

A comparison of Iran's EFL and New Zealand's ESL teachers'  
stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback and their actual  
classroom practices

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## **Abstract**

Despite a growing attention to the field of teachers' oral corrective feedback (OCF) beliefs and practices, studies have been limited in scope to certain aspects of OCF and their research contexts. Drawing upon Gass's (1997, 2018) framework of theoretical contributions and Zheng's (2015) model of Complex System Theory, this study explored teachers' OCF beliefs, error correction practices, and the relationship between the two across Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts. It also investigated the possible factors that can affect the beliefs and practices, and the link between the two.

Methodologically, the study used an exploratory multiple-case study approach as it was the most effective approach to obtain data on aspects of teachers' beliefs and practices both within a single and across two instructional contexts. Five Iranian EFL and five NZ ESL teachers of intermediate/upper intermediate classes were asked to complete a background questionnaire, take part in a belief elicitation interview, be observed twice during their classroom teaching, and take part in a stimulated recall interview. Qualitative data analysis was used to analyse the collected data.

The findings showed that while teachers' OCF beliefs can vary both within and across contexts, overall, Iranian teachers held stronger beliefs about the importance of oral error correction than the NZ teachers. With regards to OCF practices, similarly, the findings indicated that error correction practices can differ both within and across contexts. In comparing the two contexts, noticeable variations were observed with regards to aspects of Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF practice. As for the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices, the results revealed many instances of non-alignment between the two across both contexts. In addition, potential factors that could affect teachers' OCF beliefs, error correction practices, and the alignment between the two were also identified. Finally, this study suggests that the simultaneous interaction of these complex factors be considered when exploring teachers' beliefs and practices.

The findings are significant in that they enhance our understanding of the fields of teacher belief and OCF by providing a Complex System Theory explanation for different dimensions of teachers' beliefs systems, and the interconnectedness of teachers' beliefs, practices, and contexts. Replicative studies are suggested in other contexts to determine the generalizability of the findings.

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*And He has made me blessed, wherever I am.  
Quran [19:31]*

## **Attestation of Authorship**

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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## Table of Contents

Abstract.....	i
Acknowledgements.....	iii
Attestation of Authorship.....	v
List of Tables .....	xi
List of Figures .....	xii
List of Abbreviations .....	xiii
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1.0 Introduction.....	1
1.1. The effectiveness of OCF for L2 development.....	3
1.2. Teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF .....	5
1.3. The provision of OCF in classrooms .....	6
1.4. The relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices.....	9
1.5 Summary .....	10
1.6 The overall design of the present study .....	11
1.7 The outline of the thesis.....	12
Chapter 2: Review of Literature.....	14
2.0 Introduction.....	14
2.1 The concept of OCF.....	15
2.2 Negative and positive evidence.....	17
2.3 Can OCF facilitate L2 development?.....	18
2.3.1 Theoretical case against the effectiveness of OCF in L2 development .....	19
2.3.2 Theoretical case in support of the role OCF in L2 development .....	20
2.3.3 Empirical evidence against the role for OCF in L2 development.....	22
2.3.4 Evidence in support of the role for OCF in L2 development .....	23
2.4 The concept of teachers' beliefs.....	25
2.4.1 Definition of teachers' beliefs.....	26
2.5 Theories underlying teacher belief research .....	26
2.6 Research on teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision OCF.....	31
2.6.1 Should errors be corrected?.....	31
2.6.2 How should errors be corrected? .....	34
2.6.3 Which errors should be corrected?.....	35
2.6.4 Who should provide OCF? .....	37
2.6.5 When should errors be corrected?.....	38
2.7 Sources of teachers' beliefs.....	40
2.7.1 Teachers' own language learning experience .....	40

2.7.2 Teachers' language teaching experience.....	41
2.7.3 Teacher training courses .....	41
2.7.4 Teachers' education background .....	43
2.7.5 Teachers' personalities.....	44
2.7.6 Learning and teaching context .....	45
2.8 Research on teachers' OCF classroom practices .....	48
2.8.1 Do teachers correct errors? .....	48
2.8.2 How are errors corrected by teachers? .....	50
2.8.3 Which errors are corrected? .....	55
2.8.4 Who corrects errors? .....	57
2.8.5 When are errors corrected? .....	59
2.9 Research on the relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices.....	60
2.9.1 Studies showing alignment between teachers' CF beliefs and practices .....	61
2.9.2 Studies showing non-alignment between beliefs and practices .....	64
2.10 Factors mediating the link between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices .....	69
2.10.1 Learner-related factors .....	69
2.10.2 Teacher-related factors.....	70
2.10.3 Context-related factors .....	71
2.10.4 Methodological-related factors .....	72
2.11 Summary .....	72
Chapter 3: Methodology .....	74
3.0 Introduction.....	74
3.1 Research philosophy .....	74
3.2 Overview of the methodological approach .....	75
3.3 Contexts .....	78
3.4 Research participants .....	79
3.5 Research instruments .....	81
3.5.1 Background information questionnaire.....	82
3.5.2 Interviews.....	82
3.5.3 Classroom observations .....	85
3.6 Data collection procedure .....	87
3.7 Data analysis .....	90
3.7.1 Data analysis procedure for RQ1 .....	90
3.7.2 Data analysis procedure for RQ2.....	92
3.7.2.1 Transcription of classroom data.....	92
3.7.2.2 Coding of types of feedback .....	93
3.7.2.3 The study's framework of feedback types .....	94
3.7.2.4 Types of students' oral errors.....	97



3.7.2.5 Reliability and Member Validation in Coding.....	97
3.7.2.6 Model of error correction.....	98
3.7.2.7 Counting teachers' OCF feedback.....	99
3.7.3 Data Analysis Procedure for RQ3.....	104
3.8 Pilot study.....	105
3.9 Trustworthiness.....	106
3.10 Ethical considerations.....	108
3.11 Summary.....	109
Chapter 4: Findings.....	110
4.0 Introduction.....	110
4.1 RQ1: What beliefs do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers hold about: learners' oral errors, the provision of OCF, and the sources of their beliefs?.....	110
4.1.1 PART ONE: Teachers' beliefs about students' oral errors.....	111
4.1.1.1 Teachers' affective attitudes towards students' oral errors.....	112
4.1.2 PART TWO: Teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF.....	113
4.1.2.1 Teachers' beliefs about the correction of oral errors.....	114
4.1.2.2 Teachers' beliefs about the explicitness of OCF.....	121
4.1.2.3 Teachers' beliefs about the correction of different error types.....	123
4.1.2.4 Teachers' beliefs about the sources of OCF.....	124
4.1.2.5 Teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF.....	125
4.1.3 PART THREE: Sources of teachers' OCF beliefs.....	128
4.1.3.1 Source One: Own Language Learning Experience.....	128
4.1.3.2 Source Two: Teaching Experience.....	131
4.1.3.3 Source Three: Teacher training programmes.....	131
4.1.3.4 Source Four: Personality.....	132
4.1.3.5 Source Five: Own Research.....	134
4.2 RQ2: How do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers provide OCF in classrooms?....	135
4.2.1 Do teachers correct oral errors?.....	136
4.2.2 How do teachers correct oral errors?.....	139
4.2.3 Which type of oral errors do teachers correct?.....	141
4.2.4 Who corrects oral errors?.....	144
4.2.5 When do teachers correct oral errors?.....	146
4.2.6 Summary.....	147
4.3 RQ3: What is the relationship between the OCF beliefs and classroom practices of a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers?.....	149
4.3.1 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about whether or not errors should be corrected.....	150
4.3.2 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about the explicitness of OCF.....	152

4.3.3 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the correction of different types of errors.....	155
4.3.4 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about the sources of OCF .....	157
4.3.5 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about the timing of OCF .....	159
4.3.6 Summary .....	161
Chapter 5: Discussion .....	163
5.0 Introduction.....	163
5.1 RQ1: What beliefs do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers hold about: learners' oral errors, the provision of OCF, and the sources of their beliefs?.....	163
5.1.1 The comparison of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' affective attitudes towards learners' oral errors .....	163
5.1.2 The comparison of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF.....	164
5.1.3 Teachers' beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected.....	165
5.1.3.1 Reasons for the teachers' beliefs about whether or not to correct errors .....	169
5.1.4 Teachers' beliefs about whether to correct errors explicitly or implicitly .....	174
5.1.5 Teachers' beliefs about the correction of different types of oral errors .....	176
5.1.6 Teachers' beliefs about whether self-, peer, or teacher correction is most effective	178
5.1.7 Teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF .....	179
5.1.8 The comparison of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' sources of beliefs.....	183
5.2. RQ2: How do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers provide OCF in classrooms?...	187
5.2.1 The comparison of the extent to which Iranian and NZ teachers corrected learners' oral errors .....	187
5.2.2 The comparison of the explicitness of Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF practices.....	194
5.2.3 The comparison of the type(s) of errors that Iranian and NZ teachers corrected.....	199
5.2.4 The comparison of the source of OCF in the Iranian and NZ contexts .....	203
5.2.5 The comparison of the timing of OCF provided by Iranian and NZ teachers.....	206
5.3 RQ3: What is the relationship between the OCF beliefs and error correction practices of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers? .....	208
5.3.1 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about whether or not errors should be corrected.....	209
5.3.2 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the explicitness of OCF.....	212
5.3.3 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the correction of different types of errors.....	217
5.3.4 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the sources of OCF.....	220
5.3.5 The relationship between beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the timing of OCF .....	222
Chapter 6: Conclusion.....	226

6.0 Introduction.....	226
6.1 Aims and methodology of my study .....	226
6.2 Summary of key findings.....	227
6.2.1 Teachers’ beliefs about oral errors, the provision of OCF, as well as the sources of teachers’ beliefs in the two contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL) .....	227
6.2.2 Teachers’ error classroom practices in the two contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL) .....	229
6.2.3 The relationship between teachers’ OCF beliefs and their error correction practices in the two contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL) .....	230
6.3 Contributions of my study .....	230
6.3.1 Contributions to empirical knowledge .....	230
6.3.2 Contributions to theoretical development .....	234
6.3.2.1 Deepening our understanding of teachers’ complex beliefs systems.....	235
6.3.2.2 Presenting a more comprehensive picture of the impact of various contextual factors on teachers’ OCF beliefs, practices, and the relationship between the two .....	238
6.3.2.3 Deepening our understanding of the alignment between teachers’ OCF beliefs and practices.....	241
6.3.3 Contributions to pedagogy .....	242
6.3.3.1 Recommendations for language teachers.....	242
6.3.3.2 Recommendations for teacher educators .....	244
6.4 Limitations of my study .....	246
6.4.1 Scope limitations.....	246
6.4.2 Methodological limitations .....	248
6.5 Directions for future research .....	249
6.6 Final remark .....	250
References.....	252
Appendices.....	270
Appendix A: Ethics Approval.....	270
Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet.....	271
Appendix C: Consent Form for Teachers (for interviews) .....	274
Appendix D: Consent Form for Teachers (for video recording).....	275
Appendix E: Consent Form for Students (for video recording).....	276
Appendix F: Letter to Head of Language School (NZ) .....	277
Appendix G: Letter to Head of Language School (Iran).....	278
Appendix H: Heads of Language Schools Consent Form .....	279
Appendix I: Background Information Questionnaire .....	280
Appendix J: Initial Interview (Elicitation Interview).....	282
Appendix K: Second Interview (Stimulated recall Interview).....	283
Appendix L: Classroom Observation Sheets .....	284

## List of Tables

Table 3. 1 Iranian participants' basic information.....	80
Table 3. 2 NZ participants' basic information.....	81
Table 3. 3 Data collection methods used to address each research question .....	81
Table 3. 4 Framework used to code the types of feedback .....	95
Table 3. 5 Types of students' oral errors.....	97
Table 3. 6 Key points assessed in teachers' beliefs (RQ1) and practices (RQ2) .....	99
Table 3. 7 Taxonomy of explicitness of OCF types (Adapted from S. Li (2010)) .....	101
Table 3. 8 Categorization of immediate vs. delayed OCF types.....	102
Table 3. 9 Categorization of reformulations vs. prompts.....	103
Table 3. 10 Comparison of data on belief interviews and classroom practices .....	104
Table 3. 11 Mina's beliefs and practices on correcting errors.....	105
Table 4. 1 Comparison of teachers' beliefs about how to correct errors .....	123
Table 4. 2 Comparison of teachers' beliefs about the correction of different types of errors ...	124
Table 4. 3 Teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF .....	128
Table 4. 4 Teachers' sources of beliefs about error correction.....	134
Table 4. 5 Frequency and percentage of corrected oral errors.....	136
Table 4. 6 Iranian teachers' correction of oral errors .....	137
Table 4. 7 NZ teachers' correction of oral errors .....	138
Table 4. 8 The explicitness of teachers' OCF practices.....	139
Table 4. 9 The explicitness of Iranian teachers' OCF practices.....	140
Table 4. 10 The explicitness of NZ teachers' OCF practices .....	140
Table 4. 11 Frequency and percentage of each type of OCF .....	141
Table 4. 12 Teachers' correction of different types of oral errors .....	142
Table 4. 13 Iranian teachers' OCF on different types of oral errors .....	142
Table 4. 14 NZ teachers' OCF on different types of oral errors .....	143
Table 4. 15 Teachers' use of the sources of OCF .....	144
Table 4. 16 Iranian teachers' use of the sources of OCF .....	145
Table 4. 17 NZ teachers' use of the sources of OCF .....	145
Table 4. 18 Frequency and percentage of immediate vs. delayed OCF.....	146
Table 4. 19 Iranian teachers' timing of OCF.....	147
Table 4. 20 NZ teachers' timing of OCF.....	147
Table 4. 21 Comparison of data on teachers' beliefs and classroom practices.....	150
Table 4. 22 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of oral errors.....	151
Table 4. 23 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of oral errors.....	152
Table 4. 24 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on the explicitness of OCF .....	153
Table 4. 25 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on the explicitness of OCF .....	154
Table 4. 26 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of different error types .....	155
Table 4. 27 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of different error types .....	156
Table 4. 28 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on the sources of OCF.....	157
Table 4. 29 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on the sources of OCF.....	159
Table 4. 30 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on the timing of OCF .....	160
Table 4. 31 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on the timing of OCF .....	160

## List of Figures

Figure 2. 1 Types and subtypes of OCF.....	17
Figure 2. 2 Language teachers' complex belief systems.....	30
Figure 3.1 Data collection procedure .....	88
Figure 3. 2 Error correction model.....	98
Figure 4. 1 Main parts of RQ1 .....	111
Figure 6. 1 Teachers' complex belief systems .....	237
Figure 6. 2 Micro-context factors related to an individual teacher .....	240

## **List of Abbreviations**

EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
OCF	Oral corrective feedback
CF	Corrective feedback
L2	Second language
NZ	New Zealand / New Zealander
CST	Complex System Theory

# **Chapter 1: Introduction**

## **1.0 Introduction**

This study is about a comparison of Iran's English as a foreign language (EFL) and New Zealand's (NZ) English as a second language (ESL) teachers' oral corrective feedback (OCF) beliefs and their error correction classroom practices, as well as the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and practices. The motivation to embark on this research was initially my interest in the area of OCF and the significant power that teachers have in facilitating L2 development, as well as my teaching experience in these two contexts and the differences I had witnessed first-hand. A second motivation was the absence of research that brings together OCF and teacher belief research across different instructional contexts such as Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL. Any insight into the ways that teachers from different instructional contexts provide OCF can make an important contribution both to the field of language acquisition and language pedagogy. That is, it can not only point to new areas of OCF research, but it may also help teachers to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Finally, my study was motivated by the absence of theoretical discussion of why there might be engrained differences between Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts in terms of teachers' OCF beliefs and practices.

As an English teacher of 13 years, I have taught English to students in both instructional contexts: EFL (in Iran) and ESL (in NZ). In my experience of both teaching and observing many classes in Iran and NZ, I was often struck by differences in how EFL and ESL teachers approached learners' oral errors. I noticed that some ESL teachers ignored most oral errors, whereas the EFL teachers seemed to attend to almost all oral errors that occurred in classrooms. Since my understanding of error correction in the EFL and ESL contexts was only based on personal random observations of the two contexts, there was a need to explore teachers' approaches to OCF in a more scientifically valid way.

In trying to find the reason for the differences, I had discussions with some Iranian and NZ teachers on how they viewed error correction. Most of the Iranian teachers I spoke to believed that it is important to correct oral errors in such a way that learners notice them; that is, by explicit correction. In contrast to this, some NZ teachers told me they believe fluency to be more important than accuracy and, even though they believe oral error correction to be necessary, they mostly choose delayed over immediate feedback in order to not interrupt the flow of the communication.

This further increased my interest in the area of teacher feedback to investigate the two instructional contexts and the field of teacher belief research to explore the role of teachers' beliefs about their classroom practices. I wanted to determine if and the extent to which Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers differed in their beliefs about the best way(s) to provide OCF, teachers' actual classroom OCF practices, and the relationship between their beliefs and OCF practices. The choice of the specific contexts – Iran and NZ – has been guided not only by my own teaching experience and anecdotal comments from some teachers in Iran and NZ, but also by the dearth of research that compares these two instructional contexts. The results of my study can help both Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers develop more awareness of their beliefs and OCF practices.

Any insight into teachers' beliefs and classroom practices can reveal factors that may facilitate or impede the effectiveness of OCF on L2 development. The outcome of this study can enable teachers to become more aware of the importance of OCF, the beliefs they hold on aspects of OCF, and how they approach oral errors in practice, which may ultimately benefit learners' L2 development. To underline the importance of the focus of my study, I consider first the theoretical explanations and empirical studies to argue for the effective role of OCF in L2 development, as it is central to understanding the ultimate value of OCF for L2 development. This is important because if research has shown that OCF is important for L2 development, it would seem important that teachers understand its facilitative role. As this understanding becomes part of their belief systems, they can become more aware and better equipped to provide OCF to learners. Otherwise, if teachers fail to understand the importance of OCF, it may lead them to believe that there is no value in providing OCF on learners' errors.



### **1.1. The effectiveness of OCF for L2 development**

In this section, I present first the theoretical discussion of why OCF can assist L2 development to establish the importance of research into teachers' OCF beliefs and error correction practices. Then, I review related studies to validate the theoretical explanations. Finally, teachers' beliefs about OCF are introduced as a moderating factor on the effectiveness of OCF.

Theoretically, Gass's (1997, 2018) framework of theories explains how OCF can allow learners to move across different consecutive cognitive stages in their processing of OCF to reach L2 development. When teachers provide OCF in response to learners' oral errors, learners can be equipped to notice the gap in their existing knowledge (Schmidt, 1990, 2001). From there, learners may analyse the received OCF input for understanding (Schmidt, 1990). When the input is understood, it can become intake (i.e. third stage). In the third stage, learners may match the received input (i.e. OCF) against their existing knowledge and make hypotheses about accurate usage (Chaudron, 1988). If the input they receive through OCF matches their already held language hypotheses, the hypothesis is further confirmed. However, if it differs, the hypothesis is rejected. With the rejection of a hypothesis, learners may then make a new hypothesis and test it against further input they receive (Gass, 1997, 2018). From there, learners should be able to produce accurate output (which is an indication of L2 development) (Swain, 1985, 1995). Thus, theoretically, OCF has the potential to assist learners in their language development processes and, thus is worth teachers' attention and provision. However, to validate if OCF can assist L2 development through various cognitive stages, as Gass's framework suggests, empirical evidence is needed. I now review earlier studies on aspects of OCF.

Empirically, many studies have explored the effectiveness of OCF in different contexts and found it to facilitate L2 development (e.g Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; S. Li, 2013; Mackey, 2006; Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000; Sheen, 2004; Yoshida, 2010). Most studies have looked at learners' immediate response to teachers' OCF (i.e. uptake) as an indication of how effective it is on L2 development (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Overall, literature on second language acquisition has made a strong case for providing learners with OCF in language classrooms. This

is because OCF can play a role in L2 development by providing learners with opportunities to receive comprehensible input, self-correct, and test their language hypotheses in production (e.g. Long, 1996, 2015).

Despite what the literature says about the effectiveness of OCF in leading to L2 development, there are a number of teacher, learner, and contextual factors that may facilitate or impede the efficacy of OCF in practice (D. Brown, 2016); one of which is teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF. Teachers develop and hold certain beliefs and opinions about various instructional practices concerning the provision of feedback, and the decisions they make in practice about 'how' and 'when' to provide OCF are often based on their beliefs (Arnett & Turnbull, 2008; Borg, 2003, 2011). That is, how teachers treat oral errors in class can be affected by the beliefs they hold regarding the importance and the best way to provide OCF. Thus, it is important to investigate teachers' beliefs about OCF to determine the extent to which they perceive it to be effective.

Most studies on OCF have focused on its effect on learners' L2 development by exploring the short- and long-term effects of receiving OCF on the acquisition of certain target language forms (e.g. Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). But there has been a limited amount of investigation into teachers' reasoning, rationales, perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs behind their OCF practices (e.g. Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Chaudron, 1988; Mori, 2011; Phipps, 2009). This line of research is important as it could contribute to a more comprehensive insight into OCF research (Mori, 2011). Potentially, it may also provide a window for teachers to become more aware of their beliefs, and to encourage them to reflect on their OCF practices and select the most effective feedback type(s) when correcting oral errors.

Therefore, in this study, I have explored teachers' actual provision of OCF and instead of focusing on the efficacy of OCF types, I have looked at the beliefs that teachers hold on aspects of OCF, and the extent to which those beliefs shape their error correction practices. Thus, the aim was to provide a more comprehensive understanding of what OCF types teachers use to correct oral

errors and why. In light of that, this chapter now provides an introduction to the beliefs that teachers hold about the importance and provision of OCF, teachers' actual error correction practices, and the relationship between those beliefs and practices.

