The indirect, complex, interwoven and even contradictory relationship that exists between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices has been described in the literature. (Barcelos, 2006; Borg, 2006; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Zheng, 2015 among others). Furthermore, researchers have stated that contradictions and inconsistencies between teacher beliefs and practices can provide insights into the culture of teaching (Barcelos & Kalaja, 2013; Negueruela-Azarola, 2011). Given the complexity of this relationship, it has also been highlighted that no perfect match should be expected between teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices (Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis, 2004). Hence, Kamiya (2014) suggested to describe this relationship as "fluid rather than fixed" (p. 12) because teachers' beliefs and classroom practices never appear as fully independent, but as an interrelated system (Zheng, 2015).

Contrary to previous studies that found discrepancies between stated beliefs and classroom practices of OCF among ESL/EFL teachers (e.g., Basturkmen, et al., 2004; Farrokhi, 2007; Mori, 2002, 2011), the findings in the present study are more in line with studies which show that stated beliefs and classroom practices conform to one another (e.g., Kamiya, 2014; Yoshida, 2008, 2010).



The triangulation of the data mostly revealed congruence between Raquel's beliefs and her actions, since her classroom practices reflected most of the beliefs about OCF identified. It was noticed that, in the cases in which the enactment of some of Raquel's beliefs could affect students' emotional states negatively, congruence was not so evident.

Raquel's classroom actions reflected the following beliefs: *that EC is inherent in a teacher's role*, *that EC contributes to language learning*, *that she should let students speak without interrupting*, *that she should provide OCF when there is a risk of communication breakdown*, *that she should avoid the provision OCF when it is evident that students are struggling to communicate* and *that she should provide OCF to pronunciation errors mainly*.

Even though Raquel's practice mirrored almost all of her beliefs, there was an apparently contradictory relationship between her beliefs about how to provide students with the opportunity to self-correct and her actions. One of Raquel's most entrenched beliefs was that *she should guide students to discover their mistakes* to promote meaningful learning. Likewise, she believed that her students would achieve self-correction if they were given the opportunity to reflect on their mistakes rather than if they were provided with the right answer immediately after their errors. Following this line of thought, it was expected to observe an ample use of output-prompting types of OCF, since they would be the most appropriate ones for guiding the students to self-correct and in turn, to promote significant language learning. However, when Raquel's classroom practices were thoroughly analyzed, an inconsistency emerged. Raquel provided higher frequencies of recasts (59%) than any other OCF types. As recasts are classified as input-providing and implicit types of OCF strategies, their use would not allow the students to think about their mistakes and to self-correct.

Previous research results will help support Raquel's paradoxical relationship between her beliefs and the former classroom practice. A possible explanation for this apparent incongruence might be related to another of her entrenched beliefs. She repeatedly manifested that she believed that *in order to develop the students' speaking ability, students needed to have high self-confidence*. Hence, Raquel would avoid embarrassing her students by not employing OCF strategies that would expose them in front of their classmates. Therefore, if she provided output-prompting types of OCF strategies, students would be required to self-correct and provide an immediate right answer, whereas, if she provided recasts, Raquel would not lower her students' self-



confidence, since recasts are the least intimidating type of OCF strategies because students are not forced to self-correct in front of the whole class (Yoshida, 2008). Therefore, there seemed to be a conflict between these two beliefs: “*teachers should guide students to discover their mistakes*” and “*to develop the students’ speaking ability, students needed to have high self-confidence*”. As it has been observed one of Raquel’s permanent concerns was to generate a tension free classroom atmosphere where students were able to learn without social strains; so, along these lines, Raquel enacted her belief regarding the protection of her students’ integrity, self-confidence and emotions (*to develop the students’ speaking ability, students needed to have high self-confidence*).

In a recent study, Kamiya (2014) obtained similar results. He observed that the four ESL participant teachers had the commonly stated belief that creating a comfortable environment for students was a crucial component for successful language learning. Therefore, one of their shared stated beliefs about OCF was that it should not humiliate students. Consequently, when OCF was employed, they opted for implicit types, mainly recasts. Kamiya inferred that the four teachers’ avoidance to use explicit OCF types seemed to be rooted in their stated belief that these types of OCF may be humiliating for the students.

The fact that implicit types of OCF were employed by teachers to prevent students’ negative emotions to be aroused was also supported by Yoshida’s (2008, 2010) findings. Yoshida (2010) explained that implicit OCF such as clarification requests, repetitions and recasts in particular, were frequently used by the teachers to provide corrections without disturbing the flow of interactions or intimidating students by not explicitly pointing out their errors. Another reason why the teachers use recasts was because in this way, they did not threaten the students’ face and consequently, the maintenance of a supportive classroom atmosphere was assured. Yoshida (2008) concluded that:

in many cases, the teachers seemed to believe that the use of CF to elicit self-corrections and the provision of more explanation after CF was more effective for learning. Despite this, they often chose recasts, mainly because of time restrictions, but also to avoid intimidating the learners by explicitly correcting their errors or forcing them to self-correct in front of the whole class (p. 89).

Evidently, Raquel enacted her explicit belief regarding the fact that students’ self-confidence should be preserved by creating a comfortable classroom atmosphere, at

the expense of enacting another of her entrenched beliefs. In other words, Raquel assigned a higher priority to her students' self-confidence than to her students' meaningful learning. This is in line with the idea that "beliefs are inherently emotional" (Barcelos, 2015, p. 314). Likewise, according to psychological studies, emotions and beliefs are connected in complex ways and influence one another interactively (Barcelos, 2015). Besides, according to Winograd, (2003, as cited in Barcelos, 2015) "emotions validate and provide evidence for beliefs and guide our attention towards information that is relevant to our goals" (p. 313).

### 6.3 Conclusion

The general aim of this study was to investigate a teacher's beliefs about OCF compared to those of her students', and to disclose the relationship between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices. The results have shown that, both, teachers and students' beliefs were largely in agreement, which might be beneficial for both, since students' motivation and language learning achievements might increase as well as teacher credibility (Kalaja & Barcelos, 2013).

As regards the relationship between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices, it was concluded that this relationship was a congruent one, for the most part. Nevertheless, some of her beliefs were found to conflict and Raquel was faced with an ambiguous situation: either to use output-prompting OCF strategies to promote the students' self-correction and in this way risk students' self-confidence, or to provide input-providing types of OCF to achieve a relaxed and comfortable classroom atmosphere. In relation to this issue, Raquel explained that in the face of this dichotomy she tends to give priority to the preservation of her students' integrity, self-confidence and emotions.

To conclude, this study has attempted to "unveil" (Barcelos, 2015) the complex nature of a teacher and her students' beliefs about OCF, and in this way, try to understand their intricate connections to actions and emotions in a specific context: *Tecnicatura en Lenguas EFL* classroom. This is a step forward to the contribution to more precise and complete interpretations of their beliefs regarding OCF practices and student language learning.

The following chapter will discuss the pedagogical implications of these findings and will enumerate the limitations of the present study.

## **CHAPTER VII: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The aims of this chapter are to introduce the pedagogical implications of this study for the field of Applied Linguistics and SLA, to acknowledge its limitations and to make a proposal for further research into the issue of teachers and students' beliefs about OCF and classroom practices.

### **7.1 Pedagogical Implications**

Given the powerful influence of beliefs on teaching and learning, this study on the relationship between a teacher's beliefs and those of her students about OCF and the connections between that teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices have several implications for teacher education and teacher development.

The results discussed in the previous chapters of this study demonstrated that the teacher and the students' beliefs converged on almost all the aspects related to EC and OCF studied in this thesis. This is of great importance because, as Barcelos and Kalaja (2013) explained, possible matches between teachers and students' beliefs are considered to be productive to language learning. In this respect, Ellis (2009), Lee (2013), and Zhang and Rahimi (2014), among others, have agreed on the fact that the teacher has the responsibility to bridge the gap between her beliefs about OCF and the students'.

One of the most relevant findings in this study was the close relationship between the teacher and her students' beliefs about OCF. In this respect, Ellis (2009) stressed that teachers should ensure that students know they are being corrected, since, on many occasions, teachers attempt to hide the corrective force of their OCF moves from students in order to avoid students' feeling of frustration and embarrassment. In this regard, teachers should monitor the extent to which OCF causes students' anxiety and "should adapt the strategies they use to ensure that anxiety facilitates rather than debilitates" (Ellis, 2009, p. 14) students' language learning.

In the analysis of the data in the present study, I noticed that neither the teacher nor the students were aware of the different OCF types available. Therefore, it would be of great importance to raise pre and in-service teachers as well as students' awareness of

the purpose, significance, and types of OCF, since it would be an effective approach to help students form positive attitudes towards them. Furthermore, all teachers should find out about their students' beliefs regarding OCF by discussing their role in language learning. They could also negotiate agreed goals for OCF practices; among the topics to be negotiated we can mention: what types of errors should be corrected; who should provide OCF; when the best time for providing and receiving OCF is (immediate or delayed); what emotions arouse when students receive OCF, among many other related topics. As a result of this sharing of ideas, teachers would be able to adapt and vary the OCF strategies they use to particular students' beliefs, needs and emotions as well as to the specific social and situational context.