## **1.2. Teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF**

Section 1.1 focused on the role of OCF in L2 development with reference to a brief overview of both theory and empirical studies and noted that the effectiveness of OCF may be moderated by factors such as teachers' beliefs. Teachers' beliefs refer to the thoughts and ideas that they have on how to teach effectively in class (Basturkmen et al., 2004). Theoretically, teachers' beliefs can be approached through Complex System Theory (CST) which considers beliefs as a complex, heterogeneous, open, and dynamic system (Feryok, 2010). Complexity in beliefs refers to the various components of teachers' belief system that may interact with one another, and cause changes in each other (Zheng, 2015). Beliefs are also considered dynamic because they may change and develop as a result of education and experience (Zheng, 2015). In addition, teachers' beliefs are co-adaptive which refers to the flexibility and interconnectedness of the components of teachers' belief system and the effect that they have on each other as one component changes. CST further underlines the role of context in forming beliefs and suggests that changes in context can lead to changes in beliefs and practices (Zheng, 2015).

However, to know if and how teachers' OCF beliefs can affect their classroom practices, it is important to consider the available research. A number of studies have examined teachers' beliefs about aspects of OCF and have at times reported noticeably different findings (e.g. Fallah & Nazari, 2019; Kaivanpanah, Alavi, & Sepehrinia, 2015; S. Li, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). For instance, with regards to whether oral errors should be corrected or not, some studies have found that teachers believe that it is effective to do so (e.g. Agudo, 2014; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). In contrast, other studies have revealed that some teachers do not perceive OCF to be effective for L2 development (e.g. Jean & Simard, 2011; Kamiya, 2014). Li's (2017) meta-analysis described learners and teachers' beliefs about aspects of CF and found that compared to learners, teachers were mainly reluctant to provide CF because of the possible

negative effects of OCF on learners' motivation. Also, S. Li (2017) found that some teachers mainly believed in using indirect CF types and ways to push learners to self-correct, and found most teachers to be against the idea of correcting all errors.

Overall, S. Li (2017) attributed the differences in teachers' beliefs about aspects of OCF to their teaching experience and the instructional context in which they find themselves. This may be because teaching objectives can differ across different instructional contexts and learners' language needs may also vary in different contexts. For example, given that ESL learners are in an English-speaking environment, ESL teachers may attend to developing learners' communication and cultural needs as well as focusing on improving grammatical accuracy. In contrast, in EFL contexts, because learners require a lot of exposure to target language forms and practice with using the language, EFL teachers may be more attentive to grammatical accuracy. These potential differences between instructional contexts may cause EFL and ESL teachers to use different strategies to correct oral errors. Therefore, it may be that teachers from different instructional contexts such as EFL and ESL hold different beliefs about OCF. To determine whether or not instructional context affects teachers' beliefs, this study investigates and compares Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF. Through this comparison, my study extends previous findings on teachers' OCF beliefs.

In addition, given the possibility that teachers' beliefs may affect their OCF practices (Arnett & Turnbull, 2008; Borg, 2003, 2011), it is important to further explore teachers' actual error correction practices. If teachers' beliefs can be affected by their instructional context, an important question that arises is whether or not context can also shape teachers' actual OCF practices. To address this, I now provide an introduction to what we know about the actual provision of OCF in classrooms and identify gaps in our knowledge of the provision of OCF.

### **1.3. The provision of OCF in classrooms**

While most of the earlier studies on OCF have investigated the extent to which it can facilitate L2 development, some studies have explored the distribution of OCF across different contexts

(such as EFL and ESL) (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Lyster, 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2000; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Rolin-Ianziti, 2006). Also, as part of their investigation on the effectiveness of OCF types, some previous studies have explored the distribution of OCF types across different EFL and ESL contexts (e.g. Agudo, 2014; Ammar & Spada, 2006; S. Li, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2004, 2006). The findings of these studies indicate that recasts (i.e. reformulations of learners' erroneous utterances) are the most frequent type of OCF mainly due to their implicit and non-obtrusive nature (Kamiya, 2014). This may indicate that, irrespective of the teaching context, teachers may mainly use more implicit OCF types such as recasts to correct oral errors. However, to determine if this is also the case in Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts, it is important to determine how teachers from the two contexts correct oral errors.

A number of studies have also explored the types of oral errors that teachers tend to correct (e.g. Ellis, 1991; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 2007; Lyster, 2001; Mackey et al., 2000; Sheen, 2006) and have found that teachers are more likely to correct morpho-syntactic (grammatical) errors followed by lexical errors. It may be that morpho-syntactic errors are the most frequently occurring errors in most contexts (Karimi & Asadnia, 2015). While we know that morpho-syntactic errors are more likely to be corrected than other types of oral errors in some language classrooms (Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Lee, 2008), it is important to determine whether instructional context affects the types of oral errors that teachers correct. That is, whether Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers differ in the types of oral errors they correct. It is important to know this because this understanding can provide a useful starting point for both Iranian and NZ teachers to reflect on their OCF beliefs and classroom practices and improve their practices by making more informed decisions related to oral error correction.

With regards to who corrects the oral errors in practice, studies are limited (e.g. Lyster, 2001, 2002; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). The findings show that teacher correction (as opposed to peer and self-correction) is the most frequently used source of correction for

several reasons: learners expect teachers to correct their errors (Hedge, 2001); teachers might believe that they need to show that they are the source of knowledge (Ellis, 2008); teachers may assume error correction to be their responsibility (Bitchener, 2012), and teachers may correct oral errors themselves as opposed to push for self-correction or encourage peer correction to save time in class. Therefore, it is important to explore whether or not instructional context can affect the sources of OCF (i.e. whether teachers from different instructional contexts differ in the extent to which they support teacher, peer, or self-correction). This is because any insight into the sources of OCF that teachers allow/encourage to correct oral errors can ultimately lead to a more effective provision of OCF.

As for the timing of OCF, studies have mainly looked at the effectiveness of immediate as opposed to delayed correction. The three studies (Arroyo & Yilmaz, 2018; S. Li, Zhu, & Ellis, 2016; Rolin-Ianziti, 2006, 2010; Vilček, 2014). that have specifically looked at teachers' timing of OCF found that while the teachers used both immediate and delayed OCF, they mainly delayed their feedback to avoid interrupting learners. Despite what these studies have found about when teachers tend to correct oral errors, they have each been conducted within one specific instructional context (Rolan-Ianziti, for example, explored French as a foreign language in Australia, and Vilček focused on EFL in Croatia). However, no comparison has been made of the timing of teachers' OCF practices across Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL instructional settings. If EFL and ESL teachers differ in the timing of their error correction practices, we need to determine if instructional context may have caused the difference between the timing in the two contexts. This understating may ultimately lead to more awareness and more effective provision of OCF in EFL and ESL classrooms.

Having discussed what we know and what we do not know about teachers' provision of OCF, it is important to explore and compare aspects of EFL and ESL teachers' oral error correction practices. Based on the literature and the variations in findings of different studies outlined above, it would seem that instructional context can affect the teachers' provision of OCF. A greater understanding about EFL and ESL teachers' provision of OCF may create a better awareness of

the role of contexts and allow different teachers to increase the effectiveness of their error correction practices and make better informed decisions in the classroom. Thus, my study explores and compares the provision of OCF across Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts.

As indicated earlier, teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF can shape their actual error correction practices. Therefore, there is a need to investigate the extent to which Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' OCF practices reflect their beliefs. Given the potential effects that instructional context may have on teachers' beliefs and OCF practices, it may be that, amongst other factors, instructional context can also play a moderating role on the relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices. The absence of research that compares the relationship between Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs and OCF practices underlines the importance of investigating this area.

The question now is, whether Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers are similar or different in the nature of the relationship between their OCF beliefs and practices. This insight can contribute to the knowledge of language teachers' OCF practices by focusing specifically on the comparison of the two instructional contexts. Although previous studies have found patterns of teachers' OCF practices, this study aims to extend the research by comparing Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts. In the next section, I briefly introduce what we know about the relationship between teachers' beliefs about oral error correction and their classroom practices.

#### **1.4. The relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices**

As previously discussed, teachers' beliefs can provide a basis for their classroom practices (Arnett & Turnbull, 2008; Borg, 2011). However, the extent to which teachers' beliefs shape their classroom practices still needs further investigation. While some studies have found a positive relationship between teachers' CF beliefs and classroom practices (Farrell & Kun, 2007; Kamiya, 2014; A.-Y. A. Kim, 2014; K.-R. Kim, 2005; Lee, 2004), others have found inconsistencies between the two (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Gatbonton, 2008; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Phipps & Borg, 2007). This difference in findings can be a result of factors such as teaching experience

(e.g. Borg, 2006; Tsang, 2004), time constraints (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2004; Mori, 2011), fear of learners' negative response to CF (e.g. Roothoof, 2014), or the unplanned nature of error correction (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2004) which may have impacted the application of teachers' beliefs to classroom practices. Also, there have been calls for further investigation by scholars (e.g. Borg, 2003; Mori, 2011) into what teachers think, know and believe, and the relationship of these mental constructs to what teachers do in language teaching classrooms. In addition, Basturkmen et al. (2004) and Basturkmen (2012) have pointed to the lack of research that investigates any mismatch between teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices, and factors that may underlie the mismatches.

## **1.5 Summary**

In sum, reviews of previous studies have shown gaps in the literature that require further investigation into teachers' beliefs about aspects of OCF, their error correction practices, and the relationship between the two. In addition to these gaps, my study has found limited theoretical explanation for why there might be differences between Iran's EFL and NZ ESL teachers in terms of their beliefs, error correction practices, and the link between the two. To contribute knowledge to these areas, my study sets out to explore the following research questions in two different instructional contexts:

**RQ1)** What beliefs do (a) Iranian EFL and (b) NZ ESL teachers hold on:

- i) learners' oral errors?
- ii) the provision of OCF?
- iii) the sources of their OCF beliefs?

**RQ2)** How do (a) Iranian EFL and (b) NZ ESL teachers provide OCF in classrooms?

**RQ3)** What is the relationship between (a) Iranian EFL and (b) NZ ESL teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices?



## **1.6 The overall design of the present study**

To answer the three research questions, this study employed an exploratory qualitative multiple-case study approach to explore and compare teachers' OCF beliefs, classroom practices, and the link between them, in two different instructional contexts. Most similar studies on teacher belief and classroom practices have used a qualitative approach (e.g. Haukås, 2015; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Kuzborska, 2011). An exploratory qualitative approach was appropriate for my study because qualitative research allows for greater insight into teachers' inner experiences, to determine how they form meaning and to discover as opposed to test variables (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Overall, qualitative approaches can offer much to teacher belief research as they can discover beliefs and their formation over time and in various contexts (Olafson, Grandy, & Owens, 2015). This is because a qualitative approach allows researchers to directly talk to teachers, explore their background information, and allow them to tell their stories (Creswell, 2013) and thus develop a more comprehensive picture of teachers' beliefs.

The study was conducted with a total of ten teachers (five Iranian and five NZ) in the two instructional contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL). The choice of the two culturally-different countries allowed for a detailed comparison to be made between two different instructional contexts (EFL and ESL). The teacher participants were initially asked to complete a background questionnaire before taking part in a semi-structured interview that investigated their beliefs about learners' oral errors, the provision of OCF, and the sources of their beliefs. Following that, the participants were observed twice during their classroom teaching to explore their actual provision of OCF. The participants then took part in a semi-structured interview in which they were shown recordings of their OCF practices and were asked to comment on them. The stimulated recall interview provided further insight into teachers' OCF beliefs and the reasons behind some of their practices. Finally, the data on teachers' OCF beliefs and their classroom practices were compared to determine the relationship between the two.

## **1.7 The outline of the thesis**

This thesis consists of six chapters. Following this introduction, in Chapter 2, I review both the theoretical foundations and related empirical studies. I start with an introduction to the concept of OCF (Section 2.1), before presenting the theoretical foundation of the study and explain the role of OCF in L2 development through Gass's (1997, 2018) framework of theoretical contributions (Section 2.3.2). Then, I review relevant previous studies to provide empirical support for Gass's model and the role of OCF in L2 development (Section 2.3.4). In the discussion in Chapter 2, I continue with the introduction of teachers' beliefs as a potential mediating factor that may moderate the effectiveness of OCF in L2 development (Section 2.4). Then, I present the theoretical perspective for teacher belief research through CST and Zheng's (2015) model of teachers' complex beliefs system (Section 2.5). After establishing the theoretical foundation for teacher belief research, I review earlier studies on teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF (Section 2.6), before presenting the sources of teachers' beliefs (Section 2.7). Given the aim of my study which focuses on both beliefs and practices, I then present related empirical studies that have explored the provision of OCF (Section 2.8). Finally, I review studies that have explored the relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices (Section 2.9), and discuss potential mediating factors that can affect the application of beliefs to classroom practices (Section 2.10). In the process of the review, I identify research gaps in the previous studies as they emerge. I conclude Chapter 2 with a listing of the study's research questions (Section 2.11).

In Chapter 3, I describe the research methodology of my study which includes a rationale for the research design (i.e. exploratory qualitative multiple-case study approach) (Section 3.2), an introduction to the two research contexts (Section 3.3), as well as a brief introduction to the research participants (Section 3.4). Then, I provide a description of data collection methods, and instruments (Section 3.5), the research process (Section 3.6), as well as the analytical stages used for the data (Section 3.7). Next, I discuss the pilot study that I used prior to the main data collection (Section 3.8), and issues related to trustworthiness (Section 3.9), and finally, I present the ethical considerations of my study (Section 3.10).

In Chapter 4, I present the findings of the study. This section is divided into three main parts: first, comparison of Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about learners' oral errors, the provision of OCF, and the sources of the teachers' beliefs (Section 4.1). Second, I present the description and comparison of Iranian and NZ teachers' classroom error correction practices (Section 4.2), then discuss the comparison of the relationship between Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF beliefs and practices (Section 4.3).

In Chapter 5, I discuss the findings with regards to the research questions and related previous literature. That is, I present the findings of each of the three research questions and discuss them with reference to related theoretical claims and previous empirical studies (Sections 5.1–5.3).

Finally, in Chapter 6, I summarise the key findings (Section 6.2) and discuss the study's contribution to research (Section 6.3.1), theory (Section 6.3.2), and pedagogy (Section 6.3.3). Finally, I identify the limitations of the study (Section 6.4) and suggest implications for further research (Section 6.5).

## **Chapter 2: Review of Literature**

### **2.0 Introduction**

This review of literature provides an in-depth account of four main areas: 1) introduction to the concept of OCF, its theoretical importance, and empirical support for its effectiveness (Sections 2.1–2.3); 2) introduction to the concept of teachers' beliefs as a mediating factors on the efficacy of OCF and a review of studies on aspects of teachers' OCF beliefs (Sections 2.4–2.7); 3) review of research on aspects of teachers' OCF practices (Section 2.8); and 4) review of research on the relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices (Sections 2.9–2.10).

Given that this thesis is about teachers' beliefs and practices on OCF, the chapter starts with an introduction to the concept of OCF in Section 2.1. In Section 2.2, I discuss the two types of language input, namely, positive and negative feedback, because one way to explain the role of OCF is through the argument of the necessity of negative evidence for L2 development. From there, I introduce OCF as a type of feedback that includes both positive and negative evidence, and argue that both positive and negative evidence can facilitate L2 development. Then in Section 2.3, I present arguments that support the importance of OCF in L2 acquisition, drawing upon theoretical perspectives (Sections 2.3.1–2.3.2) and empirical findings (Section 2.3.3–2.3.4). With regards to theory, I adopt Gass's (1997, 2018) framework of theoretical contributions and its five stages to argue for the importance of providing learners with OCF on their errors to assist their language development process. After discussing the importance of OCF theoretically and empirically, I argue for the mediating effect of factors such as teachers' beliefs about the efficacy of OCF.

Having introduced teachers' OCF beliefs as a mediating factor on the effectiveness of OCF (Section 2.4), I then define the concept of teacher belief in Section 2.4.1, and discuss the theory underlying teacher belief research on OCF (Complex System Theory) in Section 2.5. Next, I review findings of earlier studies on teachers' beliefs about key aspects of OCF (Sections 2.6.1–2.6.5), before introducing teachers' main sources of beliefs in Section 2.7.

After reviewing what the literature says about teachers' beliefs regarding the importance of and ways to correct oral errors, in Sections 2.8.1–2.8.5, I then review empirical studies on teachers' provision of OCF and factors other than beliefs (e.g. learners' language proficiency, teachers' native (NS) or non-native speaking (NNS) statuses, teaching experience, and teaching contexts) that can affect why teachers choose to correct oral errors the way they do.

Next, to determine the relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices, I review studies that have found alignment (Section 2.9.1) and non-alignment (Section 2.9.2) between teachers' CF beliefs and practices. Then, I introduce mediating factors (i.e. factors relating to learner, teacher, context, and methodology) that can influence the relationship between beliefs and practices (Section 2.10).

## **2.1 The concept of OCF**

Over the years, OCF has been defined numerously by different researchers (Chaudron, 1977, 1988; Ellis, 2006; S. Li, 2010, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey, 2006; Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017). OCF is generally accepted as “responses to learner utterances containing an error” (Ellis, 2006, p. 28). These responses can contain (1) an indication of occurrence of an oral error, (2) provision of the correct language form, (3) metalinguistic information about the oral error, or any combination of these three strategies (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006).

An OCF episode consists of at least three moves: an initial move containing a language oral error which triggers feedback, the feedback provided on the ill-formed language production, and a learner's optional response (Nassaji, 2007, 2015). The following example from Ellis (2009) shows the three moves included in an OCF move:

<i>Student: I will showed you.</i>	<i>[Initiation]</i>
<i>Teacher: I will SHOWED you?</i>	<i>[Feedback]</i>
<i>Student: I'll show you.</i>	<i>[Response]</i>

As the above example shows, the learner's initial utterance consists of an oral error which can at times simply be a mistake (i.e. performance errors such as slip of the tongue). The oral error then

triggers the teacher's feedback, and the learner then responds to the feedback by self-correcting the initial utterance.

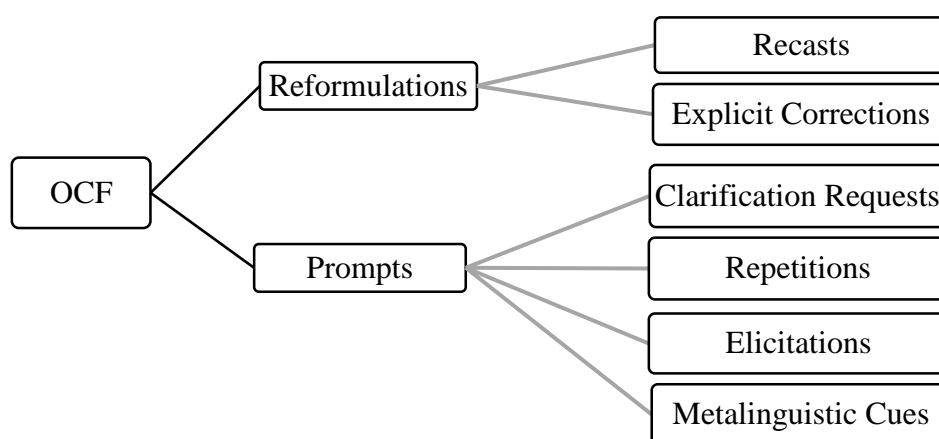
Lyster and Ranta (1997) introduced a taxonomy of OCF that included six feedback types; namely, recasts, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification requests, metalinguistic cues, and repetition. Their seminal work raised awareness of the range of OCF strategies that teachers use when correcting oral errors, and it later led to the development of several more comprehensive OCF taxonomies (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Lyster, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Despite the different classifications of OCF types by researchers (Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Panova & Lyster, 2002), there is a consensus that this type of feedback includes a range of different strategies that can be grouped into two main categories: reformulations and prompts (Lyster et al., 2013; Ranta & Lyster, 2007).

Reformulations refer to feedback types that rephrase erroneous utterances into the correct target language forms (Nassaji, 2007). Reformulations have also been referred to as 'input providing' since they provide learners with target language input (Ellis, 2009). Prompts, on the other hand, encourage learners to self-correct their ill-formed language forms, rather than providing the correct form for them. Since prompts do not provide learners with the correct language form, they are called 'output-prompting' (Ellis, 2009).

Reformulations can be further classified into *recasts* (feedback types that rephrase all or part of a learner's erroneous utterance into correct target language form) and *explicit corrections* (feedback types that not only indicate an error, but also provide learners with the correct target language form). Prompts include feedback types such as *clarification requests* (feedback types used to ask learners for more clarification), *repetitions* (feedback types that repeat the learner's ill-formed language production using a rising intonation), *elicitations* (feedback types that elicit the correct form from learners by repeating the utterance up to the error and pausing for the learner to self-correct), and *metalinguistic cues* (information that can function as a hint to allow the learner to

self-correct). Examples and definitions of the subtypes of OCF are further provided in the Methodology chapter. The types and subtypes of OCF are illustrated in Figure 2.1.

In concluding this section, OCF consists of a range of feedback strategies that are provided in response to learners' ill-formed language utterances. Nonetheless, the effectiveness of OCF is mostly attributed to the negative evidence it contains (S. Li, 2010), and consequently the role of the negative evidence in L2 development (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017).



**Figure 2. 1 Types and subtypes of OCF (Lyster & Saito, 2010)**

## 2.2 Negative and positive evidence

Language learners have access to two types of input; namely positive and negative evidence (Gass, 1997, 2018), which indicate to learners what is acceptable in the target language and what is not. More specifically, positive evidence refers to the well-formed language utterances that learners are exposed to which signal to the learners what is accepted in the target language. Negative evidence, on the other hand, is known as the information about what is incorrect about the attempt to use the target language. Positive evidence can be obtained through learners' exposure to either correct target language forms, or more simplified language input during interactions (Long, 1991). Learners' exposure to the modified and authentic target language forms allows them to hypothesise about the language. Positive evidence has been distinguished from positive feedback, because while positive evidence contains information about what is correct in the target language, positive feedback refers to the affirmation of the correctness of the language forms or the content

of the learners' utterance (Nassaji, 2015). In other words, positive feedback can act as affective and emotional support for learners (Ellis, 2008).