This study also revealed that the provision of OCF aroused feelings not only on the part of the teacher, but also on the part of the students. In relation to this, Lasagabaster & Sierra (2005) affirmed that a frequent source that might arouse some negative teacher and students' emotions is the fact that teachers have to provide OCF to the same specific student's mistake repeatedly. That is why teachers should be prepared to correct specific errors on several occasions to enable students to achieve full self-correction. Therefore, teachers should be prepared to vary who, when, and how they correct in accordance with the cognitive and affective needs of the individual students. In effect, this means they do not need to follow a consistent set of procedures for all students, but to be aware of their individual beliefs, needs, preferences, and emotions. As Fives and Buehl (2012) and Wan, et al. (2011) asserted, teachers should be aware of their beliefs and those of their students; they should reflect on them, and consider them as the departing point for their classroom OCF policy. In this way, I consider that EFL teachers will be more capable of adopting OCF practices which are congruent with their beliefs and with that of their students'. This practice will facilitate both, the teaching and learning processes.

In conclusion, it seems to be very important to reinforce the concept of OCF in the Teacher Training program at the University of Río Cuarto, so that pre-service teachers are provided with essential tools to teach the English language effectively, and students are made aware gradually of the important role that OCF might have in their language learning.

## 7.2 Limitations of the study

Although the findings in this study may contribute to improving the situation of EFL teachers in their classroom contexts, there are some limitations that should be taken into account.

My decision to carry out a case study which focused only on one teacher and seven students might be seen as a limitation. Some critics may argue that a qualitative case study is not generalizable as I only studied participants within a particular course and classroom context. However, I would like to point out that the creation of a “thick and rich description” (Patton, 2015, p. 1163) of the situation is the goal of a qualitative study, instead of generalizability. In this respect, such a perceived limitation may also be viewed as a strength of this study, since Patton (2015) clearly explains that “capturing and understanding diverse perspectives, observing and analyzing behaviors in context, looking for patterns in what human beings do and think – and examining the implications of those patterns – these are some of the basic contributions of qualitative inquiry” (p. 59).

Another limitation of this study can be related to the number of class observations. Observing more classes would have given me a more comprehensive picture of the teacher’s systematic provision of OCF and her enacted beliefs, as well as the students’ beliefs and emotions about the reception of OCF. However, the use of the video recorder intimidated not only the teacher but also the students because they did not get accustomed to it and never forgot about it. Therefore, I considered that four classroom observations were enough to provide me with the necessary data to accomplish my objective.

Finally, I did not administer stimulated recall interviews to students. Even though the focus of my study was the teacher, having administered at least one stimulated recall interview to each student or having applied other self-reflection data collection instruments, like diary entries or focus groups, may have had the potential to yield a richer understanding not only of the relationship between teacher and students’ beliefs about OCF but also, to thoroughly comprehend the complex relationship among the teacher’s beliefs.

### **7.3 Suggestions for further research**

Future studies need to go beyond the identification of relationships between teachers and students' beliefs about OCF and the exploration of a teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices in order to overcome limitations of the present study and obtain a better understanding of the complex way in which the teacher and her students' beliefs are interwoven, as well as to better understand the complex and multifaceted relationship between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom practices. Because teachers' beliefs are often invisible unless expressly articulated, the existence of goals other than linguistic, such as those related to emotions, have been recognized in this study. In addition, it is also important to give more prominence to social and cultural factors which have been excluded from research designs. This would contribute to more precise and complete interpretations of OCF practice in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, it would assist teachers to have a more detailed understanding of what, how, when, whom, and why they should correct errors. Therefore, future studies are needed to further investigate the complex nature of teachers and students' beliefs about OCF, and to understand the intricate connections between teachers' classroom practices, beliefs and emotions.



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APPENDIX A: Classroom Observation Checklist

- Observer: .....Teacher: .....
- Date, time & venue: .....
- Course: .....N° of students attending: .....
- Seating arrangement: .....
- Material/s used: .....
- Aim/s of the lesson: .....
- Types of activities: .....  
.....
- General atmosphere of the classroom: .....

Observation Grid items	
<b>Instances of OCF:</b>	
<b>OCF strategies</b>	
- Recast: .....	- Clarific. Request: .....
- Metaling. Clues: .....	- Explicit Correction: .....
- Elicitation: .....	- Paralinguistic Signals: .....
- Repetition: .....	- Others: .....
<b>Types of errors:</b>	
- Grammar: .....	
- Vocabulary: .....	
- Pronunciation: .....	
- Appropriateness: .....	
<b>Teacher's attitude:</b>	
- Body language: .....	
- Tone of voice: .....	
<b>Students' attitude:</b>	<b>Students' involvement in the activities:</b>
- Body language: .....	- active participants: .....
- Tone of voice: .....	- motivated: .....
	- willing to learn: .....

**APPENDIX B: Stimulated Recall Teacher Interview Protocol**

- Researcher: .....
- Participant Teacher: .....
- Date, Time & Venue: .....

**Purpose of this stimulated Recall interview:** The purpose of this stimulated recall interview is to complement the classroom observations with your own view and explanation of the pointed situations.