Negative evidence is also referred to as negative feedback (Schachter, 1991), and while the terms have been mostly used to refer to the same thing, they are different. Negative feedback is a term used in psychology, whereas negative evidence is mostly used in language learning. In addition, through negative evidence, the teacher not only indicates to the learner that an error has occurred, but also provides the correct language form for the learner. In comparison, negative feedback is the indication to the learner of the occurrence of an error without providing the correct form (Saxton, 2000).

Typically, OCF is considered as negative evidence (Doughty & Varela, 1998); however, Lyster (2001) and Lyster et al. (2013) argue that some feedback types (such as explicit corrections) can entail both positive and negative evidence, and some others (such as recasts) can be classified as positive evidence since they model the correct target language forms to the learners. In other words, "some types of negative feedback can overlap with positive inputs" (Carroll, Swain, & Roberge, 1992, p. 175). Therefore, OCF provides positive as well as negative evidence to learners, that is because, many cases of OCF types are not black or white, since there can be both positive and negative evidence in the same feedback move (Bruton, 2000).

Having explained the concept of OCF and its types and subtypes, I now turn to the question of whether or not OCF has the potential to facilitate L2 development.

### **2.3 Can OCF facilitate L2 development?**

The aim of this section is to discuss the potential of OCF to facilitate L2 development from theoretical and empirical perspectives and factors that may mediate its effectiveness. It should be noted that, while my study did not explore the effectiveness of OCF, in this section, I have referred to the effectiveness of OCF from the point of view of theory and empirical studies to highlight the importance of exploring this area of research. I begin with a discussion of theoretical



objections to the role of OCF in L2 development (in Section 2.3.1), followed by a discussion of theoretical perspectives (Gass's (1997, 2018) framework) that support the importance of OCF in leading to L2 development (in Section 2.3.2). Then, I review empirical studies that validate Gass's theory with regards to the role of OCF in L2 development (Section 2.3.4).

### **2.3.1 Theoretical case against the effectiveness of OCF in L2 development**

As previously mentioned, the role of OCF is closely related to the notion of whether or not negative evidence is necessary for L2 development (Nassaji, 2015). Consequently, there are two main theoretical perspectives on the role of OCF in leading to L2 development; the nativist and cognitive-interactionist views.

The nativist view (Krashen, 1981) states that language acquisition occurs because of an inherent language acquisition device, known as Universal Grammar (UG) (Chomsky, 1975). Nativists believe that learning occurs only when UG principles are triggered by being exposed to natural language use, thus only positive evidence is necessary and sufficient for language development (Cook, 1991). In addition, there are two extensions to the nativist position; 1) the monitor model (a model that suggests that learned knowledge can monitor language production), and 2) comprehensible input hypothesis (a hypothesis that claims that language development occurs when learners receive input slightly beyond their current level) (Krashen, 1985). These two models suggest that L2 learners acquire a second/foreign language the same way as children learn their L1, and thus there is no need for instruction and corrective feedback (Krashen, 1981; Truscott, 2007). In sum, the nativist view claims that negative evidence (or corrective feedback) is both unnecessary and detrimental to language development (Cook, 1991). That is because OCF not only interrupts the flow of discourse of comprehensible input, but also leads to explicit linguistic knowledge which fails to be converted to spontaneous implicit knowledge (Krashen, 1981).

However, this stance has been challenged both theoretically and empirically by the cognitive-interactionist view, which claims that positive evidence alone (i.e. exposure to language) cannot lead to L2 development, even if the input is comprehensible (Swain, 1985).

### **2.3.2 Theoretical case in support of the role OCF in L2 development**

In response to Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, the cognitive-interactionist view differentiates between first and second language learning in terms of who is learning the language and the context in which learning is occurring. Most L2 learners already have knowledge of their first language which can affect their cognitive abilities and how they learn an L2 (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In addition, L2 learners draw upon their cognitive and problem solving skills, in which OCF is essential (Schachter, 1991). The cognitive-interactionist view points to the significance and necessity of negative evidence (i.e. corrective feedback) in language acquisition (Gass, 1997, 2018; Swain, 1985, 1995).

The case for the role of OCF in L2 development is based on why and how the cognitive processing of explicit knowledge (OCF) can lead to modified output. Over the years, there have been a number of cognitive theories that have contributed to our understanding of L2 learning. These cognitive theoretical cases have explained both the nature of L2 knowledge and the cognitive processes of L2 learning.

L2 learning refers to the native-like acquisition of the language and the competence to use the knowledge to produce correct automated target language forms and structures (Ellis, 2009). However, a distinction can be made between the native-like level of target language knowledge referred to as 'acquired competence', and 'learnt competence' which occurs as learners pay conscious attention to target language forms (Krashen, 1985). It is believed that acquired competence uses implicit knowledge (i.e. intuitive language knowledge that learners cannot put into words), whereas learnt competence draws upon explicit knowledge (i.e. conscious language knowledge gained through instruction) (Ellis, 2009). There have been three main theoretical explanations for the transfer of learnt knowledge to acquired knowledge; strong interface (i.e.

explicit knowledge can be converted into implicit knowledge with practice) (DeKeyser, 1998), weak interface (i.e. explicit knowledge can become implicit knowledge only to some extent) (Ellis, 1993), and no interface (i.e. explicit knowledge cannot be converted into implicit knowledge) (Krashen, 1985, 2003). The role of OCF, which functions as explicit knowledge that learners receive on their ill-formed utterances, is to push learners to produce modified output, and through this practice, learners have the potential to develop implicit knowledge.

To theoretically argue for the facilitative role of OCF in the development of L2 knowledge, I draw upon Gass's (1997, 2018) framework of theoretical contributions, because it entails the clearest and most comprehensive discussions of the role corrective feedback as language input in L2 development (Ellis, 2008). The framework brings together many of the leading theories, such as Long's (1996, 2015) Interaction Hypothesis, Gass and Mackey's (2007) Interaction Approach, Krashen's (1982, 1985) Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, Swain's (1985, 1995) Output Hypothesis, and Schmidt's (2001) Noticing Hypothesis.

Gass's framework of theoretical contributions shows the five stages involved in learning a second language; namely, (1) apperception (the 'noticing' of the gap between what one knows and what is yet unknown), (2) comprehended input (gaining an understanding of the components of the input), (3) intake (a process of assimilation of linguistic material where learners compare the new knowledge to their prior knowledge and make generalizations), (4) integration (when input either leads to the development of explicit knowledge, or is stored in the brain for later use), and (5) output (the overt manifestation of the acquisition process where learners test their hypotheses in language production). OCF helps facilitate L2 development as long as it is processed across these five stages.

The role of OCF is to assist learners within each of these stages. Within the first stage; apperception, OCF is what draws learners' attention to noticing the difference between the input and their erroneous language production. Given that noticing of the gap pushes learners to learn, it is the first step toward L2 development (Ellis, 2008; Gass, 1997, 2018). In the comprehension

stage, the received OCF functions as comprehensible input that is slightly beyond learners' current level of proficiency ( $i + 1$ ). During the third stage, input, learners match the new information they have received in the form of feedback against their existing internalised grammatical rules, and then make hypotheses about the language (during integration). Finally, OCF provides learners with opportunities to interact with teachers and produce new linguistic output. This selective attention to language forms during the course of interaction assists L2 development (S. Li, 2018).

In addition to the above-mentioned model, Gass (1997, 2018) emphasises the role of interaction in language learning and claims that negotiation not only draws attention to language forms, but is also a way through which learners receive feedback on their language production. Likewise, Long (1996, 2015) introduced the Interaction Hypothesis and claimed that when learners are involved in negotiation of meaning they can benefit from the comprehensible input they receive.

However, it is important to acknowledge that this processing may be moderated by the presence of individual and contextual factors (D. Brown, 2016). This is further explained in the following sections. I now provide a brief overview of research that has tested the validity of the claims that OCF may facilitate L2 development.

### **2.3.3 Empirical evidence against the role for OCF in L2 development**

Research in second language acquisition has increasingly investigated whether and how OCF affects L2 development. Early studies on the relationship between OCF and L2 development (e.g. Chaudron, 1977, 1988; Mackey & Philp, 1998) cast doubt on the effectiveness of certain OCF types. For example, Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Loewen and Philp (2006) found recasts to be ineffective in leading to L2 development.

However, it is important to note that most of these results that point to the ineffectiveness of OCF are because of the studies' excessive attention to limited types of corrective feedback (recasts which are shown to be as effective as prompts) and grammar structures, methodological

shortcomings, and examination of only a limited number of languages (Ellis, 2008). Besides, most of these studies have explored the efficacy of OCF only in terms of learners' immediate uptake; that is, their immediate response to the feedback, as opposed to long term acquisition, and uptake may not be an appropriate measure of learning. Also, the efficacy of certain OCF types have shown to depend on factors such as learners' proficiency, the explicitness of the feedback, and the intensity of it (Nassaji, 2009; Philp, 2003).

#### **2.3.4 Evidence in support of the role for OCF in L2 development**

On the contrary, numerous studies have supported the effectiveness of OCF in leading to L2 development. Findings of these studies provide strong evidence for the five stages of Gass's framework of language development. With regards to noticing (stage 1), research has confirmed the link between the use of OCF types (mostly recasts) and subsequent L2 development (Mackey & Gass, 2006; Mackey et al., 2000; Philp, 2003). These studies provide evidence for the importance of OCF types as they reinforce learners' consciousness (i.e. noticing) of the gap in their knowledge to draw their attention to the target language forms (Long, 1996, 2015), and subsequently lead to L2 development.

With regards to input comprehension (Stage 2), numerous studies (e.g. Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Pica, 1994; Swain, 1995; Yang & Lyster, 2010) have confirmed the positive role of OCF in leading to comprehensible input, and, in turn, in L2 development. The results of these studies show the effectiveness of OCF in providing learners with feedback that functions similar to L1 feedback that is given to learners by caregivers; that is, comprehensible input (Mackey & Oliver, 2002). In terms of intake (stage 3), research (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) has shown that OCF can play an important role in allowing learners to engage in negotiation which leads to focusing on language forms, and consequently developing L2 proficiency. These studies show that OCF allows learners to self-repair (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and improve their L2 development.

As theoretically explained, a further advantage of OCF in language development is allowing learners to test their language production related hypotheses (Stage 4) and receive OCF on them if an error or communication breakdown occurs (Nassaji, 2015). Although in a limited way, research has shown the role of OCF in leading to learners' hypotheses testing and ultimately L2 development (Mackey et al., 2000).

In addition, OCF can assist L2 development by enabling learners to produce output, whether modified or new output (Stage 5). A wide range of studies have shown the association between OCF and learner output (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; McDonough, 2005; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002). The findings of these studies confirm the efficacy of certain OCF types (prompts) for L2 development by exposing learners to feedback that provided them with opportunities to produce modified output.

In concluding this section, there is value to be gained from OCF in an instructional context because OCF may facilitate at least explicit knowledge enabling modification of erroneous usage. However, despite the theoretical and empirical support for the effectiveness of OCF, as with other areas of L2 learning, there is the likelihood that individual and contextual factors may moderate the effectiveness of OCF in practice (D. Brown, 2016; Goo & Mackey, 2013; S. Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Nassaji, 2018; Wang, Yu, & Teo, 2018).

These moderating factors can be classified into three main groups; student, classroom, and teacher-related factors (D. Brown, 2016). In terms of student factors, in addition to learners' perceptions on OCF, their proficiency level may have an impact on teachers' choices of OCF; that is, teachers provide more OCF to advanced learners as opposed to beginner learners (D. Brown, 2016). Classroom factors that affect teachers' provision of OCF in practice include instructional context (e.g. immersion, EFL, ESL) and classroom size. With regards to teachers, a limited number of studies that have explored teacher-related factors have found that factors such as teaching experience, teacher education, and teacher training can mediate the effectiveness OCF (D. Brown, 2016). Also, teachers' reasons and beliefs regarding OCF, and the priorities that they

have on aspects of error correction are believed to impact the efficacy of their OCF practices (Chaudron, 1988; Mori, 2002).

Therefore, one mediating factor on the efficacy of OCF is the beliefs that teachers hold about the importance of OCF in facilitating L2 development and ways to deliver it. The choices that teachers make on ways to provide OCF are likely to depend to some extent on their beliefs about the role of OCF in L2 development and the feedback types they believe are most beneficial to students. Therefore, it is important to explore teachers' beliefs because if teachers do not believe in the efficacy of OCF, they are not going to think about providing it in the most effective way that is going to assist language learners. This provides the rationale for considering the role of the teachers, their beliefs, and their provision of OCF in facilitating learning and development of yet-to-be acquired linguistic forms and structures.

The question now is; what are teachers' beliefs about OCF and how can they influence their practices on the provision of OCF in classrooms. This is the focus of the next section.

## **2.4 The concept of teachers' beliefs**

In this section, I define the concept of teacher belief in Section 2.4.1, and discuss the theory underlying teacher belief research on OCF (Complex System Theory) in Section 2.5. Then, in Sections 2.6.1–2.6.5, I review findings of previous studies on teachers' beliefs about key aspects of OCF (Should oral errors be corrected? How should they be corrected? Which errors should be corrected? Who should correct errors? When should errors be corrected?). The aim of reviewing previous studies is to not only establish what we currently know of teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF, but also to argue that beliefs about OCF may vary from one teacher to another which can be attributed to how beliefs are formed; i.e. the sources of beliefs. From there, in Section 2.7, I introduce teachers' main sources of beliefs, namely, teachers' own language learning experience, their teaching experience, teacher training courses, education, personality, and context. Then, I argue that teachers from different instructional contexts may hold different beliefs about aspects of OCF which can ultimately affect the efficacy of OCF as it

can impact their classroom practices on the use of OCF. Finally, I introduce the gap in the literature and the need to explore the role of context in shaping Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs about the importance of OCF and its provision (Section 2.7.6).

#### **2.4.1 Definition of teachers' beliefs**

Teacher belief research deals with teachers' mental lives, that is; the unobservable aspect of teaching that includes what teachers think, know, and believe (Borg, 2003, 2009), also known as teacher cognition. The notion of teacher belief has been referred to by a diversity of labels, such as maxims (J. C. Richards, 1996), BAK (beliefs, assumptions and knowledge) (Woods, 1996), personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998), cognition (Borg, 2003), teacher expertise (Tsui, 2003), teacher awareness (Andrews, 2003), teacher thinking (Warford & Reeves, 2003), beliefs (Basturkmen et al., 2004), pedagogical knowledge (Mullock, 2006), teacher vision (Kubanyiova, 2012). The array of terminologies indicates the complex nature of the phenomena of beliefs.

In this thesis, I use the term 'teacher belief' to refer to statements that teachers make about "their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what 'should be done', 'should be the case', and 'is preferable'" (Basturkmen et al., 2004, p. 244). The term 'belief' is very commonly used in the literature and fits best with the method of interviewing participants as the term was an easily understandable concept for the participants.

It is generally accepted that beliefs influence classroom practices, and practices can ultimately lead to changes in beliefs (Phipps & Borg, 2009). The question now is; what theoretical case is there to explain why beliefs are important for shaping teachers' classroom practices including the types of OCF they provide in class?

#### **2.5 Theories underlying teacher belief research**

Complex System Theory (CST) (also known as Dynamic System Theory) forms the theoretical basis for my study, and has been applied to areas such as L2 development (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007; Feryok, 2010; Zheng, 2015), linguistics, bilingualism, and multilingualism



(Herdina & Jessner, 2002). The theory is one of the few proposed theories on teacher belief research that explains the multifaceted nature of teachers' beliefs about various aspects of OCF. The words 'complexity' and 'system' are indicative of specific components that can be applied in my study, and while complexity refers to a point between mechanistic predictability and complete unpredictability (Bak, 1996), system refers to a number of things that are so related that they form a united whole. Therefore, complex systems include various elements, which may individually be complex systems themselves, and that interact in different and changing ways (Zheng, 2015). Furthermore, CST explores systems as wholes rather than in parts (de Bot, 2008). Overall, CST highlights the dynamic nature of the interactions that exist between various sections of systems and aims to explain 'how the interacting parts of a complex system may give rise to the system's collective behaviour and how such a system simultaneously interacts with its environment' (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008, p. 1).

In the field of second language acquisition, CST has been used to theoretically explain teachers' beliefs about language teaching related issues (Feryok, 2010; Zheng, 2015). That is, language teachers' beliefs have been considered as a complex system, within which their beliefs, classroom practices, and contextual factors (such as instructional setting and curriculum requirements) interact with one another. The use of CST as the underlying theory for investigating beliefs, and in particular beliefs about OCF, can be explained in a number of ways.

First, according to CST, systems are heterogeneous and composed of various components and factors (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). In the case of OCF, teachers hold multidimensional beliefs about various language learning and teaching issues which are considered as heterogeneous systems that include beliefs about the role of OCF, types of OCF, aspects regarding the explicitness of OCF, types of oral errors, the sources of OCF, and the timing of error correction. In addition, these teacher beliefs may be either explicit or implicit, they may or may not be evident in teachers' classroom practices, and may also be either core or peripheral. These different types of beliefs constantly interact dynamically.

Second, systems are dynamic (de Bot, 2008) and likewise, teachers' beliefs about OCF and error correction are dynamic in nature and can develop in the course of education and teaching experience. Also, over time, due to experience, there may be changes in teachers' initially held beliefs with regards to error correction and new feedback practices may emerge. However, this development in beliefs is not only non-linear, but there is also interaction between all components of teachers' belief system. As for teachers' beliefs, there is dynamic interaction between beliefs about OCF, classroom error correction practices, and contexts. Complex systems such as beliefs are sensitive to initial conditions which can result in unpredictable changes in beliefs later on (Zheng, 2015). Also, EFL and ESL teachers' beliefs are constructed based on their EFL and ESL learning and teaching experience (Zheng, 2015). Because of the different past experience that EFL and ESL teachers have with language learning and teaching, CST would lead us to predict that the teachers from the two instructional contexts would consequently develop and hold varying beliefs regarding the importance and provision of OCF.

Third, systems are contextualised and co-adaptive, meaning that they influence and respond to changes that occur over time (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008), which is also known as the ecological perspective. In other words, any system experiences change over time, but at the same time maintains its whole as a system (Zheng, 2015). If, however, the system fails to cope with the environmental changes that occur it will fail to remain a united belief system. Also, because of the interconnectedness of teachers' beliefs systems, any change in beliefs, practices, or contexts can lead to changes in the others dimension of the system. In the case of OCF, the teaching context, the school's curriculum, the language school's policies with regards to error correction, and classroom dynamics are amongst the many factors that can create tensions with teachers' already held beliefs about OCF, and in order to maintain stability, teachers have to adapt their beliefs about how to correct errors despite these contextual changes (Zheng, 2015). Also, what can happen as a result of these tensions is that teachers may provide OCF in ways that diverge from their held beliefs.

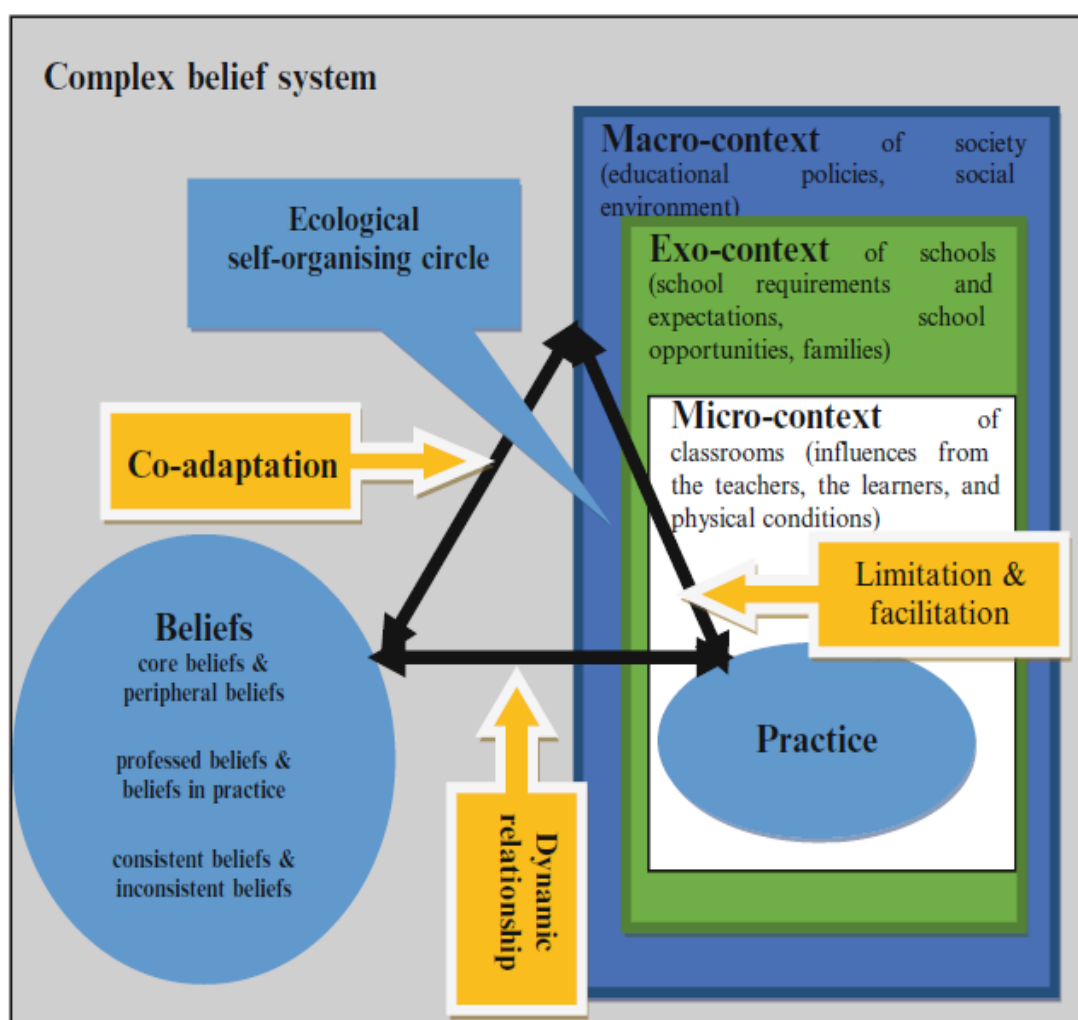
Finally, systems are open and self-organizing and can maintain a state of order if they receive input from others (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). When the system receives input from outside, it self-organises itself and adopts a preferred behaviour over other received input. That is, despite their already held beliefs about how to correct oral errors, teachers may encounter new information on OCF through teacher training or teaching experience which will ultimately lead to their choice of one or a few of those beliefs over all other beliefs. Additionally, teachers' beliefs about oral error correction are also a self-organised system that require reflection and awareness to maintain its dynamic stability (Zheng, 2015). One way for teachers to become more aware and reflect on their beliefs about OCF is to attach meaning to their OCF classroom practices by considering the different OCF types they know and their preferred types, which enables them to self-organise their belief systems.