- **Activity**
  - ✓ The researcher will show you an excerpt from your lesson. After watching it, you are invited to answer the following questions in English or Spanish, as you feel more comfortable. Mind that these are suggested questions, it is not necessary that you answer all of them in every excerpt that the researcher will show you.
    - What were you thinking about at that moment?
    - What was your aim in this activity/ behavior/ answer/ etc.?
    - Was your aim achieved?
    - Why did you decide to do or not to do that?
    - Comment on your behavior

## APPENDIX C: Standardized Open- Ended Ad- Hoc Teacher Interview regarding OCF

### 1. Teacher's background

- a) Age:
- b) How many years of teaching experience do you have?
- c) What's your teaching and academic background?
- d) Why did you become an ESL teacher?

### 2. Beliefs about OCF: I would like to talk about your beliefs and classroom actions about the oral corrective feedback that you provide (or you do not provide) to your students in your lessons/ classes.

We operationalized OCF as the teacher's reaction to a student's erroneous oral production. They can consist of: 1) an indication that an error has been committed, 2) provision of the correct target language form, 3) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006)

- 1) Do you provide OCF to your students? Why?
- 2) How do you usually provide OCF to your students? What does it depend on?
- 3) Do you believe that error correction enhances or hinders student's language learning process? Why?
- 4) What aspects do you believe that you should focus on when providing OCF to your students? Why do you think so?
- 5) In your opinion, which is the most effective way of providing OCF to your students? Why do you believe so?
- 6) Are you satisfied with the way you handle OCF in your classes?

### 3. Beliefs about students' preferences on the provision of OCF

- 7) Do you believe that your students want to receive OCF? Why do you believe that?

- 8) Do you believe that your students prefer to receive OCF in a particular way?  
(Provide the examples if necessary: Every time they make a mistake? Once they have finished expressing their idea? Or they want to be interrupted?)  
Why do you think so?
- 9) Do you believe that the way you provide OCF affects or has an impact on students' feelings? Why do you believe so?
- 10) Do you talk to them about how they prefer to receive OCF? Why?



## **APPENDIX D: Standardized Open- Ended Ad- Hoc Student Interview regarding OCF**

### **1. Información demográfica**

- a) Edad:
- b) ¿Estudiaste Inglés antes de ingresar a la Tecnicatura en Leguas? ¿Dónde?  
¿Por cuánto tiempo?
- c) ¿Cuántos años hace que estás estudiando la Tecnicatura en Lenguas?
- d) ¿Por qué estás estudiando esta carrera?

### **2. Creencias sobre las Acciones Correctoras a la Producción Oral ACPO: Me gustaría saber que piensan sobre la forma en que te corrigen los errores que cometes cuando hablas en inglés.**

- 1) ¿Qué tipos de errores te corrigen habitualmente en la clase de inglés?
- 2) ¿Crees que hay otros errores que te deberían corregir además de los que acabas de mencionar? ¿Por qué?
- 3) ¿Cómo preferís que te corrijan los errores cuando estás hablando en inglés?  
¿Por qué?
- 4) ¿Crees que es mejor que te corrija la profesora o un compañero? ¿Por qué?
- 5) ¿Cómo te sentís cuando la Profesora te marca un error cuando vos estás hablando en inglés? ¿Por qué?
- 6) ¿Crees que hay alguna relación entre cometer errores y aprender inglés? ¿Por qué crees esto?
- 7) ¿Cuál crees que es la mejor forma de recibir correcciones cuando estás hablando inglés?
- 8) Has notado que en algunas ocasiones la Profesora no corrige algunos errores, ya sea a vos o a tus compañeros ¿Por qué crees que ella hace esto?
- 9) ¿Crees que se debería negociar en el aula la forma en la que cada alumno quiere ser corregido? ¿Por qué?
- 10) ¿Algo que quieras agregar?

**APPENDIX E: Formulario de consentimiento para participar en investigación**

Yo, \_\_\_\_\_, presto mi conformidad para participar en un estudio de investigación realizado por la Prof. Adelina Sánchez Centeno en el marco de su tesis final de Maestría en Inglés con orientación a Lingüística Aplicada. En dicha investigación, estoy de acuerdo con que se registre en audio y video las clases en las que participo como alumno/a. Comprendo el objetivo de este estudio y mis preguntas han sido respondidas de manera satisfactoria. He sido informado y entiendo que los datos obtenidos en el estudio pueden ser publicados o difundidos de manera anónima con fines científicos. Convengo en participar en este estudio de investigación y recibiré una copia firmada y fechada de este formulario de consentimiento.