In attempt to better capture the complexity and interpretive nature of teachers' beliefs, Zheng (2015) proposed the integration of CST and Interpretivism as the theoretical framework to explore teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. At the core of interpretivism is the idea that individuals interpret their own perceptions of the world, and its goal is to understand an individual's beliefs and experiences with the assumption that reality is subjective and constructed individually (Lather, 2006). The addition of the interpretivist approach allows for a more comprehensive exploration of teachers' beliefs as it centres on the view that understanding teachers' beliefs and classroom practices relies on the understanding of the teachers' interpretation of the perceptions and classroom behaviour (Zheng, 2015).

An interpretivist approach to exploring beliefs highlights the role of teachers' pre-existing beliefs which can act as filters through which teachers interpret new received information (Pajares, 1992). That is, new concepts such as beliefs about aspects of error correction, such as how and when to correct oral errors, will only become part of teachers' beliefs about OCF if they are congruent with their pre-existing beliefs; thus, input will only become intake if it has been filtered through teachers' existing belief systems (Pickering, 2005). The combination of CST and the interpretivist approach underlines the non-static nature of teachers' beliefs about various aspects of OCF, and

emphasises that beliefs and contexts are interconnected (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008); that is, the teaching context informs teachers' beliefs about OCF.

Zheng's (2015) model highlights the complexity of teachers' beliefs systems and shows how teachers' beliefs, practices, and contexts are interconnected dynamically. As shown in Figure 2.2, teachers hold a set of beliefs that can be categorised into three main groups; core and peripheral beliefs, professed beliefs and beliefs in practice, and consistent (compatible) and inconsistent (non-compatible) beliefs. These different types of beliefs co-exist in the teacher's complex belief system and they interact dynamically not only with each other, but also with the teacher's practices and contexts.



**Figure 2. 2 Language teachers' complex belief systems (Zheng, 2015)**

In addition, contexts can also further be categorised into macro-, exo-, and micro-context. Macro-context refers to the context of the society in which teachers are situated in (e.g. EFL or ESL) which includes factors related to the social environment and educational policies used in the context. The exo-context refers to the context of the school in which teachers work and includes a range of factors such as school requirements, school programmes, and students' families. Finally, the micro-context points to the classroom context and involves a wide range of factors related to the teacher (e.g. teachers' knowledge, preparation, relationship with learners), the learners (e.g. learners' language proficiency, their expectations), and the classroom (e.g. class time, its size, the text book). These three levels of contexts, and the various contextual factors related to them, co-adapt with teachers' beliefs and either hinder or facilitate the application of teachers' beliefs to classroom practices. That is, teachers' beliefs may or may not be applied to classroom practices depending on the interaction that exists between these mediating factors.

In conclusion, teachers' beliefs about OCF can guide their classroom corrective behaviour and determine the type and amount of correction, and the type of oral errors teachers correct (Milla Melero, 2017). Therefore, a question that arises is what beliefs do teachers hold with regards to the importance of OCF and ways to provide it? In the next section, I review earlier studies that have explored teachers' beliefs about various aspects of OCF.

## **2.6 Research on teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision OCF**

This section reviews findings of teacher belief research on aspects of OCF; thus, it looks at studies that have explored teachers' beliefs about the importance of and the ways to provide OCF, which is approached by answering Hendrickson (1978) five questions: (1) Should errors be corrected? (2) How should errors be corrected? (3) Which errors should be corrected? (4) Who should provide OCF?, and (5) When should errors be corrected? The aim of this section is to establish our current understanding of the beliefs that English teachers hold on these aspects of OCF.

### **2.6.1 Should errors be corrected?**

Literature shows that most teachers believe that error correction is beneficial (Leeman, 2007; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). There are a number of reasons that underlie teachers' support for providing CF (both oral and written). First, teachers believe that CF creates opportunities for learning which teachers have control over, as opposed to more learner-internal language learning processes (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). Second, teachers perceive that not only does CF assist learners to avoid making the same errors (Roothoof & Breeze, 2016), it also assures learners that they are using the correct target language form and prevents confusion with the language (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). Third, teachers consider CF to be effective because, if errors are left unattended, language learning process will be incomplete (Agudo, 2014). Fourth, some teachers support the use of CF because they believe that learners expect to be corrected (Farrell & Bennis, 2013). Finally, literature shows that some teachers consider error correction to be part of their responsibilities as teachers (Bitchener, 2012). This is the case in most findings of studies on teachers in EFL contexts such as Iran (e.g. Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018) because of their more traditional view towards the teacher's role in class as the primary source of knowledge (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015), and teachers' sensitivity towards errors (Karimi & Asadnia, 2015). In contrast to this however, a recent synthesis of teacher belief research on OCF (S. Li, 2017) shows that overall, compared to language learners, some teachers are not strongly supportive of providing CF (both oral and written) (Agudo, 2014; Al Shahrani, 2013; Bell, 2005; Davis, 2003; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Kamiya, 2014; Miranda-Calderón, 2013; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Schulz, 1996, 2001).

There are a number of factors that can affect teachers' beliefs about the importance of correcting oral errors. First, there is evidence to suggest that teaching experience can affect beliefs that teachers hold on the effectiveness of OCF. That is, more experienced teachers tend to value OCF more than novice teachers do (Kissau, Algozzine, & Yon, 2013; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). This is because less experienced teachers are more likely to fear the detrimental effects that OCF can have on students' motivation and emotions, and teachers may see OCF as a face-threatening act (Kartchava, 2006; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). Also, less experienced teachers tend to be affected

by the discrepancy between research findings supporting the provision of immediate OCF and their personal opinions about avoiding learner frustration and embarrassment as result of OCF (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010).

Second, the nature of the classroom task has shown to affect teachers' beliefs about the necessity of correcting errors. That is, teachers who conduct communication classroom tasks tend to value fluency and content over accuracy and therefore, believe that less errors should be corrected (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Wang et al., 2018) in comparison to teachers who value accuracy over fluency (Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014).

Third, teachers may be reluctant to provide OCF because of being preoccupied with learners' affective responses to the feedback (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Kamiya, 2014; Roothoof, 2014; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). In other words, teachers may fear that through providing OCF in response to learners' erroneous utterances, they are triggering negative emotions such as humiliation (Kamiya, 2014), embarrassment, unwillingness to speak, and frustration to their self-esteem (Miranda-Calderón, 2013).

Fourth, teachers may hesitate providing OCF because of their uncertainty of the effectiveness of CF (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). In other words, some teachers believe that CF is ineffective because it fails to eliminate errors completely and learners continue to make the same errors (Miranda-Calderón, 2013), and that it plays no important role in language learning through communication (Junqueira & Kim, 2013).

Finally, teachers seem to have distinct beliefs about language learning and error correction. Studies that have exclusively explored teachers' beliefs regarding the use of OCF (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015) found that teachers were more supportive of correcting errors compared with studies that examined teachers' beliefs about OCF as part of an investigation of their attitudes towards language teaching in general (Schulz, 1996). This may be because,

studies that specifically focus on OCF raise teachers' awareness on the issue and affect their beliefs regarding the importance of providing OCF (S. Li, 2017).

This is all to say that teachers hold different beliefs about the necessity and role of CF in L2 development. While teachers from different instructional contexts such as EFL (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015) and ESL (Junqueira & Kim, 2013) expressed contradicting beliefs about error correction, teachers within the same context have also expressed different beliefs regarding CF (Agudo, 2014; Demir & Özmen, 2017; Miranda-Calderón, 2013; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). In conclusion, it appears that depending on many individual and contextual factors, teachers' beliefs about OCF can vary from one teacher to another.

### **2.6.2 How should errors be corrected?**

Oral errors can be corrected in a multitude of ways depending on the aims of the task, and the theoretical and pedagogical perspectives of the teacher. One way to classify how oral errors should be corrected is to distinguish feedback types along an implicit/explicit feedback continuum (Ellis, 2001; S. Li, 2010).

Implicit feedback refers to the unobtrusive way of correcting an error without overtly signalling it to the learner, whereas explicit feedback involves explicitly bringing to learners' attention their ungrammatical language production. Metalinguistic information and directness are two factors that can determine whether a feedback type is more implicit or explicit. Feedback types (such as explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback) that involve metalinguistic information or directly inform learners about the correctness of their language production are considered as explicit. On the other hand, feedback types (such as recasts, elicitations, clarification requests) that lack metalinguistic feedback or are less direct are considered as implicit feedback (Yilmaz, 2013). In addition, S. Li (2013) defines explicit feedback as feedback moves that include rule explanation, whereas implicit feedback moves do not include such information. A second method to determine how oral errors should be corrected is to specifically look at the various types and



subtypes of OCF identified earlier in the literature (e.g. Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Nassaji, 2015).

Li's (2017) synthesis of studies indicates that teachers hold certain beliefs as to how oral errors should be corrected, and in general, most teachers favour recasts and implicit OCF types over more explicit ones (Agudo, 2014; A. Brown, 2009; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). This is mainly because, recasts are considered as indirect and less explicit feedback, and thus teachers and specifically novice teachers tend to value their use in correcting oral errors (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). Also, teachers believe recasts to be the most effective OCF type as they facilitate communication without interrupting learners, help save time as they are faster to deliver, and help to maintain not only learners' motivation through supportive classroom atmosphere (Yoshida, 2008), but also the attention of all the other students in class while the teacher provides feedback on a learner's error (Miranda-Calderón, 2013). In addition, teachers perceive implicit OCF types to promote learners' autonomy (Yoshida, 2010).

The differences between teachers' beliefs about how to correct oral errors can be attributed to their teaching experience as it can affect their perceptions about the explicitness of error correction. For example, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) and Junqueira and Kim (2013) both found that novice teachers were less in favour of providing explicit feedback (explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback) than more experienced teachers were. This is mainly because, novice teachers were more concerned with the harmful effects of explicit OCF types on learners' self-esteem. More experienced teachers, on the other hand, advocated a more balanced approach to the provision of explicit and implicit OCF types.

### **2.6.3 Which errors should be corrected?**

With regards to the question about which errors should be corrected, literature on CF shows that, in comparison, written CF can be more effective in correcting certain errors than OCF. This can be attributed to the more permanent nature of written CF as opposed to the fleeting nature of OCF (Bitchener & Storch, 2016). Also, some errors may be easier than others to correct because of

their rule-based structures (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2002), such as errors in past tense with regular verbs with added -ed which can be easier to treat than errors regarding the use of articles. While we know which errors are more treatable, we are yet to understand what teachers believe about these errors.

However, based on what we know in the literature, this question can be looked at from a number of different perspectives. Li's (2017) synthesis shows that, to address this question studies have looked at: 1) teachers' beliefs about the extent to which oral errors should be corrected (e.g. Agudo, 2014; Jean & Simard, 2011); 2) whether OCF should only be provided in response to global errors (errors that impede communication) as opposed to local errors (errors that don't impede communication) (Schulz, 1996); and 3) whether CF should only be used for errors that are the focus of the lesson (Jean & Simard, 2011).

However, this question can also be explored through teachers' beliefs about the type of errors that learners make based on Mackey et al.'s (2000) categorization of oral errors into four main groups: morpho-syntactic errors (errors in word order, tense, conjunction, and particles), phonological errors (errors in pronunciation), lexical errors (errors in the wrong use of vocabulary), and semantic errors (errors that result from learners' misunderstanding). Thus, the question explores what teachers think about these four types of oral errors, and whether or not teachers believe all these errors should be valued and corrected similarly. Studies that have explored teachers' beliefs about the correction of different types of oral errors revealed different results; that is, while some teachers feel strongly about the importance of correcting morpho-syntactic errors (Al Shahrani & Storch, 2014; Evans, Hartshorn, & Tuioti, 2010; Méndez & Reyez, 2012; Sluman, 2015), others view pronunciation errors (Aravena, 2015; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015) as the most important oral errors that require treatment.

Cáceres Aravena's exploration of 28 EFL teachers in Chile showed that most teachers consider pronunciation and vocabulary errors to be more important since correction of these errors allows learners to achieve oral language proficiency. In contrast, Méndez and Cruz's investigation of

EFL teachers in Mexico revealed that most teachers strongly value the importance of correcting morpho-syntactic errors, followed by pronunciation errors, then lexical errors, and finally semantic errors. These findings suggest that some teachers are more concerned with errors in language structure and ways to prevent and correct linguistic errors as opposed to errors in semantics and meaning. Likewise, Sluman's (2015) case study on an ESL teacher in England found that while the teacher expressed his willingness and concern to correct morpho-syntactic errors, he disagreed with the necessity of correcting pronunciation errors. This is because, according to the teacher, OCF on grammatical errors can benefit all other students in the class, whereas feedback on pronunciation errors are more individual to each learner.

Similarly, in the written context, teachers mainly prioritised correcting grammatical and structural errors (Alshahrani & Storch, 2014; Lee, 2008). In an investigation of 26 EFL teachers in Hong Kong, Lee found that while most teachers acknowledged the importance of correcting errors in content, they stressed the importance of attending to grammatical and lexical errors first due to limitations in their time and energy. Overall, these studies suggest that the type of error can affect teachers' perceptions about the importance they attribute to correcting the error.

#### **2.6.4 Who should provide OCF?**

This question looks at the sources of OCF, which can be the teacher, peers, or the language learner. The limited studies on teachers' beliefs about the sources of OCF have found that self-correction is the most valued source of feedback among teachers (Agudo, 2014; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Melketo, 2012), because of their belief that it helps reduce learners' anxiety during class and creates more learner autonomy (Agudo, 2014).

In addition, literature shows that some teachers do not hold a positive attitude towards peer correction and instead value teacher correction (Agudo, 2014; Aravena, 2015; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Méndez & Reyez, 2012). This can be attributed to different factors; first, teachers may believe that, as authorities of the class, they are responsible for providing error correction on learners' errors (Al-Bakri, 2016; Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Méndez & Reyez, 2012; Rahimi &

Zhang, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). Second, teachers may perceive peer correction to not only be ineffective since learners may not have the required knowledge to correct each other's errors, but also detrimental to the relationship between learners (Méndez & Reyez, 2012) as learners may consider peer correction as criticism (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015). Third, teachers believe that peer correction may increase learner anxiety (Agudo, 2014; Aravena, 2015).

With regards to self-correction, research shows inconsistent results. For example, Lee's (2004) study on teachers' beliefs about written CF found that teachers initially claimed error correction to be part of their responsibilities in class. At the same time, teachers also stated that learners should learn to self-correct. To clarify the contradictory beliefs about who should correct errors, the teachers explained that because of learners' inability to locate and correct errors, they have to correct errors for them. Teachers' uncertainty about supporting learners' self-correction can be due to their concerns about achieving their immediate goal of assisting learners as opposed to the more long term goal of promoting self-correction (Lee, 2004). Similarly, teachers in Méndez and Reyez's (2012) study initially claimed to value learner self-correction over peer correction; however, during the interviews, the teachers rated self-correction as their least proffered source of feedback and expressed concerns with learners' lack of awareness to correct their own errors.

Overall, there is insufficient literature on teachers' beliefs about the sources of OCF which points to the need to further investigate this area of research (S. Li, 2017). If teachers' beliefs about who should correct oral errors do indeed affect their use of OCF, in order to provide the most effective feedback on learners' errors, the gaps in this area need to be addressed.

#### **2.6.5 When should errors be corrected?**

This question concerns the timing of OCF and refers to the point in time when learners' oral errors are corrected, which can be either immediate (i.e. oral errors are corrected immediately after they occur) or delayed (i.e. oral errors corrected later at some point in class).

Most of the previous studies on teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF suggest that teachers are hesitant to correct errors immediately as they occur (Bell, 2005; A. Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Kartchava, 2006; Méndez & Reyez, 2012; Rahimi, Fallahi, & Samigorganroodi, 2013; Roothoof, 2014; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). One reason for teachers' doubts for immediate correction of oral errors lies in their beliefs that immediate correction can reduce learners' self-confidence and damage their self-esteem (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015). Also, teachers assume that by correcting oral errors at the end of the task, they can prevent interrupting learners and provide CF both individually and as a group (Aravena, 2015; Méndez & Reyez, 2012).

The literature has identified a number of factors that attribute to teachers' beliefs about the timing of CF. It can firstly be explained by teachers' educational backgrounds; that is, teachers who have previously completed a language acquisition course are more likely to prefer delayed feedback over immediate OCF, compared to teachers who have not completed the course (Kartchava, 2006). This is because second language acquisition theories view immediate OCF desirable and facilitative as it allows learners to focus on form (S. Li et al., 2016). Secondly, teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF seem to depend on their view towards the type of error (Roothoof, 2014). According to Roothoof's study, teachers believe that oral errors that impede communication need to be corrected immediately, whereas correction of errors that don't impede communication can be delayed. In addition, teachers believed that immediate OCF can raise learners' negative emotions. Thirdly, teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF can stem from their teaching experience (Bell, 2005; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). For example, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) found that while experienced teachers were more supportive of and flexible towards immediate OCF, novice teachers claimed to be more hesitant towards immediate correction. The novice teachers expressed their fear of learners' emotional reactions towards being corrected immediately as their main reason behind their belief.

This leads us to the conclusion that there are differences across teachers in terms of their beliefs about CF, and these variations influence the effectiveness of error correction practices and should

be accounted for in researching CF (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012). The differences in teachers' beliefs about aspects of OCF can be attributed to the sources of their beliefs. That is, given that teachers' beliefs are formed gradually over the period their career and stem from a range of sources (Farrell & Bennis, 2013), it is likely that beliefs can differ from one teacher to another. Hence, the next section focuses on this issue.

## **2.7 Sources of teachers' beliefs**

Over the years, many scholars have identified teachers' main sources of beliefs about various language classroom related issues (D. Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2007; Richardson, 1996). The main sources of teachers' beliefs can be listed as: teachers' own language learning experience, teachers' teaching experience, teacher training courses, teachers' own educational background, teachers' personalities, and context. As findings suggest that teachers' own learning and teaching experiences are the principal sources of their beliefs (Agudo, 2014; Al-Bakri, 2016; Zheng, 2009), these two sources are discussed first (Sections 2.7.1–2.7.2). Then, teacher training courses (Section 2.7.3) and teachers' educational background (Section 2.7.4) are presented as other potential sources of beliefs before reviewing studies that have investigated the effect of personality as an indicator of teachers' beliefs (Section 2.7.5). Finally, context is introduced as a moderating factor and source that can shape teachers' beliefs and practices on OCF (Section 2.7.6).

### **2.7.1 Teachers' own language learning experience**

Literature shows that language teachers' beliefs are mainly rooted in their own language learning experience as young learners (Phipps & Borg, 2007). Beliefs that stem from one's own language learning experience are known to be powerful indicators of teachers' current beliefs (D. Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992). This is because such beliefs are often the result of extensive hours of classroom observation, a notion known as 'the apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975). That is, by being exposed to their own teachers' classroom behaviour and beliefs, they tend to repeat or resist the adoption of those behaviours as they become teachers themselves. For example, if teachers found particular CF strategies effective or ineffective at the time of their own

language learning experience, they tend to replicate or reject those strategies respectively (Numrich, 1996).

Also, beliefs that stem from teachers' own learning experience not only filter new experience and information that teachers receive (Tillema, 1994), but they can also outweigh the effect of teacher education on teachers' classroom practices (Phipps & Borg, 2007). For example, if teachers, during their years of being a student, observed particular OCF practices that they liked or disliked, they tend to form 'anti-and pro-role models' (Erkmen, 2010) of their teachers, and decide on what OCF practices to adopt in the future.

### **2.7.2 Teachers' language teaching experience**

As one of the two most influential sources of teachers' beliefs, their own language teaching experience has been a recurrent theme in this area of research. It is believed that teachers' beliefs are shaped in the classroom (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981); that is because, during the course of teaching, teachers' beliefs are evaluated, modified, or even changed (Richardson, 1996). One way that this change can occur is that teachers substitute their pre-existing personal beliefs with those that are more driven from experience and trial and error classroom practices. Literature shows that most teachers attribute their beliefs mainly to their teaching experience (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Evans et al., 2010; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kissau et al., 2013; Mellati, Fatemi, & Motallebzadeh, 2013; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). In fact, some researchers (J. C. Richards & Lockhart, 1994; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981) suggest that teachers' teaching experience may be the main source of their beliefs regarding various classroom related practices, one of which is error correction. That is because, many teachers may not be willing to break an already established classroom routine which they perceive as being successful (Farrell, 2013).

### **2.7.3 Teacher training courses**

Teacher training courses are considered to be a source of teachers' beliefs. During the course of the training, teachers' pre-established beliefs can be challenged, strengthened, modified, and even substituted (Borg, 2011). This is because, through training, teachers become more aware of their

beliefs and can develop new ways of thinking that may contradict with their initially held beliefs (Borg, 2011). Nonetheless, previous studies reveal contradictory results as to whether or not teacher training courses actually change teachers' beliefs.

Several studies provide evidence in support of the role of teacher training programmes in changing teachers' (pre-and in-service teachers) beliefs (Busch, 2010; Evans et al., 2010; Kissau et al., 2013; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Pajares, 1992; Taddarth, 2017; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). These studies suggest that beliefs are flexible and can develop and change in the course of teacher education. For example, Vásquez and Harvey (2010) explored ESL student teachers' beliefs prior and after a second language acquisition university course in the U.S. Data were collected through interviews, questionnaires, and journal entries that teachers were asked to record their thoughts in. The results revealed that prior to the course, teachers were noticeably concerned with affecting learners negatively with OCF. However, at the end of the course, teachers reported a decreased attention to the affective dimension of error correction, and instead adopted a more comprehensive understanding and appreciation of the role and importance of OCF.

Nonetheless, some studies reported little or no relationship between teacher training and changes in teachers' stated beliefs (Kagan, 1992; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock, 2001; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Richardson, 1996; Urmston, 2003). There are a number of reasons that attribute to the ineffectiveness of teacher education in changing or shaping teachers' beliefs (Taddarth, 2017). First, teachers' initially held beliefs that stem from their own language learning experience affect the outcome of teacher education (Agudo, 2014), in that student teachers tend to imitate their own teachers' teaching approaches instead of applying the content of teacher education programmes (Lortie, 1975). For example, if teachers experienced receiving indirect OCF as language learners, they tend to form certain beliefs about how errors should be corrected. These beliefs may in turn act as filters through which new information that teachers receive during teacher education can be processed, accepted, and/or rejected, and consequently they may reject ways of correcting errors more explicitly.



Second, pre-service teachers' lack of teaching experience can prevent them from making a link between their beliefs and practices; thus, teacher education fails to create a change in novice teachers' beliefs (Richardson, 1996). Third, culture can strongly influence the process of new information (Pajares, 1992). For example, because of cultural influences such as low tolerance to errors in class, some teachers may not be convinced by certain OCF research findings that are presented to them during teacher training. This fails to change their already held beliefs (MacDonald, Badger, & White, 2001). Fourth, teachers' lack of motivation either because of the association of the teacher training course content to previous negative experience, or environmental distracting factors, can impact on the outcome of the course (Hunzicker, 2004). Fifth, the alignment of teachers' existing beliefs with the content promoted in the course will not lead to any significant changes in their beliefs (Borg, 2005). Finally, teachers' individual differences can be the reason for the ineffectiveness of teacher training courses to cause a change in teachers' beliefs (Taddarth, 2017).

#### **2.7.4 Teachers' education background**

As part of the process of becoming language teachers, some may complete related university degrees, conduct personal research, or self-study principles of language learning and acquisition which can affect their beliefs. Teachers may draw upon their understandings of second/foreign language learning research to support their choice of classroom practices (Farrell, 2013). For example, if teachers have specifically studied the field of language learning and teaching, they may be aware of the role and importance of explicit teacher feedback in leading to L2 development. Therefore, it is likely that they would value more explicit OCF types such as explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback over more implicit types such as recasts in correcting students' oral errors. Findings show that while some teachers attribute their beliefs about CF to their educational background and own research (Evans et al., 2010), others reject the effectiveness of their education in shaping their beliefs about CF (Al-Bakri, 2016).

Due to the paucity of studies on the effect of teachers' educational background in shaping their OCF beliefs, more research is needed to generate knowledge in this area. In comparison, more research has been done into the role of teachers' personalities on forming their beliefs.

#### **2.7.5 Teachers' personalities**

Language teaching requires not only knowledge of what to teach, but also an understanding of how to teach and how to provide effective feedback on oral errors. Teachers differ considerably in the extent of their understandings of how to provide OCF and as a result, personality can be an important predictor of their beliefs (Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008). Personality refers to "an individual's features that account for fixed patterns of emotion, behaving, and thinking" (Shabani & Ghasemian, 2017, p. 5). Teacher's personalities account for their inner-qualities that are evident in their expression of values, beliefs, classroom behaviour, and attitude (Stronge, Tucker, & Hindman, 2004).

Previous studies have indicated that teachers' personalities are strongly relevant to their language learning and teaching practices (Gibbons, 2003). In other words, teachers' personalities are known to shape their beliefs regarding various language teaching aspects (Farrell, 2013; Poulou, 2007). This is to say that the more teachers perceive themselves as having a particular personal characteristic, the more likely they are to implement that characterisation in classroom practice (Poulou, 2007; J. C. Richards & Lockhart, 1994). For example, teachers' personality traits, such as being extrovert or introvert, can influence their classroom behaviour in various ways, such as their interaction with learners, their use of instructional strategies, and learners' learning experience in the classroom (Arif, Rashid, Tahira, & Akhter, 2012; Behnam & Bayazidi, 2013).

In the case of oral error correction, teachers may prefer a particular OCF type because it corresponds to their personality. Research (e.g. Keshavarzi & Amiri, 2016) has shown that different personality factors affect teachers' provision of CF moves. The results of Keshavarzi and Amiri's study showed that both extrovert and friendly teachers tend to value CF more than

introvert teachers. On the contrary, more anxious teachers tend not to provide as much CF as other teachers, which can be due to their higher inner stress levels as individuals.

#### **2.7.6 Learning and teaching context**

Context refers to factors in the teaching environment that can affect the teaching and learning process of learners, such as country, type of the instructional context (such as EFL and ESL), and language school's curriculum requirements. Teachers' beliefs about various language teaching issues and OCF practices in particular are not context-free (Zheng, 2015), but rather context-specific (Pajares, 1992). In addition, teachers' beliefs about OCF practices and teachers' own language learning and teaching contexts are 'coupled' (D. L. Freeman & Cameron, 2008), which refers to the interconnected and co-adaptive relationship between beliefs and contexts (Zheng, 2015). There is also evidence to suggest that language of instruction used within each context affects teachers' beliefs about teaching strategies and focus in class (Kissau et al., 2013). Therefore, any investigation of teachers' beliefs and practices in isolation of the context will undoubtedly create flawed understanding of both beliefs and practices (Borg, 2006).

The EFL and ESL context, while sharing commonalities, differ in their view towards language, its role, and the effectiveness of language instruction (Kartchava, 2016). Also, it is argued that EFL contexts are more focused on accuracy than ESL contexts (Bitchener & Storch, 2016). This is to say that it is likely that different teachers may hold a diverse range of beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF (Milla Melero, 2017).

For example, most studies on EFL teachers (Agudo, 2014; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018) suggest that EFL teachers value grammatical accuracy and the provision of OCF in language classrooms. On the other hand, most studies on ESL teachers (Jean & Simard, 2011; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014) show that some ESL teachers tend not to hold strong beliefs about correction of all/most oral errors. The results of these studies may lead us to predict that teachers who teach in different instructional contexts are likely to hold varying beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF. For instance, Rahimi

and Zhang (2015) compared the results of their study on Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs about OCF with findings of Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study on ESL teachers in the U.S. While Iranian EFL teachers in Rahimi and Zhang's study valued the use of OCF in response to learners' errors, ESL teachers in Junqueira and Kim's study did not believe in the effectiveness of OCF. Through comparison of the findings of the two studies, Rahimi and Zhang (2015) proposed that context influences teachers' beliefs about OCF.

A number of studies have specifically examined teachers' beliefs about CF (both oral and written) in more than one context (e.g. Milla Melero, 2017; Schulz, 2001). Schulz (2001) compared both teachers and students' beliefs regarding CF in the two countries of Colombia and the U.S. Using a questionnaire that was administered to students and teachers from both countries, Schulz concluded that while there were discrepancies between what teachers and students felt about CF, most teachers agreed on the effective role of CF in L2 development. Nonetheless, Colombian teachers seemed to be more supportive of the role of OCF than the U.S. teachers.

In a study that compared teachers with different nationalities within the same context, Demir and Özmen (2017) explored teachers' beliefs from two countries (Turkey and the U.S.) that were teaching university courses within the same instructional context (Turkish EFL setting). Using interviews and classroom observation, the researchers investigated Turkish non-native English-speaking teachers and American native English-speaking teachers' beliefs about OCF. The researchers concluded that on the one hand, native speaking teachers varied in their beliefs about the necessity of correcting oral errors, with some teachers supporting the usefulness of OCF in informing learners about their errors and helping them in preventing the re-occurrence of the error. In contrast to this, some teachers questioned the effectiveness of OCF by stating that it can be discouraging to learners and they may end up making the same error over and over again. On the other hand, non-native English teachers mostly agreed that OCF is not only effective for language learning, but also necessary. The teachers claimed that OCF prevents fossilization of oral errors and learners are able to learn from their errors and become self-aware.

Overall, research has shown that teachers' beliefs are affected by contextual factors such as the instructional context, curriculum requirements, resources, and institutional guidelines (Al-Bakri, 2016; Alshahrani & Storch, 2014; Borg, 2003; Johnson, 1996; Lee, 2008). Therefore, it is important to consider the context in any research on teachers' beliefs and practices (Al-Bakri, 2016; Borg, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; S. Li, 2013; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Nonetheless, there appears to be a gap in the existing literature on teacher beliefs about OCF that situates OCF in a specific context, as previous studies are mainly 'acontextual' and non-social (Goldstein, 2006), that is, the effect of context on beliefs and practices is not taken into consideration (Lee, 2008). Therefore, this study aimed to address this gap in the literature by specifically investigating the role of context in teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF across two different instructional contexts (refer to the Methodology chapter for a brief comparison of the two contexts).

Because this is a comparative study, it looks at the beliefs that teachers hold with regards to the importance and provision of OCF in the context of two different countries. In my study, context refers to EFL in Iran and ESL in NZ. The choice of the specific countries – Iran and NZ – has been (as mentioned in the Introduction chapter) guided by my own teaching background in the two countries, as well as the lack of research that has compared the beliefs of teachers from the two countries on OCF. This is because most studies on OCF have looked at L2 English or L2 French in Canada or the U.S. (Dilāns, 2016).

Having discussed what the literature says about teachers' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF and ways to correct oral errors, and the potential role of beliefs in shaping teachers' error correction practices, in the next section the aim is to explore what literature indicates about teachers' provision of OCF and factors other than beliefs (e.g. learners' language proficiency, teachers' native (NS) or non-native speaking (NNS) statuses, teaching experience, and teaching contexts) that can influence why teachers choose to correct errors the way they do. Similar to the previous section on beliefs, the argument is mainly guided by Hendrickson's (1978) five questions

so that a comparison can be made between teachers' beliefs (RQ1) and their classroom practices (RQ2) and this will set the ground for RQ3 which compares teachers' beliefs and classroom practices on OCF.

## **2.8 Research on teachers' OCF classroom practices**

In this section, I review earlier studies to identify the ways that teachers have been shown to correct oral errors in class. While I have referred to Hendrickson's (1978) questions, the original wording of the five questions has been slightly modified for the context of this research; to better represent what we currently know about aspects of teachers' OCF practices, as opposed to what literature says about how their OCF practices 'should' be.

### **2.8.1 Do teachers correct errors?**

In considering whether teachers correct errors or not, literature shows that CF in language classrooms ranges from high frequency (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Lochman, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Yoneyahm, 1982) to low frequency (Iwashita, 2003; Mackey, Oliver, & Leeman, 2003; Oliver & Mackey, 2003). Apart from the potential role of beliefs about teachers' OCF practices that was previously discussed, studies have identified a number of factors that can influence the amount and frequency of OCF moves that teachers provide: learners' language proficiency levels (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018), teachers' NS/NNS statuses (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010), teachers' teaching experience (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Mackey, Polio, & McDonough, 2004; Polio, Gass, & Chapin, 2006), and teaching context (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Milla & Mayo, 2014).

Studies that have explored the role of learners' language proficiency levels on the extent to which teachers correct oral errors have reported contrasting results (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). Fu and Nassaji (2016) found that teachers correct more oral errors with advanced learners than with lower level learners, because higher level learners produce more target language forms on which they receive more OCF. In contrast, both Karimi and Asadnia (2015) and Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018) revealed that Iranian

EFL teachers corrected more oral errors in lower level classes than higher level classes, as teachers were concerned with preventing the fossilization of errors at low levels (Karimi & Asadnia, 2015) and were aware of higher level learners' emotional response to OCF (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). Overall, these studies demonstrate that learners' proficiency levels can at times moderate teachers' decisions about whether or not to correct errors, one way or another.

In addition, few studies have indicated that teachers' NS/NNS statuses (i.e. whether or not they are native speakers of the target language they teach) can affect the extent to which they correct errors (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Demir & Özmen, 2017; Díaz, 2009; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Han, 2017; Hyland & Anan, 2006). Most of these studies show that NNS teachers provide more CF than NS teachers do, as it is believed that NS teachers are less strict and more tolerant of errors (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Han, 2017; Hyland & Anan, 2006). This could be because of a number of reasons: NS teachers have a better knowledge of the language and accept a wider range of structures (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), NNS teachers perceive error correction to be central to their role as teachers (Hyland & Anan, 2006), NNS teachers have prior experience of language learning which enables them to better understand target language errors, and NNS teachers have been more accustomed to strict grammar teaching methods and error correction which can lead them to correct more errors in class (Han, 2017).

Regarding the role of teaching experience on the amount OCF, studies have shown inconsistent results (Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Mackey et al., 2004; Polio et al., 2006). Mackey et al. (2004) found that experienced teachers provided noticeably more OCF moves than inexperienced teachers, nonetheless, both Junqueira and Kim (2013) and Polio et al. (2006) found that both experienced and inexperienced teachers provided relatively comparable amounts of OCF. However, in Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study, the experienced teacher felt more comfortable providing OCF and created more teacher-learner interactions which could have been because of the higher number of oral errors that occurred in the experienced teacher's class. What we can learn from these studies is that more experienced teachers are more likely to provide higher rates of OCF in comparison to inexperienced teachers. It may be that, in comparison to inexperienced

teachers that are more concerned with classroom management, experienced teachers have the required skills to deviate from their planned classroom teaching and correct errors (Mackey et al., 2004).

Finally, research shows that the teaching context (i.e. the instructional context in which teaching occurs, such as EFL and ESL) can influence the extent to which teachers correct oral errors (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018; Milla & Mayo, 2014). Both Lasagabaster and Doiz (2018) and Milla Melero (2017) explored the role of instructional context by comparing EFL teachers and content and language integrated learning teachers' CF practices. The findings of both studies indicated that in comparison, EFL teachers provided considerably higher rates of OCF than content and language integrated learning teachers. This is because, unlike content language teachers, the EFL teachers were noticeably more concerned with form-focused instructions and more attentive to errors as their main aim was to help learners achieve L2 development.

To sum up, to explore whether or not teachers correct oral errors in practice, studies have been conducted on the distribution of OCF in language classrooms. These studies have revealed that some factors moderate teachers' decisions on whether or not to provide OCF. While the effects of some of these factors (e.g. teachers' NS/NNS statuses and teaching context) have been empirically confirmed, other factors (e.g. learners' proficiency levels and teachers' experience) have been shown to have an inconsistent effect on teachers' provision of OCF. Given the moderating role of context on teachers' OCF practices, more research is needed to determine and compare the extent to which teachers from different contexts correct errors. My study makes such an attempt.

### **2.8.2 How are errors corrected by teachers?**

In looking at how teachers correct oral errors, there are numerous studies and meta-analyses that have explored the distribution of OCF types across various EFL and ESL contexts (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, 2006; S. Li, 2010; Lochtmann, 2002; Loewen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Mackey et al., 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Rolin-Ianziti, 2006; Russell



& Spada, 2006; Yang & Lyster, 2010). According to the findings of these studies, recasts are the most frequent OCF type and other types such as elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, clarification requests and repetition have been shown to be less used by teachers (D. Brown, 2016; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava, Gatbonton, Ammar, & Trofimovich, 2018; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018; Sheen, 2004, 2006).

Recasts are used most frequently because of their unobtrusive nature (Kamiya, 2014), that they take the least amount of time compared to other OCF types (Yoshida, 2010), and that they come naturally for teachers, especially novice teachers (D. Brown, 2016). The distribution of other OCF types have been shown to vary noticeably across contexts, for example explicit correction has been relatively infrequent in some studies (e.g. Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015) and more commonly used in others (e.g. Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). This could be because, OCF explicitness may be determined by contextual factors, such as the instructional context and its overall communicative aim, which are shaped by teachers and their teaching objectives (Llinares & Lyster, 2014). Overall, research has identified a number of factors that can influence how teachers correct oral errors.

The first of these factors is teachers' experience of language teaching which has shown to influence the OCF types they provide in correcting learners' oral errors (D. Brown, 2016; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Mackey et al., 2004; Polio et al., 2006). Mackey et al. (2004) explored the effect of teaching experience on 18 English language teachers' (nine experienced and nine novice teachers) OCF practices using 30-minute classroom observations and found that experienced and novice teachers differed noticeably in their type and frequency of OCF. That is, in comparison to novice teachers, experienced teachers provided more recasts and explicit negative feedback. The researchers suggested that apart from teaching experience, teacher training could have also affected teachers' choice of OCF types. Similarly, Junqueira and Kim (2013) found that while inexperienced teachers relied primarily on recasts and clarification requests, experienced teachers used a more diverse range of OCF types to correct errors (e.g.

recasts, clarification requests, elicitation, explicit correction). The researchers did not explain this, but it may be that experienced teachers have developed more automatised classroom behaviour over time (Berliner, 2001), and thus are able to use a wider range of OCF types.

Second, literature indicates that language learners' proficiency levels tend to influence the types of teachers' OCF types (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; D. Brown, 2016; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mori, 2002). Most of these studies (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mori, 2002) and Brown's (2016) meta-analysis have found that teachers tend to provide higher rates of reformulations (like recasts) with less proficient learners and more prompts in higher level classes. It may be that teachers believe that more proficient learners have the resources to self-correct their errors if they are pointed out to them through prompts (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011). Nonetheless, Karimi and Asadnia's (2015) investigation of Iranian teachers' OCF types and learners' proficiency levels showed contradicting results. Through 40 hours of classroom observation of elementary and intermediate level classes, Karimi and Asadnia found that teachers provided more explicit correction, elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification request, and repetition at elementary level. The researchers attributed this to the high number of oral errors at the elementary level and the teachers' willingness to correct those errors to prevent fossilization.

Third, there is inconsistent evidence to suggest that teachers' NS/NNS statuses may influence how they correct errors (Demir & Özmen, 2017; Díaz, 2009; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010). Díaz (2009) explored two NS and two NNS teachers' error correction practices within an ESL context and found that while both teachers used the same CF types as their top preferred feedback moves, NNS teachers used a wider range of CF types than NS teachers. The researchers attributed this to NS teachers' higher tolerance towards errors. Similarly, Demir and Özmen (2017) compared NNS and NS teachers' OCF practices in a Turkish context and found that recasts made up a considerable proportion (82%) of both NS and NNS teachers' OCF practices. Also, prompts and explicit correction were the second most and least most used OCF types for both NS and NNS teachers, respectively. However, NS teachers used noticeably more recasts than NNS teachers,

whereas NNS teachers used more prompts than NS teachers. The researchers explained NNS teachers' higher use of prompts to their teacher training and educational backgrounds which had centred on the importance of form-focused instruction.

In contrast, Gurzynski-Weiss's (2010) investigation of 60 Spanish foreign language teachers indicated that NS teachers provide considerably more explicit feedback than NNS teachers do. The researcher explained this by stating that NS teachers take fewer factors into account than NNS teachers do when correcting oral errors, and thus are able to use a wider range of OCF techniques. In sum, these inconsistent results suggest that in addition to teachers' NS/NNS statuses, other factors can moderate how teachers correct oral errors.

Finally, there is empirical proof to confirm that instructional context (both within a single and across contexts) affects how teachers correct errors (D. Brown, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Milla Melero, 2017; Milla & Mayo, 2014; Sheen, 2004, 2006; Simhony & Chanyoo, 2018). Specifically exploring the role of instructional context, Sheen (2004) compared teachers' OCF practices across four contexts (an EFL classroom in Korea, ESL classrooms in Canada, ESL classrooms in NZ, and a French immersion class). The comparison revealed that recasts were the most frequent OCF type used across all four settings; however, teachers varied considerably in the amount of recasts they provided in response to errors. That is, EFL teachers in Korea used the most amount of recasts, followed by ESL teachers in NZ, and Canadian immersion and ESL teachers. This is because Korean EFL teachers were more concerned with fluency and reluctant to interrupt the flow of conversation, and thus mostly used implicit recasts.

Also examining instructional context, Llinares and Lyster (2014) compared immersion and content and language integrated learning teachers' OCF practices and found content teachers to be more focused on correction mainly because language plays a more significant role in content and language classrooms than immersion classes. In addition, comparing EFL teachers and content and language integrated learning teachers, both Milla and Mayo (2014) and Lasagabaster

and Doiz (2018) found that language teachers provided a wider range of CF types and corrected oral errors more explicitly, whereas content and language integrated learning teachers mainly used recasts and provided more explicit CF. What distinguished the two settings (EFL and content language teaching) most from one another was EFL teachers' higher attention to form (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018).

Likewise, Simhony and Chanyoo (2018) investigated the frequency of OCF types used by two English teachers from different instructional contexts (i.e. EFL and international school classrooms). The researchers found that all six OCF types identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) were used by both teachers; however, the EFL teacher used mostly recast, whereas the international school teacher provided mainly metalinguistic clues. This is mainly because teachers' perception about learners' language proficiency levels; that is, while the EFL teacher used recast for low proficient learners, the international school teachers provided metalinguistic feedback to prompt higher proficient learners to self-correct. Simhony and Chanyoo (2018) compared their findings to those of earlier studies (Milla Melero, 2017; Milla & Mayo, 2014; Sheen, 2004) and concluded that instructional and contextual differences impact teachers' use of OCF types. That is, depending on the environmental factors and teaching objectives of the instructional contexts, teachers' approaches towards oral errors can differ noticeably. Taken together, these studies suggest that how teachers correct oral errors can depend to a large extent on the context in which teaching is taking place, and teachers from different contexts can vary in their OCF practices.