Firma del participante: \_\_\_\_\_ Fecha: \_\_\_\_\_  
Aclaración: \_\_\_\_\_ D.N.I.: \_\_\_\_\_

Se le ha explicado al alumno/a \_\_\_\_\_ la naturaleza y el objetivo de la investigación que se llevará a cabo. Se le ha preguntado si tiene alguna duda y contestado a sus preguntas en la medida de lo posible. Asumo la responsabilidad de mantener el anonimato de los participantes de este estudio y me comprometo a utilizar los datos obtenidos solamente con fines científicos.

Firma de la investigadora: \_\_\_\_\_ Fecha: \_\_\_\_\_  
Aclaración: \_\_\_\_\_ D.N.I.: \_\_\_\_\_

# APPENDIX F: Teacher - Student interactions with the presence of OCF

Time	Teacher – Student Interactions 1st observation 14/05/2015	OCF strategy	Type of Error
Video 1 2:06	<u>Valentina</u> : In my opinion about the weather, because ... maybe humans are destroying the planet and it's time to stop it and take conscience? <u>Teacher</u> : ok. To become conscious <u>Valentina</u> : yes <u>Teacher</u> : ok	Recast	lexis
11:09	<u>Teacher</u> : Can you make predictions about other areas in which we may use this driverless machine? <u>Lucía</u> : the other day I saw robots that are being <u>created to assisting on people</u> ... they are in charge of taking care of them, taking ancient? <u>Teacher</u> : ancient people? <u>Lucía</u> : ancient people... Instead of taking them to... <u>Teacher</u> : old people, you say old not ancient, ancient is not for people	overlooked clarification request explicit correction	grammar lexis
17:28	<u>Teacher</u> : who can read the first activity? Just the assignment and then we will see the answer. Valentina can you start? <u>Valentina</u> : Match each prefix /prə'faiks/ <u>Teacher</u> : prefix /'prɪfiks/	Recast	pronunc.
22:20	<u>Teacher</u> : So let's see the meanings of these words in activity 2. Mariana can you read one? <u>Mariana</u> : a very large shop, hypermarket /'ɪpə,mɑ:kɪt/ <u>Teacher</u> : hypermarket /'haɪpə,mɑ:kɪt/, Can you repeat it? hypermarket /'haɪpə,mɑ:kɪt/ <u>Mariana</u> : hypermarket /'haɪpə,mɑ:kɪt/ <u>Teacher</u> : very good	recast	pronunc.
23:40	<u>Teacher</u> : Carolina can you read N° 4? <u>Carolina</u> : a range /reɪn/ of different plants and animals <u>Teacher</u> : a range /reɪndʒ/ of different plants and animals... which is the word? <u>Carolina</u> : biodiversity /,bɪə'dɪvɜ:sɪti/ <u>Teacher</u> : ok. How do you pronounce it? <u>Teacher &amp; Carolina</u> : biodiversity /,baɪə'daɪ'vɜ:sɪti/ <u>Teacher</u> : very good	recast elicitation	pronunc. pronunc.
24:14	<u>Teacher</u> : Ana? <u>Ana</u> : a piece of silicon with an electric circuits		

	<p>printed on it: microchips /'mɪkrəʊ,tʃɪp/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: Ok. Do you know how we pronounce it? Instead of micro /'mɪkrəʊ/ we say ...</p> <p><u>Valentina &amp; Ana</u>: /'maɪkrəʊ,tʃɪp/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: Very Good</p>	metalinguistic cue & elicitation	pronunc.
24:30	<p><u>Teacher</u>: Mariana can you read N°6?</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: a house with another house attached, /ə'tætʃ/ attached /ə'tætʃ/ on one side: semidetached /semɪdɪ'tætʃ/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: ok. How do we pronounce attached /ə'tætʃ/? attached /ə'tætʃ/</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: attached /ə'tætʃ/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: and detached /dɪ'tætʃ/ semi /semɪdɪ'tætʃ/ detached</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: detached /dɪ'tætʃ/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: very good</p>	metalinguistic cue & recast	pronunc.
Video 2	No instances of OCF		
Video 3			
12:28	<p><u>Teacher</u>: Carolina?</p> <p><u>Carolina</u>: In the next few weeks, the government /gʌ'vənmənt/ is going to introduce [INCOMP] to children</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: Ok, first of all the /'gʌvənmənt/ ok?</p>	explicit correction	pronunc.
14:06	<p><u>Teacher</u>: Mariana?</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: the government is about to launch a new education program later today to encourage /enku'rəʃ/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: encourage /ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ/</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: encourage /ɪn'kʌrɪdʒ/ women /guman/ to have fewer children</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: women /'wɪmɪn/</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: women /'wɪmɪn/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: ok</p>	<p>recast</p> <p>recast</p>	<p>pronunc.</p> <p>pronunc.</p>
Video 4	No instance of OCF		
Time	Teacher – Student Interactions 2nd observation 28/05/2015	OCF strategy	Type of Error
Video 1 12:40	<p><u>Teacher</u>: so, today you are going to talk about that, you are going to make a presentation of technological products that are appropriate for different people, for different needs for different countries maybe</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: capacities</p>		