In sum, different studies have been conducted to determine how teachers provide OCF in practice, and have found factors that can moderate teachers' oral error correction choices. Some of these factors (e.g. teaching experience and teaching context) have been shown to consistently influence how different teachers correct oral errors, whereas the effect of other factors (e.g. learners' proficiency levels and teachers' NS/NNS statuses) has been more inconsistent. Considering the mediating role of context in shaping teachers' classroom practices, further research is needed to investigate how teachers from different instructional contexts correct oral errors. My study aims to explore this.

### 2.8.3 Which errors are corrected?

In determining which oral errors teachers mostly correct, studies have been shown that the type of the error (i.e. morpho-syntactic, phonological, lexical, semantic errors) can moderate teachers' choices of errors to correct (Choi, 2000; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Lyster, 2001; Mackey et al., 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Sheen, 2006). These studies show that the majority of OCF moves are provided in response to morpho-syntactic errors, followed by lexical errors (Carranza, 2007; Guénette & Lyster, 2013; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; J.-H. Kim & Han, 2007; Lee, 2008; Nabei & Swain, 2002) investigation of French immersion classrooms revealed that teachers corrected 72% of all morpho-syntactic errors, 64% of phonological errors, and only % of lexical errors. This could be explained in a number of ways: morpho-syntactic errors' have greater importance and higher frequency (Karimi & Asadnia, 2015), and teachers believe that learners mostly struggle with morpho-syntactic errors, and due to time limitations, they cannot correct all oral errors as equally and mainly opt for morpho-syntactic and at times lexical errors (Lee, 2008).

Literature has identified a number of factors that can influence teachers' decision on which errors to correct. First, it is believed that teachers' NS/NNS statuses can affect the amount of CF they provide in response to different oral error types (Demir & Özmen, 2017). Demir and Özmen (2017) found that not only did NNS teachers provide more OCF on all types of errors than NS teachers did, but they also valued the four types of oral errors (i.e. morpho-syntactic, phonological, lexical, semantic errors) differently. More specifically, NS teachers provided more OCF on phonological errors, followed by lexical errors, and finally morpho-syntactic errors. This is because the NS teachers were more interested in increasing intelligibility and communication of ideas, whereas NNS teachers tend to value the grammaticality of learners' production more. Therefore, NS teachers were more likely to correct phonological and lexical errors than morpho-syntactic errors, which is in line with what previous researchers (e.g. Isaacs & Trofimovich, 2012; Mackey et al., 2000) have found. Isaacs and Trofimovich (2012) and Mackey et al. (2000) both confirmed that NS teachers correct more phonological and lexical errors than morpho-syntactic errors, since

teachers believe phonological and lexical errors can cause more unintelligibility than other oral errors (Isaacs & Trofimovich, 2012).

Second, classroom activity type is believed to influence the type(s) of oral errors that teachers correct. Carranza (2007) investigated four ESL teachers' correction of morpho-syntactic, lexical, and pronunciation errors in America. Using classroom observations and interviews, the researcher found that teachers treated errors differently based on the activity type. That is, in comparison to fluency tasks (37% of all errors), more oral errors were corrected during accuracy tasks (81% of errors). The teachers stated that communicative tasks aim at fluency and language production, and thus error correction should be kept to a minimum. Also, while pronunciation errors were the most ignored errors in both in accuracy and fluency tasks (78.5% of the time) to avoid miscommunication, morpho-syntactic errors were the most corrected errors (21.5% of the time). Teachers corrected mostly morpho-syntactic errors because they were concerned with correcting errors that impede communication and were related to a given lesson.

Third, there is little evidence to suggest that teaching experience can affect the types of oral errors that teachers correct (Junqueira & Kim, 2013). The two teachers in Junqueira and Kim's study (one experienced and one inexperienced) differed considerably in the type of oral errors they attended to. That is, the inexperienced teacher focused primarily on pronunciation errors because she believed pronunciation to be a main aspect of communication. By contrast, the experienced teacher provided more balanced OCF and corrected both pronunciation and morpho-syntactic errors in a relatively similar way as she believed that learners expect OCF on both types of errors. It is important to note that since studies have not widely explored how teaching experience can affect the types of oral errors that teachers correct, the role of teaching experience on the correction of different error types is not a generalizable conclusion.

Finally, similar to previous aspects of OCF, teaching context is likely to affect which oral errors teachers correct. Brown's (2016) meta-analysis of 21 studies revealed that ESL and EFL teachers' correction of different types of errors differed in that ESL teachers correct phonological errors

noticeably more than foreign language teachers do. Brown stated that because of the importance of pronunciation for students residing in the target language context, it is likely that ESL teachers are more attentive to pronunciation errors. However, Brown claimed that because of the limited studies in this area, the findings should be interpreted with caution.

In summary, previous studies have found that teachers' NS/NSS statuses, classroom tasks, and teaching context can affect teachers' decisions on which oral errors to correct. By comparison, teachers' teaching experience have been shown to have the potential to sometimes impact teachers' correction of different oral error types. Given the moderating factor of context in determining the oral errors that teachers correct, it is worth further exploring how instructional context affects the oral errors that certain EFL and ESL teachers correct. My research makes such an attempt by investigating the different oral errors that Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers choose to correct.

#### **2.8.4 Who corrects errors?**

As previously mentioned, this question involves the sources of feedback, namely teacher, peer and/or self-correction, and what determines the distribution of these feedback sources is mainly the types of OCF that teachers use. For example, through prompts (i.e. elicitations, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, and repetitions) teachers encourage peer and self-correction (Lyster, 2001, 2002; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011), whereas through reformulations (recasts and explicit correction) teacher correction occurs.

Overall, teacher correction is the most commonly used source of error correction (Irwin, 2017). This is evident in studies that have been shown that teachers use recast as their top OCF type to correct errors (see Section 1.3), because through recasts (and reformulations in general) teachers provide learners with the correct form(s), and thus teacher correction occurs. The high rates of teacher correction can be because teachers are known to have a more comprehensive knowledge of the target language, and/or that learners value teacher correction more than other types of correction (Ellis, 2008; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Also, teacher correction is more favoured in

EFL contexts where learners have limited exposure to English. Thus, learners expect teachers to correct their errors (Hedge, 2001).

As for peer correction, despite its effectiveness on L2 development (M. Sato, 2017; M. Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jackson, 2015), Lyster et al.'s (2013) meta-analysis shows that peer CF has a low rate of occurrence and it is mostly in the form of prompts and negotiation of form (Mackey et al., 2003; McDonough & Mackey, 2000), which may be because, peer CF can be face-threatening (Foster, 1998). In the Iranian EFL context, both Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018) and Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) found that peer CF was more likely to occur in 'friendly' classrooms which had smaller numbers of learners, as opposed to classrooms with large numbers of language learners.

With regards to self-correction, while some studies have been shown instances of its high occurrence (e.g. Lochtman, 2002; Yang, 2009), others have found it to occur at a minimal rate (e.g. Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Yoshida, 2008). Literature indicates that learners' language proficiency levels can affect the extent to which teachers opt for learner self-correction. That is, teachers use prompts with higher level learners because they believe that more proficient learners have the required knowledge to correct their oral errors if pointed out to them (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

To sum up, OCF can be delivered through three different sources; however, teachers' classroom decisions as to which OCF type(s) to use can determine who corrects the errors. On the one hand, teachers can encourage peer and self-correction through using prompts to elicit the correct response from learners, and on the other hand, teachers' use of reformulations in correcting errors only allows for teacher correction to occur. While we know that teacher correction is used most commonly, given the effectiveness of peer and self-correction in L2 development (M. Sato, 2017; M. Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sippel & Jackson, 2015) further research is needed to determine the extent to which different teachers encourage the use of the three sources of OCF.



### **2.8.5 When are errors corrected?**

There is very little literature on a description of the timing of teachers' OCF practices (e.g. Rolin-Ianziti, 2006; Vilček, 2014), and researchers have mainly compared the effectiveness of immediate and delayed OCF on L2 development. Rolin-Ianziti's (2006) investigation of French teachers in Australia revealed that the three teachers delayed their OCF moves in attempt to prevent interrupting learners during their role plays, and instead wrote down the errors to correct them after the activity. This was also observed in Vilček's (2014) study of two Croatian EFL teachers' timing of OCF on errors which found that teachers delay their OCF practices to avoid interrupting learners' communication. The researcher further claimed that teachers' use of delayed or immediate CF can depend on the activity type, the focus of the activity, and who the student is making the oral error. That is, teachers delay OCF in interactive tasks which focus on fluency and for learners with high anxiety and low motivation to reduce learners' negative responses to the feedback. However, they still use immediate OCF for errors related to what has recently been taught and in cases where the error causes misunderstanding (Vilček, 2014). Yet, due to the limited scope of Vilček's (2014) study, the extent to which the findings can be generalised to other contexts is open to question.

In sum, regarding the timing of oral error correction, there has been a paucity of studies that have looked at when teachers correct oral errors. Instead, most studies have looked at the effectiveness of immediate and delayed OCF on the development of different linguistic features. To draw any conclusion as to the timing of teachers' OCF practices, stronger evidence is needed, and considering the scarcity of research in this area, it deserves further exploration. Again, my study attempts to explore this issue.

In concluding this section, the review of studies on teachers' error correction practices revealed that, amongst the many factors that can affect aspects of teachers' error correction practices, one of the most significant factors that needs to be considered about the provision of OCF is the teaching context in which it occurs. As mentioned, the effect of the instructional context on the provision and effectiveness of OCF has been explored through a number of comparative studies

(S. Li, 2010; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004; Simhony & Chanyoo, 2018) and confirmed by meta-analyses (Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007). The results of these comparative studies indicate that instructional context can affect the way OCF is provided and how learners benefit from the feedback. Similarly, in the written CF context, different scholars have also referred to the mediating role of context on the CF (Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Lee, 2008; Storch, 2018). Also, researchers have frequently called for further work on the variable of context in studies of CF (Ellis et al., 2001; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Schulz, 2001; Storch, 2018).

Therefore, further research that specifically takes the role of teaching context into consideration is needed for clarification of different aspects of teachers' error correction practices. This research study makes such an attempt. Given that the nature of the context where English is taught as a foreign language (Iran) may be different from the context in which English is the official language of the country (NZ), it is likely that teachers from the two countries provide OCF differently. Thus, through investigating the OCF classroom practices of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers, it should be possible to determine the similarities/differences between the two, and the potential effect of context in shaping/guiding teachers' OCF classroom practices.

## **2.9 Research on the relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices**

So far in this chapter, I have discussed what we know about teachers' beliefs about the importance and the provision of OCF, and reviewed studies on aspects of teachers' actual OCF practices. The question now is, what relationship is there between teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices? The relationship between beliefs and practices is commonly acknowledged (Borg, 2011) and it is suggested that the relationship is bidirectional; that is, beliefs shape behaviour (Arnett & Turnbull, 2008; Borg, 2003; Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001), and at the same time, beliefs can be shaped and re-shaped through teacher education, teaching experience, and reflection on that teaching (Borg, 2011).

It is generally accepted that teachers' beliefs affect and guide their decision making (Andrews, 2003; Arnett & Turnbull, 2008; Borg, 2003, 2009, 2011; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Pajares, 1992), and teachers' beliefs powerfully shape both what teachers do in class and what learning opportunities they provide for learners (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). Nonetheless, earlier studies have not agreed on exactly how teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices are connected (Kamiya, 2014). Li's (2017) synthesis of 26 studies showed both areas of congruence and incongruence between teachers' beliefs and CF practices. More specifically, teachers' beliefs and practices regarding implicit OCF were aligned, that is, they expressed support for the use of recasts to avoid humiliating learners and in practice recasts were their most frequently used CF type (Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava, 2006). In contrast, the discrepancy between beliefs and OCF practices was observed in two areas: while some teachers doubted the efficacy of CF, they provided a large proportion of it (Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014), and some teachers valued self-correction, but corrected most oral errors themselves through recasts (Basturkmen et al., 2004).

In general, research on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices can be categorised into two main types: studies indicating alignment between teachers' beliefs and classroom behaviour, and studies showing only limited alignment/non-alignment between the two (Basturkmen, 2012). A number of different factors (e.g. social, psychological and environmental factors) (Borg, 2003; S. Li, 2017) have been identified to cause the non-alignment between beliefs and practices, and it is likely to see cases where teachers' beliefs are not realised in their classroom practices (Basturkmen et al., 2004). Overall, given the complex nature of the relationship between beliefs and practices, neither a complete match nor a mismatch should be expected (Kamiya, 2014).

In what follow, I review previous studies that show both an aligned and non-aligned relationship between teachers' CF beliefs and classroom practices.

### **2.9.1 Studies showing alignment between teachers' CF beliefs and practices**

Numerous studies have shown that teachers' CF beliefs and classroom practices exist in a mutual relationship and there is a positive correspondence between the two (e.g. Al-Bakri, 2016; Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014; K.-R. Kim, 2005; Lee, 2004)

In the written context, Lee (2004) explored the relationship between Hong Kong EFL teachers' beliefs and written CF practices. Lee administered a questionnaire to 206 teachers and 58 of those teachers completed a correction task in which they provided written CF on learners' writings. Following that, 19 of the teachers were interviewed to further explore their views on error correction. The results of the study indicated that the teachers mostly preferred comprehensive and direct feedback which also aligned with their actual CF practices.

In a similar study on written CF, Al-Bakri (2016) explored six Omani English language teachers to determine their beliefs and practices aligned. Using semi-structured interviews and analysis of 18 students' writing samples, Al-Bakri investigated teachers' beliefs and their current written CF, and the challenges that teachers may face when providing feedback. The findings showed that teachers' beliefs and contextual factors influenced their written CF practices. For example, all teachers believed that providing CF is their responsibility which matched the large amounts of CF they provided on learners' writing. With regards to context, the researcher found that teachers believed that learners in their specific teaching context require help with spelling and therefore, provided written CF on learners' spelling errors. Some inconsistencies were also found between teachers' beliefs and CF practices which were due to contextual and emotional factors. The teachers stated that they had changed their practices because of their teaching experience and ultimately resulted in change in beliefs, which confirms the interaction between beliefs and practices.

As part of their study on Singlish (Singapore English) language policy, Farrell and Kun (2007) explored three teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices at an elementary school. The teachers were observed twice over two months and immediately after the observations, teachers were interviewed using semi-structured interviews. The analysis of the data revealed that all three

teachers were supportive of encouraging learners as opposed to focusing on ‘minor details’ which aligned with their infrequent correction of oral errors.

In an investigation of the relationship between two ESL teachers’ (one experienced and one novice) beliefs and practices on OCF, Junqueira and Kim (2013) used observations, stimulated recalls and interviews to collect data. The results showed that most of the teachers’ beliefs about OCF influenced their error correction practices. For example, the novice teacher valued pronunciation errors, and the experienced teacher believed both pronunciation and morpho-syntactic errors to be important, and in practice, the teachers mostly corrected pronunciation and morpho-syntactic errors, respectively. Interestingly, both teachers expressed doubts for the effectiveness of OCF and valued oral communication dialogues in class which matched the considerable amounts of OCF they provided (novice teacher: 51.9% and experienced teacher: 62.8%). However, during the stimulated recall interviews, neither of the teachers identified the OCF episodes as error correction, and instead viewed them as instances of communication exchanges where they ensured learners’ understanding.

Similarly, Kamiya (2014) explored the relationship between four ESL teachers’ beliefs and classroom practices on OCF and found that the teachers’ beliefs and practices largely aligned. Most teachers in Kamiya’s study did not consider OCF as their main teaching objective and instead expressed interest in creating a comfortable learning environment for learners. In practice, the teachers used a limited amount of OCF and refrained from using explicit correction to avoid humiliating learners and mostly used implicit CF (like recasts) to correct oral errors. Nonetheless, the beliefs and practices of one of the most experienced teachers in the study were non-aligned which left the researcher to suggest that teaching experience cannot be a sole indicator of teachers’ practices. However, given that the study only used one classroom observation to explore OCF practices, it seems difficult to make any definite claims.

In concluding this section, it is generally accepted that teachers' beliefs provide a basis for their OCF practices. However, there is also research that supports a limited or no alignment between teachers' stated beliefs and practices. This is the focus of the next section.

### **2.9.2 Studies showing non-alignment between beliefs and practices**

There is evidence to suggest that teachers' beliefs and instructional practices do not always align (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2004; Choi, 2000; Dilāns, 2016; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ferris, 2014; Feryok, 2008; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Lee, 2009; Melketo, 2012; Montgomery & Baker, 2007; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Nishimuro & Borg, 2013; Phipps & Borg, 2007; Roothoof, 2014).

In their seminal work, Basturkmen et al. (2004) examined the relationship between the beliefs and practices of three male ESL teachers regarding focus on form (OCF) at a private language school in NZ. The three teachers were observed during their classroom teaching to determine their practices. To explore their beliefs, the teachers were interviewed, then presented with cued response scenarios to comment on how to behave in typical focus on form situations, and finally asked to take part in a stimulated recall interview to verbalise their thoughts of their teaching. Results showed a 'tenuous' relationship between teachers' beliefs and actual practices. For example, while all teachers believed that OCF should be avoided during fluency tasks, they provided high rates of it. Also, teachers corrected many linguistic errors despite stating that correction should correct errors that hinder communication. In addition, one teacher expressed his preference for learner self-correction but corrected most oral errors through teacher correction. The researchers attributed this to the gap between teachers' technical (explicit ideas derived by deep reflection) and practical (simultaneous classroom decisions) knowledge. That is, while teachers perceive OCF effective for L2 development, they often worry about interrupting communication flow, negatively affecting learners' motivation, and not knowing when to correct the errors (Basturkmen et al., 2004; A. Brown, 2009; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018).

Farrell and Bennis (2013) explored the OCF beliefs and practices of one novice and one experienced ESL teachers in Canada using a background survey, classroom observations, and interviews. The teachers were interviewed prior and after each classroom observation. The results showed that for the most part, teachers' OCF beliefs and practices diverged and the researchers confirmed Basturkmen, et al.'s (2004) claim of a tenuous relationship between beliefs and practices. For example, both teachers in Farrell and Bennis's study believed that frequent error correction is effective for L2 development as learners tend to repeat errors and require ongoing correction to prevent fossilization of errors and because learners expect error correction. In practice, while both teachers frequently corrected oral errors, there were areas of non-alignment between their beliefs and practices. For example, while both teachers stated that teachers need to use a variety of OCF types to correct oral errors, they mostly used one or two types of OCF.

Also, the experienced teachers believed that OCF should be provided after a communicative task, but frequently interrupted learners during communicative speaking tasks. Also, the novice teacher believed in the necessity of frequent OCF and self-correction, yet in practice there were many classroom instances where he ignored errors and avoided self-correction. Overall, the experienced teachers' beliefs and practices regarding OCF were more diverged which was explained in terms of time constraints. The researchers concluded that teachers hold a set of complex beliefs that are not always evident in their classroom behaviour because of contextual factors.

In a longitudinal case study of three English teachers in Turkey completing a Master's course, Phipps (2009) beliefs and practices regarding grammar teaching and error correction. Overall, the teachers were asked to complete questionnaires, take part in three interviews, and were observed three times during the data collection over a 20-month period. The study found that teachers' beliefs and practices were mainly non-aligned and confirmed that teachers' practices do not always reflect their stated beliefs. That is, while all three teachers used explicit OCF despite believing that self-correction can benefit learners more, which might have been because the teachers felt that learners expect teacher correction. Also, despite one teacher's belief in correcting oral errors at the end of a fluency task, she corrected errors during communicative tasks. Phipps

claimed that the tensions between beliefs and practices are a normal feature of teaching and should not be considered as undesirable. The researcher identified a number of mediating factors that had cause teachers to behave contrary to their beliefs: (1) fear of losing control as a teacher, (2) learners' expectation for OCF, (3) classroom management to control learners, (4), learners' negative emotional responses to OCF, (5) lack of practical ideas on grammar teaching and OCF.

As previously mentioned, Milla Melero (2017) investigated of the role of context by exploring two teachers' (EFL and content language intergraded learning teachers) beliefs and OCF practices. The researcher found many instances where teachers' OCF beliefs and practices did not align. For instance, the content language teacher provided a noticeably lower rate of OCF that he had stated to be appropriate for L2 development. Also, both teachers expressed strong support for the use of metalinguistic cues and prompts; however, in class recasts were the most frequently used CF type. The researcher attributed this to the effect of time contains and task types used in classes.

More recently, Kartchava et al. (2018) explored the relationship between an ESL teachers' beliefs and OCF practices. In doing so, 99 novice teachers were asked to fill in a belief questionnaire, and 10 of the teachers were then asked to illustrate how they would correct errors in hypothetical classroom situations and were then observed during their classroom teaching. Analysis of the data showed a 'multifarious' relationship between the teachers' beliefs and OCF practices in that teachers corrected fewer oral errors than they believed they should, and used the same OCF types as they stated they would. The study points to the complex nature of novice teachers' beliefs and OCF practices.

Likewise, in the written context, different scholars have explored the relationship between teachers' beliefs and written CF practices and have found mismatches between the two (e.g. Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Lee, 2009; Lee, Mak, & Burns, 2016; J. Li & Barnard, 2011; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). In a study on 15 ESL teachers in the US, Montgomery and Baker (2007) compared their beliefs and written CF practices. The teachers were asked to fill in a belief questionnaire to determine the amount of feedback they tend to provide on learners' writing.



Through the analysis of teachers' actual CF given on learners' writing drafts, the researchers found noticeable differences in how teachers reported to provide written CF and the way they actually did. For instance, the teachers overestimated the amount of CF they provided on organization errors and underestimated their CF on linguistic form errors.

Lee (2009) explored teachers' beliefs and written CF practices using a belief questionnaire, interviews, and analysis of the teachers' written CF on learners' pieces of writing. The analysis of the findings revealed ten areas of mismatch between beliefs and practices. Some of these areas are: teachers believed in the importance of good writing over accuracy but attended mostly to language form. While teachers believed in selective error correction, they provided a high rate of CF on learners' writing. Teachers provided scores on writings while believing that scores draw attention away from teacher feedback. While believing in self-correction, teachers corrected most errors themselves. Despite teachers' beliefs that their CF practices are not time and cost effective, they continued to do employ the same CF techniques. While the study further points to time constraints and contextual factors (such as exam pressure) as potential mediating factors attributing to areas of mismatch, it does not probe the underlying reasons that caused the non-alignment between the teachers' beliefs and written CF practices.

In a study on a novice teacher's written CF beliefs and practices over an academic semester, Junqueira and Payant (2015) used interviews, teacher reflective journal and analysed the teacher's written CF on learners' writing and found areas of non-alignment. That is, the teacher was not always able to apply her beliefs into her written CF practices. More specifically, the teacher mainly provided CF on local errors despite believing that global errors should be corrected. Also, while the teacher believed in the effectiveness of explanations and modelling in learners' writing development, she mainly used direct correction instead. The researchers attributed the mismatch between the teacher's beliefs and CF practices to her low level of teaching experience.

Within the EFL context of Iran, different studies (e.g. Farrokhi, 2007; Jafarigohar & Kheiri, 2015; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Nemati, Alavi, Mohebbi, & Masjedlou, 2017; Sepehrinia &

Mehdizadeh, 2018; Tamimy, 2015) have explored the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their CF practice and have found incongruence between the two. For example, Farrokhi (2007) investigated the CF beliefs and practices of five teachers of different classroom levels at a private language school. Teachers were initially observed during their classroom teaching and were then asked to fill in a questionnaire that explored their beliefs about error correction. Through comparing classroom observation data and teachers' responses to the questionnaire, the researcher concluded that while the teachers believed that explicit correction is the most effective OCF type in their EFL context, in practice the teachers used recasts as their primary error correction technique. The researcher attributed this to the indirect and less time-consuming and face threatening nature of recasts, and the likelihood of explicit correction to interrupt the flow of conversation. Overall, the study suggested that teachers' OCF practices are on-the-spot decisions that depend on various contextual factors such as task type and teaching context. Given the studies' limited data sources, caution should be taken in generalizing the findings to other contexts.

Similarly, Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh's (2018) investigation of Iranian EFL teachers revealed instances of non-alignment between their OCF beliefs and practices. That is, one teacher believed that oral error correction is more appropriate for more proficient learners but in contrast, he corrected a small proportion of his advanced learners' errors and almost all of lower level learners' errors. This may have been because of advanced learners' frequent fluent language production which could have made it difficult for the teacher to interrupt the conversation. Also, while two of teachers had indicated that over-correction can be detrimental to learners, they extensively corrected errors and explained this by claiming that learners expect OCF. This confirms Kaivanpanah et al.'s (2015) claim that Iranian teachers' CF practices are affected by their assumptions that learners consider them as the source of knowledge. A further area of mismatch was observed in teachers' beliefs and OCF types they used. While most teachers expressed the importance of using explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, they mainly used recast, and metalinguistic feedback was rarely used which can be because of its time-consuming nature.

In a similar study on Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on OCF, Karimi and Asadnia (2015) found non-alignment in all five areas that introduced by Hendrickson (1978); namely whether errors should be corrected or not, how they should be corrected, the timing of correction, which errors to correct, and who should correct errors. The mismatch between beliefs and practices was evident at both elementary and intermediate level classes. For instance, while the teachers expressed support for prompt, they used mostly recasts and explicit correction in class. Also, the teachers corrected both global and local errors while believing that only global errors should be corrected. The researchers identified factors such as learner variables, teacher variables, and context variables to be moderating the relationship between OCF beliefs and practices. Overall, instead of using a correction model for oral errors, teachers made spontaneous decisions on how to correct the errors.

So far, I have shown that the relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and actual classroom practices may not always be direct and can at times diverge. The growing evidence from the literature on teachers' beliefs points to the mediating factors that play a role in the relationship of teachers' beliefs and practices. In the following section, I briefly introduce these mediating factors.

## **2.10 Factors mediating the link between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices**

While the previous section has mentioned, where relevant, some factors moderating the alignment of teachers' CF beliefs and classroom practices, this section specifically introduces these factors. In general, these mediating factors can be classified into four main types of teacher, learners, contextual, and methodological factors.

### **2.10.1 Learner-related factors**

There are a number of learner-related factors that have been shown to mediate the relationship between teachers' CF beliefs and practices. First, learners' proficiency level may affect how teachers apply their beliefs to CF practices (Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Alkhatib, 2015; Tamimy, 2015). This can specifically be evident in cases where teachers correct errors themselves despite

believing in the importance of peer and self-correction (Alkhatib, 2015). It can also be likely that teachers may not be willing to correct low proficient learners' errors as much as advanced learners' errors (Tamimy, 2015).

Second, learners' expectations may cause constraints on how teachers provide CF in classrooms which may not be in line with their stated beliefs (Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016; Alkhatib, 2015; Nishino, 2012; Phipps, 2009; Schulz, 2001). For example, teachers' perceptions of learners' expectations for direct OCF can lead them to use mechanical drills to calm learners down despite perceiving elicitation as more effective for L2 development (Phipps, 2009).

### **2.10.2 Teacher-related factors**

There are a number of different teacher-related factors identified in the literature to affect the relationship between teachers' CF beliefs and classroom practices. First, teaching experience may influence whether or not teachers put their beliefs into practice (Alkhatib, 2015; Tamimy, 2015). It has been shown that experienced teachers' beliefs are more likely to inform their classroom practices than inexperienced teachers (Alkhatib, 2015; Basturkmen, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Kamiya, 2014; Mori, 2011; Tamimy, 2015; Tsui, 2003; Zheng, 2015). That can be because of the gap between inexperienced teachers' technical and practical knowledge mentioned earlier (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Zheng, 2015).

Second, teachers' lack of explicit knowledge of CF can be the factor causing non-alignment between CF beliefs and practices. (Kamiya, 2014; S. Li, 2017; Phipps, 2009). For example, as was the case in Kamiya's study, a teacher may doubt the effectiveness of OCF but in practice provide large amounts of correction (in the form of recasts), assuming that OCF includes only explicit correction. Third, teachers' affective factors such as their self-esteem in their knowledge of target language forms, and fear of losing face can noticeably affect whether or not teachers put their OCF beliefs into practice (Phipps, 2009). For example, if teachers lack confidence and fear being unable to answer unexpected learner questions, they may avoid certain OCF types. It is

expected that, with the development of teachers' confidence, the tensions between their beliefs and OCF practices may reduce (Phipps, 2009).

### **2.10.3 Context-related factors**

Literature has frequently pointed to the role of contextual factors hindering teachers' abilities to adopt practices that reflect their beliefs (Zheng, 2013, 2015), and different socio-educational contexts have been identified. First, the unplanned nature of online classroom interactions can provoke certain CF behaviour which may not align with teachers' beliefs and are mainly due to situational constraints (Al-Bakri, 2016; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Phipps, 2009; Tamimy, 2015). That is, despite having certain beliefs about how to provide CF, teachers may make a spontaneous decision on correcting an error in a way that contravenes their beliefs, mainly because the error was unexpected.

Second, studies have pointed to the effect of time constraints in mediating the transformation of teachers' beliefs into CF practices (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Milla Melero, 2017; Mori, 2011; Yoshida, 2008). For example, in Milla Melero's (2017) study, while the content language teacher believed in the efficacy of OCF, he provided a small amount of correction in class due to time constraints. Third, classroom size may influence whether or not teachers are able to behave in line with their beliefs (Alkhatib, 2015; Schulz, 2001). For instance, in classrooms with large numbers of students, teachers may not be able to correct the errors the way they believe need to be corrected. Fourth, exam requirements can further cause non-alignment between teachers' CF beliefs and behaviour (Alkhatib, 2015). Exam requirements can create noticeable constraints on teachers' classroom practices which may not always align with their beliefs. For example, teachers may avoid correcting errors in certain areas because learners would not be tested on them. Finally, school conditions such as syllabus and heavy teaching load can influence the application of teachers' beliefs to classroom CF practices (Alkhatib, 2015; K. Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). For example, if and when teachers' beliefs conflict with the policy of the school community, those personal beliefs will be put aside in practice (K. Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004).

#### **2.10.4 Methodological-related factors**

In addition to the above-mentioned factors, it is likely that the different methodological approaches that earlier studies employed could have caused the non-alignment between teachers' beliefs and CF practices. Li's (2017) synthesis suggests that because of the few number of teachers and limited data sources that some earlier studies used, areas of divergence were identified. Also, Farrell and Bennis (2013) suggest that the timing of data collection can affect novice teachers' abilities to reflect their beliefs in their CF practices. That is, data collection could have been at a time when the teacher may have still been in the process of forming beliefs, and that it may have been the first time the novice teachers had been asked to verbalise their thoughts.

#### **2.11 Summary**

In light of the above arguments, it can be seen that teachers hold certain beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF, and in practice, they use a variety of OCF types to correct learners' oral errors. While teachers' beliefs are shaped through a number of different sources, their OCF practices are also mediated by various factors. In addition, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and OCF practices can be influenced by several factors. It has been shown that instructional context can shape both teachers' OCF beliefs and practices in that, teachers from different instructional contexts such as EFL and ESL can not only hold varying beliefs about OCF (e.g. Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Zheng, 2015), but also use different error correction techniques to correct oral errors (e.g. D. Brown, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018). To identify the role of context on teachers' OCF beliefs and practices, a limited number of studies have been conducted (e.g. Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Milla Melero, 2017; Sheen, 2004; Simhony & Chanyoo, 2018). However, to date, there have been no studies on the comparison of Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts with regards to teachers' beliefs and OCF practices.

Given the limited attention that research on teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices has received (Kartchava et al., 2018), and the importance of OCF in L2 development, it is important to further explore this area. Therefore, the purpose of my study was to explore and compare

Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' OCF beliefs and error correction practices, and to determine the relationship between beliefs and practices.

Thus, the following research questions guided my study:

**RQ1)** What beliefs do (a) Iranian EFL and (b) NZ ESL teachers hold on:

- i) learners' oral errors?
- ii) the provision of OCF?
- iii) the sources of their OCF beliefs?

**RQ2)** How do (a) Iranian EFL and (b) NZ ESL teachers provide OCF in classrooms?

**RQ3)** What is the relationship between (a) Iranian EFL and (b) NZ ESL teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices?

## **Chapter 3: Methodology**

### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter presents the methodology used to address the research questions raised at the end of the previous chapter. This chapter begins with the explanation of the research philosophy underpinning the study (Section 3.1). Then, the methodological approach (Section 3.2), contexts (Section 3.3), research participants (Section 3.4), data collection instruments (Section 3.5), and data collection procedures used for each research question are discussed in Section 3.6. The data analysis procedures for each research question are also presented and discussed in detail (Section 3.7). Then, I discuss the benefits of conducting a pilot study that took place prior to the main data collection (Section 3.8). Subsequently, the trustworthiness of the study is discussed (Section 3.9), followed by the ethical issues considered for my study (Section 3.10).

### **3.1 Research philosophy**

This study uses interpretivism as its underpinning ‘worldview’ (Creswell, 2009) or research philosophy. Interpretivism aims at understanding human experience and actions from the perspective of the individuals themselves. It accounts for multiple meanings and the diversity of experience, and acknowledges that reality is socially constructed. In the interpretive paradigm, it is impossible to reach objective reality, and meaning is captured only through representations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005), that is, knowledge and meaning are constructed in interaction between individuals and their world. Therefore, meaningful reality can only be understood from the perspective of the individuals (Cohen & Fass, 2001; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In interpretive methodology, the goal of the interpretivist researcher is to rely on the individuals’ perspectives as much as possible in constructing meaning.

There are two concepts related to research philosophy that need to be defined: ontology and epistemology. Ontology refers to the understanding of the nature of reality or the phenomenon (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005) or what we can learn about the reality. Epistemology, however, refers



to how we go about to understand the reality and how we comprehend the relationship between the researcher and the phenomenon (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

When studying teacher beliefs, it is also important to acknowledge that there is no one reality, but multiple realities (Creswell, 2013). My aim was to understand and interpret teachers' beliefs, motives and reasons and the meaning they attribute to their classroom OCF practices, rather to generalise and predict relationships. While teachers may experience similar life and professional events, the constructs they each build of reality may be completely different from that of others. One reason may be that teachers may each filter personal experience through their own interpretive mind frames, which can affect how they perform in classrooms. It is therefore important to assess teachers' thoughts and beliefs in order to understand their classroom behaviours and, as a qualitative researcher, it is important that I acknowledge the idea of multiple realities. Consequently, as teachers express their beliefs, multiple realities of the phenomenon of teacher belief on OCF are constructed. Thus, the aim of the present interpretivist study was to assess teachers' beliefs and thought patterns about their classroom behaviours. Observations and interpretations, which underpin interpretivism and case study, were the key methods of inquiry in this study.

### **3.2 Overview of the methodological approach**

The research purposes of the study or the 'methodological purposiveness' (L. Richards & Morse, 2007) is what determined the choice of methods. In detail, the purposes of this research project are as follows:

- To understand the teacher participants' beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF
- To assess how teachers provide OCF in practice
- To understand the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and actual classroom practices on error correction

Given the ultimate purpose of my study which was to explore and compare the teachers' beliefs, their OCF practices, and the link between beliefs and practices in the two instructional contexts of Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL, different methods were considered to provide insight into the various aspects the study. Ultimately, an exploratory qualitative approach was chosen to be the most appropriate to fulfil the purposes of my study. A qualitative approach has four main features: it focuses on understanding and meaning, the primary data collection and data analysis source is the researcher, it involves an inductive process, which results in rich descriptive data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). It should be stated that the recordings of the classroom observations allowed for some level of quantification (frequency counts), yet due to the small sample size, the limited aspects that were being compared across both contexts, and the qualitative focus of the study, inferential statistics were not used.

Given the interpretive nature of teacher belief research, it is strongly aligned with a qualitative design, since qualitative research allows for an in-depth and contextualised interpretation of teachers' beliefs and cognition (Borg, 2012 ). The majority of studies on teacher belief have been qualitative (e.g. Haukås, 2015; Junqueira & Payant, 2015; Kuzborska, 2011), followed by mixed method designs (e.g. Guénette & Lyster, 2013; Young & Sachdev, 2011). There have been rare cases of wholly quantitative studies of teacher belief (e.g. Karvonen, Wakeman, Flowers, & Moody, 2013; G. Li & Ni, 2011). One reason for the frequent use of qualitative methods in studying beliefs is that qualitative analyses provide deep understandings of teachers' beliefs, using detailed interviews (Borg, 2011).

One of the methods of qualitative research is case study which involves a deep understanding of an individual or a group of individuals through interviews and observations. A case study is used when (1) the focus of the study is to answer 'how' and 'why' questions, (2) it may not be possible to change the behaviour of the participants, and (3) the aim is to explore contextual conditions that may be relevant to the phenomenon under study (Yin, 2003). In a case study, the focus may not necessarily be on the individuals, but rather on the phenomenon under investigation, with the cases being used to better understand the phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). Thus, in my study, the

two cases of Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL have been used to better explore the concepts of teachers' OCF beliefs and practices.

Overall, case studies are of three types: (1) the single case study which only includes a particular case of study, (2) the multiple-case study where the investigation is replicated in more than one setting, and (3) the intrinsic case study which refers to the exploration of the case itself due to its uniqueness (Yin, 2003). Given that I aimed to explore teachers' beliefs, their error correction practices, and the relationship between them in two different contexts, a multiple-case study approach was used. This seemed to be the appropriate choice as it allowed me to cover related contextual conditions, and to explore the differences within and between the cases (Yin, 2003). A further advantage of using a multiple-case study approach is that it creates more robust and reliable data than a single case study, as it explores the phenomenon in more than one context (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Case studies can also be categorised based on the purpose of the study; (1) explanatory which explains a presumed complex phenomenon, (2) exploratory which explores a phenomenon which is known limitedly, and (3) descriptive which describes a phenomenon in real-life context (Yin, 2003). In my study, as I aimed to explore the OCF beliefs, error correction practice, and the link between them, in the two contexts of Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL, an area that has received little if any attention, I used an exploratory multiple-case study methodology.

It is important to specifically define cases when conducting a case study research. Overall, case is a unit of analysis which is bound in time, place or context (Creswell, 2013). In my study, I have defined the two cases specifically: Iranian born teachers who teach EFL in Iran at immediate and/or upper intermediate level in private language schools, and NZ born teachers who teach ESL in NZ also at immediate and/or upper intermediate level in private language schools. While I have referred to the wider context of these two countries to better explain similarities/differences between the two, the findings of my study may not be generalised to other language schools in the two countries.

I acknowledge the limitations in using an exploratory qualitative case study approach, as it may not be possible to generalise the findings to other contexts and teachers. While making generalisations from any qualitative study may not be plausible, in my study, I aim to offer a tentative indication of how a wider population of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers may hold beliefs about OCF and how they provide it.

### **3.3 Contexts**

As previously mentioned in the Literature Review chapter, the area of teachers' OCF beliefs and practices have been explored in both EFL and ESL contexts separately. However, no study has yet looked at Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL) contexts in comparison to each other. I chose to investigate and compare the two countries because of my familiarity with the two contexts. As an experienced Iranian EFL teacher, I had considerable knowledge of and familiarity with the Iranian context. Also, as I started teaching English in NZ, I gained knowledge of English language teaching in this context. Over this period, I had the opportunity to observe the different ways in which language teaching was implemented and teacher feedback was provided in these two instructional contexts. I wanted to understand the reasons for the differences in how teachers from the two contexts corrected errors and provided OCF. This observation was the primary stimulus for undertaking this study. Therefore, the study was conducted in the two countries of Iran and NZ. Data collection was initially conducted in NZ (November 2016-February 2017), and then followed with in Iran (April 2017-June 2017). The process of data collection in both countries was comparable.

The NZ context, from which NZ participants were chosen, was a leading English language school based in Auckland that promoted communicative language teaching. Communicative language teaching is an approach which emphasises interaction in class, which consequently allows more teacher-student interaction episodes to occur. Given that the focus of my study was on OCF, it was important to ensure that English language classrooms that were chosen to be observed allowed for ample of interaction to occur. The Iranian participants were also selected from a long-established language school in Isfahan. The Iranian school was one of Isfahan's first language

institutes that taught English through communicative language teaching methods. I chose participants from the Iranian institute because, as a previous English teacher at the school, I was familiar with their language teaching methodology, and I intended to only focus on an Iranian language school that promoted communicative language teaching.

### **3.4 Research participants**

In the following section, the research participants of the study are introduced by an initial explanation of how the participants were recruited, followed by a summarised tabled description of the 10 English language teachers who volunteered to participate in the research study. Convenience sampling (Dörnyei, 2007) was used to recruit the participants which refers to the selection of participants if they meet specific criteria, like proximity, availability, and willingness to volunteer. The participants of my study were chosen by targeting only Iranian EFL language teachers who taught English at a particular language school in Isfahan, and NZ ESL language teachers who taught English at a particular language school in Auckland. A further criterion was also considered; that is, only teachers who taught English at an intermediate and/or upper-intermediate level were targeted. That is because, learners at these two language levels are comfortably capable of having interactions in English with their teachers. This was important because the oral errors that learners made during the interactions with their teachers were used as measures of analysis.

Ultimately, five Iranian EFL teachers and five NZ ESL teachers who had volunteered to participate in my study were selected. Information on each of the participants is summarised in Table 3.1 and Table 3.2. As Table 3.1 shows, the Iranian participants included three female and two male teachers. While most of the Iranian research participants had a language-related university degree, none had completed a language teaching-related university degree. The teaching experience of the Iranian participants spanned from 2 to over 30 years (median = 13 years). All the five Iranian research participants were non-native speakers of English, who learned English in Iran and had no experience of learning or teaching in the ESL context.

**Table 3. 1 Iranian participants' basic information**

Participants	Gender	Age	Experience	Qualifications	Students' Level	No. of Students
Mina	F	31-35	13 years	BA (English Translation)	I	5
Baran	F	31-35	20 years	BA (English literature)	UI	10
Shadi	F	36-40	10 years	MA (International Trade) BA (English Translation)	I	10
Amir	M	50+	30+ years	BS (Mechanical Engineering)	UI	6
Saber	M	20-25	2 year	BA (Chinese)	I	5

(Note: I: intermediate level; UI: upper-intermediate level)

An important note is that I had personal ties with some of the Iranian research participants. That is because, as mentioned, I had previously taught at the same language school for nine years. Having ties with the Iranian teachers could have caused potential bias; however, I made every effort to follow the same steps and procedures of data collection in Iran as I had used in NZ. Since data collection first took place in NZ, I was able to set a standard for myself on which I followed through with in the context of Iran.

The selection of the Iranian participants from a school that I had worked for previously proved to work in my favour in terms of access and understanding the school's teaching contexts. Also, the Iranian participants felt extremely comfortable to be observed and interviewed by a 'friend', as opposed to a researcher coming from another country. Furthermore, I had not discussed the nature of the study to any of the participants prior to data collection, which allowed all participants to perform more naturally in their classrooms and not consciously change their OCF practices.

According to Table 3.2, the NZ participants also included three female and two male teachers. Most of the NZ teachers had a university degree in language teaching-related majors. Similar to the Iranian participants, the NZ participants' teaching experience ranged from 2 to 30 years (median = 14). All the five NZ participants were native English speakers, who had experience of

learning a foreign language (such as German, Chinese, and Korean). Rose and Tom were the only NZ research participants who also had the experience of teaching in EFL contexts.

**Table 3. 2 NZ participants' basic information**

Participants	Gender	Age	Experience	Qualifications	Students' Level	No. of Students
Lisa	F	31-35	2 years	CELTA	I	11
Kylie	F	31-35	14 years	TESOL	UI	6
Rose	F	46-50	26 years	MA (TESOL)	UI	7
Jim	M	50+	10 years	BA (Marketing)	UI	13
				MA (Language Teaching)		
				BA (Chinese)		
Tom	M	50+	30 years	MA (French)	I	10

(Note: I: intermediate level; UI: upper-intermediate level)

### 3.5 Research instruments

As previously mentioned, my study aimed to investigate teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices in order to determine the relationship between the two. For this reason, different qualitative methods, such as interviews and classroom observations, were used for data collection. Interviews were selected as the appropriate method to determine research participants' beliefs, and observations enabled the measurement of participants' actual classroom practices. The following sections introduce each instrument and explain the reason for which each method of data collection was chosen. Table 3.3 summarises the instruments used to address each research question.