	<p><u>Teacher</u>: ok, Can you continue?</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: different capacity of the people to take the new technology or the technology appropriate /ə'prəʊ'pɪeɪt/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: appropriately /ə'prəʊpɪeɪtli/</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: /ə'prəʊ.../</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: yes! appropriately /ə'prəʊpɪeɪtli/</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: appropriately /ə'prəʊpɪeɪtli/</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: ok</p>	Recast	pronunc.
20:21	<p><u>Teacher</u>: what did you want to say?</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: One person <u>speak at</u> the other is only...</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: the other people only...</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: hear /jer/ ((she points to her ear))</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: listen, ok</p>	<p>overlooked</p> <p>recast</p> <p>recast</p>	<p>grammar</p> <p>gramma</p> <p>lexis</p>
Video 2	No instances of OCF		
Video 3 30:45	<p><u>Teacher</u>: I want to work briefly with some mistakes...</p>	Delayed OCF to the whole group	
35:42	<p><b>DELAYED OUTPUT-PROMPTING</b></p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: Did you notice any grammatical problems?</p> <p><u>Micaela</u>: yes, she told me that we forgot the subjects</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: ok, very good! Some of you forgot the subjects and some of you had problems with... which part specially?</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: verbs</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: verbs? In some cases I've noticed ((she gives examples)). But did you pay attention to questions? I wrote some questions like: it is expensive -, you asked.</p> <p>What was wrong with that?</p> <p><u>Lucía</u>: Is it</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: Is it, inversion. It is a product with a long life -</p> <p><u>Lucía</u>: Is it</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: Is it a long life product?</p>	<p>metalinguistic cues</p> <p>metalinguistic cues</p> <p>elicitation repetition</p> <p>metalinguistic cues repetition</p> <p>recast</p>	<p>grammar</p> <p>grammar</p> <p>grammar</p> <p>grammar</p> <p>lexis</p>
44:15	<p><u>Teacher</u>: what did they use to convince you?</p> <p><u>Vanina</u>: they incorporate the public</p> <p><u>Teacher</u>: Ok, excellent. They engaged ((she makes a gesture like pointing to the public)) the public.</p>	recast & paralinguistic signals	lexis
46:35	<p><u>Teacher</u>: why did you vote?</p> <p><u>Mariana</u>: I prefer this product because is our product</p>		

	<u>Teacher</u> : ok <u>Mariana</u> : but, is a ecological <u>Teacher</u> : but is... you are missing something there, but... <u>Mariana</u> : but IT is an ecological product, renewable energy and adding more benefits to the university <u>Teacher</u> : it adds <u>Mariana</u> : it adds more benefits to the university for students, teachers... ((while the student speaks, the teacher is making the "ok" gesture))	overlooked repetition metalinguistic cue & elicitation  recast	pronunc. grammar  grammar
Video 4 56:03	<u>Teacher</u> : activity two Mariana <u>Mariana</u> : label the paragraphs according to the topic they present /'prɪznt/ <u>Teacher</u> : present /prɪ'zent/, very good	Recast	pronunc.
Video 5	No instances of OCF		
Time	Teacher – Student Interactions 3rd observation 02/06/2015	OCF strategy	Type of Error
Video 1 1:06	<u>Teacher</u> : What can you see in the picture first? There's a photograph, Can you see the photograph? What can you see there? And you can also read <u>Carolina</u> : a juggler /ɪ'ʊglər/ <u>Teacher</u> : ok, a juggler /'dʒʌglə/ <u>Carolina</u> : a juggler /'dʒʌglə/ <u>Teacher</u> : ok	Recast	pronunc.
3:18	<u>Teacher</u> : and it is related to what? What other kind of art? <u>Many students</u> : painting <u>Teacher</u> : ok, very good, painting <u>Mariana</u> : the drawing /'draʊnɪŋ/ <u>Teacher</u> : drawings /'drɔːnɪŋ/, very good	Recast	pronunc.
4:26	<u>Teacher</u> : Can you add any other forms of art? <u>Mariana</u> : sculpture /sku'tɪə/ <u>Teacher</u> : ((she makes a gesture with her face and hand asking the student to repeat what she said)) <u>Mariana</u> : sculpture /sku'tɪə/ <u>Teacher</u> : Sculpture /'skʌlptʃə/, very good, sculpture /'skʌlptʃə/	paralinguistic signals  recast	pronunc.
15:49	<u>Teacher</u> : and any other combination? Where else can a band play? <u>Lucía</u> : at the street also <u>Teacher</u> : Maybe, very good in the streets	Recast	grammar



17:28	<u>Teacher</u> : Did you look up for the word gig? Yes? What is the meaning of the word gig? <u>Mariana</u> : the single musician /mu: 'zɪsɪən/, the jazz musician /mu: 'zɪsɪən/ <u>Teacher</u> : musician? /mjʊ: 'zɪfən/ <u>Mariana</u> : musician /mjʊ: 'zɪfən/	Recast	pronunc.
21:13	<u>Teacher</u> : Who can read the questions? Mariana, Can you read one? <u>Mariana</u> : What does each person do at their job? What is each person creative /'kri:atɪv/ <u>Teacher</u> : creative /kri: 'etɪv/ <u>Mariana</u> : creative /kri: 'etɪv/outlet /'outlet/ <u>Teacher</u> : outlet /'aʊtlet/, very good	recast recast	pronunc. pronunc.
27:22	<u>Teacher</u> : Do you have any photograph of your paintings? <u>Valentina</u> : I'm not show you <u>Teacher</u> : You are not going to show me, ok	Recast	grammar
28:15	<u>Valentina</u> : he is a photographer ((the student was referring to a girl)) <u>Teacher</u> : she is a photographer, very good! That's another type of art	Recast	grammar
30:03	<u>Teacher</u> : What about you Carolina? <u>Carolina</u> : I learned to play _guitar and _piano some time ago, but I actually, no actually no eh... <u>Teacher</u> : at the moment? <u>Carolina</u> : at the moment, yes I didn't play <u>Teacher</u> : I don't play <u>Carolina</u> : I don't play eh, but I love making handicrafts? <u>Teacher</u> : Oh! Very Good! Crafts! Very Good! We have another...What kind of crafts? <u>Carolina</u> : decorate, decorating or for decorate <u>Teacher</u> : what do you decorate? <u>Carolina</u> : decorative? <u>Teacher</u> : ok! <u>Carolina</u> : Eh... to decor, decorative a house <u>Teacher</u> : maybe, interior design? You would like to decorate houses? <u>Carolina</u> : no, no, no...eh... crafts ... <u>Teacher</u> : ok, crafts <u>Carolina</u> : to decorate a house <u>Teacher</u> : ok, very good!	overlooked  recast recast  recast  clarification request	lexis grammar  lexis
32:48	<u>Teacher</u> : What about you Vanina? <u>Vanina</u> : I like to make some draws /draus/, drawings /drauins/	recast	pronunc.

	<u>Teacher</u> : drawings /'drɔ:ɪŋs/		
38:03	<u>Teacher</u> : What else can you see? <u>Lucía</u> : kangaroos, they are national /'neɪʃənl/ animals <u>Teacher</u> : they are what? <u>Lucía</u> : they are national /'neɪʃənl/ <u>Teacher</u> : national? /'næʃənl/, ok	clarification request  recast	lexis  pronunc.
Video 2			
6:52	<u>Teacher</u> : Carolina? What about the second? <u>Carolina</u> : It is known_the <u>architecture</u> /ˌɑ:kɪ'tektʃə/capital and ... <u>Teacher</u> : architectural /ˌɑ:kɪ'tektʃərəl/ <u>Carolina</u> : architectural /ˌɑ:kɪ'tektʃərəl/	overlooked  recast	grammar  pronunc.
34: 22	<u>Valentina</u> : enormous <u>Teacher</u> : just enormous? <u>Mariana</u> : enormous range /ræŋʃ/ of... <u>Teacher</u> : enormous RANGE /reɪndʒ/of... very good!	Recast	pronunc.
35:54	<u>Micaela</u> : a huge /hju:f/ amount /ə'maʊnt/ of <u>Teacher</u> : a HUGE /hju:dʒ/AMOUNT /ə'maʊnt/ of ... <u>Micaela</u> : a huge /hju:f/amount /amount/ of <u>Lucía</u> : HUGE /hju:dʒ/as in George <u>Teacher</u> : How do you pronounce a huge? huge /hju:dʒ/ <u>Macarena, Lucía, Valentina &amp; Mariana</u> : /hju:dʒ/ <u>Teacher</u> : that's it	recast  metalinguistic cue & recast	pronunc.
37:25	<u>Teacher</u> : a bit of and?... <u>Micaela</u> : enough /ɪ'naʊf/ <u>Teacher</u> : ENOUGH? /ɪ'naʊf/	Recast	pronunc.
Time	<b>Teacher – Student Interactions 4th observation 04/06/2015</b>	OCF strategy	Type of Error
Video 1 16:00	<u>Teacher</u> : which expressions could you identify related to countable nouns? <u>Mariana</u> : an enormous range /ræŋʃ/ of <u>Teacher</u> : an enormous RANGE /reɪndʒ/ of	Recast	pronunc.
25:40	<u>Teacher</u> : What can you say about theatres? <u>Lucía</u> : There aren't many theatre in Rio Cuarto <u>Teacher</u> : ok. Many...? <u>Lucía</u> : theathreS	elicitation	grammar
38:15 39:35	<u>Teacher</u> : Mariana, Do you want to start? <u>Mariana</u> : I think, for example cinema is		

	<p>important the quantity and quality /'kælɪtɪ/  <u>Teacher</u>: quality /'kwɒlɪtɪ/  <u>Mariana</u>: quality /'kwɒlɪtɪ/of the film because _is the sometimes in the Buenos Aires por ejemplo, for example; the film in Rio Cuarto <u>are in the same time with</u> Buenos Aires or the other city of the world  <u>Teacher</u>: ok  <u>Mariana</u>: the... the... demos?  <u>Teacher</u>: the quality? The release?  <u>Mariana</u>: the release ...  <u>Teacher</u>: so they are of the same quality as...  <u>Mariana</u>: as <u>the</u> Buenos Aires or the other /odə'/ cities  <u>Teacher</u>: OTHER /'ʌðə'/ cities. What about in relation to quantity? What can you say?  <u>Mariana</u>: the... place, the <u>specific place is a few quantity</u>, but the quality  <u>Teacher</u>: It's good, you were taking about quality is good  <u>Mariana</u>: yes  <u>Teacher</u>: Can you tell me how many theatres there are in Río Cuarto? ((she is asking to the whole class))</p>	<p>recast  overlooked</p> <p>overlooked</p> <p>elicitation  overlooked</p> <p>recast  overlooked</p>	<p>pronunc.  grammar</p> <p>grammar</p> <p>lexis  grammar</p> <p>pronunc.  grammar</p>
42:19	<p><u>Teacher</u>: Any other? Carolina? Can you report on something you discussed?  <u>Carolina</u>: eh... about festivals ...  <u>Teacher</u>: ok  <u>Carolina</u>: eh... there are few festivals in Río Cuarto and sometimes <u>when there are an exposition</u> like wine exposition eh... may, <u>there are a festival</u> too  <u>Teacher</u>: ok there IS a festival too, ok</p>	<p>overlooked</p> <p>recast</p>	<p>grammar</p> <p>grammar</p>
43:35	<p><u>Carolina</u>: but when the government /gʌ'vənmənt/ organize political ...  <u>Teacher</u>: political what? Continue  <u>Carolina</u>: they want to win people so I think that they organize festival to make <u>is</u> name know  <u>Teacher</u>: known? ok</p>	<p>overlooked</p> <p>recast</p>	<p>grammar</p> <p>grammar</p>
46:22	<p><u>Lucía</u>: Well, <u>actually</u> in the paseo de las Artes, that is right next to de Libero Pierini en la Placita de las Malvinas, some weekends there are people representing some acts, I mean, circus acts  <u>Teacher</u>: they... which is the verb that you can use? ((she points at a list of words projected on the whiteboard))</p>	<p>overlooked</p> <p>Elicitation &amp; metalinguistic cue &amp;</p>	<p>lexis</p>

	<u>Lucía</u> : perform <u>Teacher</u> : excellent, very good <u>Lucía</u> : they perform there	paralinguistic signals	
Video 2	No instances of OCF		
Video 3 1: 06	<u>Micaela</u> : this was an image of a girl who drew /drɔːu/ <u>Teacher</u> : who drew /dru/ <u>Micaela</u> : landscapes <u>Teacher</u> : so, can you repeat the sentence? A girl... <u>Micaela</u> : A girl who drew /drɔːu/ <u>Teacher</u> : the past of draw is not draw, who... <u>Lucía</u> : drew /dru/ <u>Micaela</u> : drew /dru/ a landscape <u>Teacher</u> : excellent!	recast  elicitation  explicit correction & elicitation	pronunc.   grammar
6:08	<u>Teacher</u> : who can read 3? Valetina? <u>Valentina</u> : some reverse graffiti artists are paid to make images /'ɪmɪʃ/ <u>Teacher</u> : images /'ɪmɪdʒs/ <u>Valentina</u> : that act as graffiti advertisement	Recast	pronunc.
7:56	<u>Teacher</u> : What about five? Carolina? <u>Carolina</u> : the local authorities /ɔː'θɒrɪti/ <u>Teacher</u> : authorities /ɔː'θɒrɪtɪs/ <u>Carolina</u> : authorities /ɔː'θɒrɪtɪs/	Recast	pronunc.
21:33	<u>Teacher</u> : and then we have any... <u>Vanina</u> : advertisers /əd'vɜːtaɪzə's/ <u>Teacher</u> : advertisers /'ædvətaɪzə's/ Can you repeat it again? <u>Vanina</u> : advertisers /'ædvətaɪzə's/ <u>Teacher</u> : excellent!	recast	pronunc.
36:22	<u>Teacher</u> : What is the difference of using these two? <u>Mariana</u> : "any" exiges negative verb <u>Teacher</u> : Excellent! DEMANDS a negative verb	Recast	lexis