**Table 3. 3 Data collection methods used to address each research question**

Research Questions	Data Collection Methods
<b>RQ1</b> ( <i>What are the teachers' beliefs?</i> )	Elicitation interview & stimulated recall interview (after observations)
<b>RQ2</b> ( <i>How do teachers provide OCF?</i> )	Two classroom observations using video recordings
<b>RQ3</b> ( <i>What is the relationship between beliefs and practices?</i> )	Two interviews (elicitation & stimulated recall) & classroom observations

Also, as previously mentioned, prior to the main data collection, a pilot study was conducted to assess the appropriateness and relevance of the data collection instruments, the data collection procedures, and data analysis methods. The pilot study is further discussed in Section 3.8.

### **3.5.1 Background information questionnaire**

In addition to the instruments mentioned in Table 3.3, a background information questionnaire was used. The purpose of the background questionnaire was to gather basic information from the participants, such as their age, gender and teaching experience. While data from the background questionnaire did not address any of the research questions per se, it proved effective in gathering background information on each teacher in order to complete their profiles, as well as the fact that the teachers' responses to the questionnaire were at times later referred to during the interviews. The reason for using this questionnaire as the first step of data collection was to save time and allow the participants to provide general information about their qualifications, educational degree, teaching experience, and teaching styles in their own time. Through the background questionnaire and the general information participants had provided on it, I was able to go into the interviews with good knowledge of each teacher's background, and better manage the interview time and questions. An example of the background information questionnaire is included in the appendix (see Appendix I).

### **3.5.2 Interviews**

The data to address RQ1 were gathered through interviews. Each of the 10 teachers (five from Iran and five from NZ) took part in an elicitation and a stimulated recall interview. These semi-structured interviews enabled data collection on both predetermined and unpredicted categories (D. J. Brown, 2001) of teachers' beliefs about error correction. The interviews proved effective to the research objectives as they were not completely structured, and allowed the teachers to elaborate on their previously given responses on the background questionnaire (Mackey & Gass, 2005). A further advantage of using interviews is that they provided the means to deeply investigate the teachers' beliefs and affective attitudes on various issues regarding OCF. This is



because the interviews set the ground for confidentiality and honesty, so the teachers were encouraged to openly express their opinions (D. J. Brown, 2001).

In my study, which included a total of 20 interviews with the 10 participants, each interview was conducted in a place of the teacher's choice, which was mainly either in a classroom at the schools or the teachers' office. Also, all interviews with the ten teachers were conducted entirely in English.

*a) Initial Interview (Elicitation Interview)*

The elicitation interview asked the teachers about their beliefs on aspects of OCF. More specifically, it asked teachers about their affective attitudes (i.e. feelings) about learners' oral errors, their beliefs about the importance of OCF, the provision of OCF, and the sources of teachers' beliefs. The interview items were selected based on a review of related literature on key aspects of OCF (i.e. the importance and explicitness of OCF, the type(s) of errors to address, and the source and timing of OCF). While these key aspects of OCF, which represent Hendrickson's (1978) five question, were used to guide the initial interview, other related and follow up questions were also used to allow teachers to elaborate on other aspects of their OCF beliefs (see Appendix J). To validate the interview items, as previously mentioned, a pilot study was conducted and amongst other things, the pilot study provided information on the appropriateness and relevance of the interview questions to the focus of the study. The pilot study indicated that, apart from one interview item which was later removed for the main study, all other interview questions were appropriate and relevant to address RQ1.

Prior to conducting the elicitation interview, the teachers were given a copy of the interview questions, so as to allow them to go over the questions and think about their responses in their own time. Although the questions were the same across both instructional contexts for all teachers, some follow up questions were also raised when necessary. The elicitation interview was the main source of data for the first research question, which focused on teachers' beliefs the importance

and provision of OCF. An example of the initial interview questions is included in the appendix (see Appendix J).

*b) Second Interview (Stimulated recall interview)*

In addition to the initial interview which explored teachers' OCF beliefs, the teachers were invited to take part in a second interview which took place after each teacher was observed twice in the class. During the second interview, the teachers were shown recordings of their OCF practices and were asked to comment on them, a process known as 'stimulated recall interview'. Stimulated recall interviews (Borg, 2006; Gass & Mackey, 2000) involve the use of a stimulus (e.g. video or audio recordings) to help participants recall their thought processes at a particular time of a behaviour. During the interview, the teachers were asked to express their opinions on what they were observing, as well as to answer questions about whether they were happy with their error correction practices. The teachers were also asked to state whether they believed their OCF was effective and relevant to their stated beliefs. This allowed the teachers to verbalise their thoughts on their classroom practices.

In addition to expressing their perceptions about their own error correction practices, in cases where teachers' stated beliefs (from the initial interview) diverged from their OCF classroom practices, the teachers were encouraged to identify potential mediating factors that had prevented them from applying their beliefs into their classroom practice. In practice, the stimulated recall interview also allowed teachers to elaborate more on aspects of their OCF beliefs. The stimulated recall session was carried out within a short time interval from the classroom observations (i.e. up to 48 hours after). Minimizing the time between the classroom practice and the stimulated recall interview allowed the teachers to better recall the events (Gass & Mackey, 2000). The interviews were audio recorded, and I later transcribed them.

There are a number of advantages in using stimulated recall interviews in collecting data for studies that look at behaviours and practices. Research shows that participants are willing to engage in discussions about their practices (Burwell, 2005). Stimulated recall interviews also

allow researchers to obtain insight into why participants acted the way they did in certain contexts. A further advantage in using stimulated recall interviews is that they assist participants to think critically about their behaviour. Participants' comments during the stimulated recall interviews have the benefit of creating a valuable 'insider' perspective into exploring the phenomenon.

However, like any other research instrument, stimulated recall interviews can have their limitations. Their first limitation refers to the possibility of the participants reporting what they think in hindsight, as opposed to the reasons for their behaviour (Lyle, 2003). Second, participants' confidence or anxiety in their performance may affect their responses to the interview questions (Fuller & Manning, 1973). Finally, participants may experience stress and anxiety when watching their performances and being asked to comment on them (Fuller & Manning, 1973).

Despite these limitations, the benefit of using stimulated recall interview in my study was that it provided opportunity for the teachers to observe their OCF practices and comment on aspects of their teaching which might have differed from their stated beliefs. This allowed the teachers to further elaborate on their stated beliefs, as well as identifying possible factors that could have contributed to the mismatch between their beliefs and practices. An example of the stimulated recall interview questions is included in the appendix (see Appendix K).

### **3.5.3 Classroom observations**

My study used observation as a means of understanding not only the nature of teacher feedback in practice, but also the frequency and patterns of teachers' OCF practices. As previously stated, the classroom observations allowed for some level of quantification of teachers' OCF practices (e.g. frequency of feedback occurrences). Participation observation is used to gain deep and rich understandings of people's lives in their natural settings. However, given the subjectivity and unreliability of the nature of human behaviour (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), participant observation has long been criticised as a data collection method. To increase the reliability of observational data, the researcher needs to be trained in how and what to observe (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Despite the subjectivity of observations, they allow a phenomenon to be observed in its natural setting.

Classroom observations allow the researcher to obtain a first-hand account of the classroom events as opposed to receiving information from teachers on what they think happens (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Also, more reliable data will be obtained when participant observation is combined with other data collection methods such as interviews.

Depending on the role the researcher plays when observing participants, qualitative participant observation can be classified into four different types (Kawulich, 2005). In the first type known as complete participant, the researcher, who is a member of the group under investigation, puts aside and conceals her researcher role to obtain an insider's perspective of the phenomenon. In this type of observation, other members of the group are unaware of the researcher's role and that they are being observed. In the second type, participant-as-observer, again the researcher has a full participation with the group under investigation, however, the group is aware of the researcher's role. During the third type of observation, observer-as-participant, even though the group under investigation is aware of the status of the researcher, yet the researcher's relationship with the group members is strictly research-related. Finally, the researcher as a complete observer keeps a distance with the group members and performs as an objective observer.

In my study, the fourth type of observation was conducted, as I attended the classes solely as a non-participant observer. That is because, by being a non-participant observer, I could completely focus on teachers' classroom behaviour and their feedback practices without having to participate in any of the classroom tasks. Also, as a non-participant observer, I was able to distant myself from the students and the teachers and allow the teachers to carry on with their usual error correction practices. Observation sheets were also used to further record the classroom events. An example of the observation sheet is included in the appendix (see Appendix L).

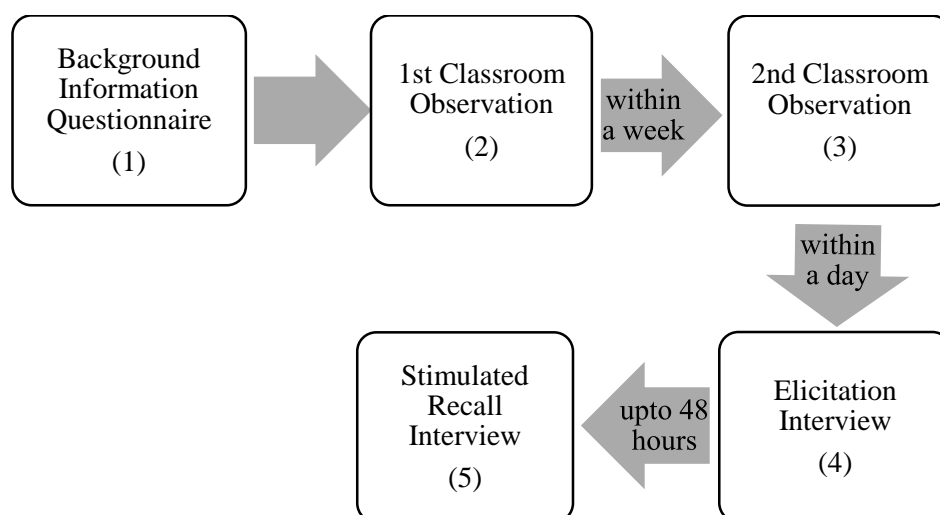
The field of teacher belief has benefited from the use of classroom observations to generate descriptions of teachers' mental processes (e.g. Kuzborska, 2011; Zheng, 2015). Nonetheless, this data collection method has been used in collaboration with other instruments to increase the depth of teacher belief explorations (Borg, 2006). One challenge of using observation as a method is

the issue of observer paradox (Labov, 1972), that is, observation and recording devices can alter participants' behavioural patterns. To reduce the effect of observer paradox and to increase the 'naturalness' of participants' classroom behaviour, this study observed each participant twice. Observing each participant twice proved to be effective in decreasing the effects of observer effect in two ways. First, spending more time with the participants in their natural settings allowed them to feel more comfortable with the camera and my presence. Second, doubling the time of observation of a phenomenon (in this case, teachers' feedback practices) can increase the naturalness of its occurrence.

In my study, the purpose of the classroom observations was to generate descriptions of how each teacher provided OCF in class. Furthermore, teachers' patterns of feedback practices were also looked at to allow for more detailed and quantitative analysis of aspects of their error correction practices. Therefore, participants were observed during their classroom teaching and the classes were video recorded and transcribed, and frequency counts of various aspects of their teaching practices were calculated.

### **3.6 Data collection procedure**

This section discusses the five steps involved in the collection of data. In sum, there were five steps of data collection for each teacher which spread over two weeks. Data collection started in NZ in November 2016 and ended in February 2017. In the context of Iran, data collection started in April 2017 and was completed in June 2017. Figure 3.1 summarises the data collection procedure of the study:



**Figure 3.1 Data collection procedure**

*Step (1)*

Data collection started with asking the teachers to fill in a background information questionnaire. As previously mentioned, the questionnaire aimed to collect basic information about each participant's teaching experience, age, teaching philosophy, and their school's teaching philosophy. The questionnaire took maximally 10 minutes to complete, and was given to the teachers during the first meeting that I had with them. The teachers returned the questionnaire some time during the classroom observations.

*Step (2)*

This step involved contacting the teachers to confirm the date for classroom observations and conducting the first classroom observation. On the day of the observation and prior to the start of each class, I had a video camera set up at the back of the classroom. Two microphones were also placed in the classroom (one positioned at the front and one in the middle of the class) to record all teacher-student interactions that occurred in class. The camera had a strong in-built attached microphone and recorded most, if not all, of the classroom interactions between the teacher and students. However, the two microphones also recorded the interactions between the teacher and the students. Then, I sat at the back of the classroom and attended the class as a non-participant observer and used an observation checklist to record notes relating to the classroom atmosphere, classroom tasks, and teachers' approaches to oral errors. Given the relatively small size of the

classrooms, and the placement of the camera and microphones, as well as the notes that I made during the observations, I was able to capture a full recording of the teacher's error correction practices in each class.

Since the teachers were unaware of the focus of the research, they followed through with their teaching without changing any part of their lesson plan. The placement of the video camera and microphones, and my seating position proved to be effective in the collection of natural occurring data in two ways. First, students seemed to forget the presence of an 'observer' and the camera, and second, also most teachers admitted to have 'completely forgotten about the camera and being observed'.

#### *Step (3)*

A second observation was also recorded to decrease the observer effect, and video recordings of each class started as soon as the teacher walked into the classroom and finished at the end of the classroom session. At the end of the second classroom observation, the teachers were asked about their preferred time and place of the interviews. Most teachers preferred to have the initial interview conducted within an hour of the second observed session and in the same classroom. A few teachers, however, chose to take part in the elicitation interview on the following day in their offices. In addition, teachers were given a copy of the interview questions at the end of the second classroom observation, to allow them sufficient time to go over the questions and be prepared. The minimum preparation time that the teachers had to go over the interview items was 1 hour. Even though a few teachers had more than an hour, depending on their preferred time of the initial interview, they admitted to only having looked at the interview items for maximally about an hour before the interview. Overall, a total of 30 hours of classroom observations were recorded from both observations; 15 hours for Iranian teachers and 15 hours for NZ teachers.

#### *Step (4)*

During the initial (elicitation) interview, the teachers were asked about their beliefs on issues regarding oral errors, the importance of OCF, the provision of OCF, and the sources of their

beliefs. The interviews were audio recorded. At the end of the initial interview, the teachers were invited to take part in the final step of data collection (i.e. a second interview) within the next 48 hours. Most teachers agreed to take part in the second interview (i.e. stimulated recall interview) on the following day. A few teachers, however, took part in the second interview within two days of the initial interview. The initial interviews were around 60-90 minutes long.

#### *Step (5)*

During the second interview, teachers were shown parts of their error correction practices and were asked to comment on them. The aim of the stimulated recall interview was to further explore teachers' beliefs about OCF, in addition to assess their perceptions of the usefulness of their error correction practices. At the beginning of the stimulated recall interview, the teachers were assured that the purpose of looking back at parts of their OCF practices was not to question and criticise them, but to allow them to observe their own practices and verbalised their thoughts on their classroom practices. The stimulated recall interviews took around about 30-60 minutes to conduct.

### **3.7 Data analysis**

This section discusses the methods used to analyse the data for each of the research questions. The discussion begins with a description of the qualitative analyses used in addressing RQ1, followed by the qualitative and simple statistical measurements taken to respond to RQ2. Finally, the qualitative analyses used to address RQ3 are presented.

#### **3.7.1 Data analysis procedure for RQ1**

Miles and Huberman's (1994) Interaction Model for Qualitative Data Analysis was used in analysing RQ1's qualitative data (i.e. data from the elicitation and stimulated recall interviews). According to this model, analysis of data involves three interrelated stages, namely, data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification.

#### *Stage one: Data Reduction*



As previously mentioned, data collected to address RQ1 was a total of 20 interview sessions which ranged from thirty minutes to an hour and thirty minutes in length. The first step in analysing the interview data was to transcribe the interviews verbatim. Then, I re-listened to each interview and looked through the transcripts to ensure their correctness. Then, the transcripts were sent to the teachers for member checking; that is, returning the interview data to the teachers and asking them to check through the data to verify it. This is to increase the validity and trustworthiness of qualitative results (Doyle, 2007). The teachers received the transcripts through email, and were asked to check the correctness of the transcriptions and also, inform of any parts of the transcripts that they would like to be excluded from the data. The teachers verified the transcripts and no part was excluded.

The next step was to organise and meaningfully reduce the mass of data that had been collected and transcribed. This stage, which is referred to as data reduction, involved selecting and simplifying data. In doing so, only interview data that directly related to the focus of the study and the research questions were selected and focused on. Any irrelevant data that had raised during interviews that did not directly contribute to the research questions were excluded from the data.

#### *Stage two: Data Display*

The second stage in Miles and Huberman's model is data display; which is creating a compressed and organised set of data that allows for patterns to emerge and conclusions to be drawn. In this stage, transcripts were re-read several times to identify themes and subthemes that emerged from the data. Following that, the emerging themes were summarised in tables based on two criteria; the main points raised in interview and the nationality and name of teachers. That is, the interview data were tabled to show the key points that were discussed in the interviews and what each teacher from the two contexts had stated about the points. When tabling the data, the focus was not only on what each teacher had stated separately, but also on patterns of common beliefs in the data as a whole; what themes were emergent for Iranian and NZ teachers. This is known as thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) of interview data. Tabling the data enabled for a more

comprehensive understanding of the themes and patterns that had emerged from the interview data.

That is, in addition to looking at what each teacher had stated during the interviews, I also looked at the Iranian and NZ teachers' responses as a whole and tried to find patterns of beliefs that could be compared across both instructional contexts. For example, when asked about their beliefs on whether or not oral errors should be corrected, four the five Iranian and teachers claimed that they correct oral errors to show to the learners that they are knowledgeable and attentive. This pattern of belief was identified in the Iranian context and was then compared to the belief patterns of the NZ teachers to determine if they held similar of different beliefs.

#### *Stage three: Conclusion Drawing and Verification*

The third stage of the model involves looking at the analysed data and drawing conclusions in order to address the research questions. Also, verification refers to revisiting the data constantly to verify the conclusions that have been made. I made conscious attempts to revisit the tables of data periodically, and looked for emerging themes, as well as checked the validity of the previously identified themes. This proved to be very effective as I became very engaged with the data and changes were made to my initial identified themes. By revisiting the tables of data, I looked at the relationships and conclusions to draw conclusion to address my first research question.

### **3.7.2 Data analysis procedure for RQ2**

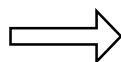
This section discusses the steps taken to analyse the classroom observation data for addressing RQ2, and in detail introduces the types of OCF moves that Iranian and NZ teachers used in their classrooms when treating oral errors.

#### **3.7.2.1 Transcription of classroom data**

To transcribe the classroom data, I carefully watched the 30 hours of video recordings and selected all classroom transcribed data that contained a student oral error. That is, all episodes that contained an oral error that students had made in course of the class, whether related to

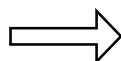
accuracy or apprehension, whether grammatical, lexical, pronunciation, or semantic, were identified. This criterion meant that I focused only on students' oral errors and the teachers' correction or lack of treatment of the oral errors. Other parts of the classroom observation data that did not contain a student oral error were disregarded for the purpose of the study. The selected parts were then transcribed verbatim and verified by later re-watching the video recordings and checking the transcripts. All classes were taught in English and there was no need to translate any sections of the classroom data. The following example taken from a classroom in Iran illustrates the criterion in selecting error episodes for analysis:

*T: the reading focuses on siblings  
who have inherited money from their  
parents. What does siblings mean?  
S1: brothers and sisters  
T: well done, it means brothers and  
sisters. How about inherit, what does  
inherit mean?*



Classroom data that has  
been excluded from the  
analysis, as it does not  
contain an oral error.

*S2: to receive money from  
T: no, no, no, not this one  
S3: receive some character  
T: aha, it's not about money or  
property (looks at S1), it's about  
characters or appearance*



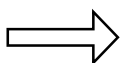
Classroom data that has been  
included in the analysis, as it  
includes an oral error.

### 3.7.2.2 Coding of types of feedback

Transcripts of classroom data showed that the teachers' responses to students' oral errors in this study can be classified into two main types; (1) OCF containing a type of negative feedback, and (2) provision of false positive confirmation of the error (as was the case with most of the NZ teachers). The two examples below show the differences in teachers' responses to oral errors.

#### Example 1

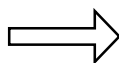
*S: She **wear** high heel  
T: She's wearing high heels*



Teacher's responds to student's oral  
error with negative feedback (i.e.  
OCF).

### Example 2

*S: She has a blue eyes*  
*T: Yeah, good.*



Teacher's responds to student's oral error with false positive confirmation.

### ***What is an episode?***

In my study, the teachers' responses (either positive or negative) followed by an oral error was considered as an episode. The episodes comprised a trigger (i.e. student's oral error), teachers' feedback move on the oral error, and (optionally) uptake (Ellis, 2009). The following example from Mina's classroom observation data shows an episode.

*S: but John get stressed easily*  
*T: gets*  
*S: gets stressed easily*  
*T: very good*

Trigger (containing an oral error)  
Teacher's response to the oral error  
Student's response to teacher feedback (*uptake*)

### **3.7.2.3 The study's framework of feedback types**

To code teachers' OCF types, a combination of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) taxonomy of feedback, Nassaji's (2007) definition of feedback types (metalinguistic feedback vs. metalinguistic cue), Nassaji's (2015) definition of interrogative and declarative recast, and Fu and Nassaji's (2016) framework of 12 feedback types were used. However, transcripts of the Iranian and NZ language teachers' classroom data highlighted the necessity of creating a new framework of feedback types for the purpose of the study. In doing so, all three above-mentioned taxonomies, with the addition of Ellis's (2009) taxonomy, were adapted to construct a framework specifically for my study.

While the resulting framework contains many feedback types mentioned in the earlier taxonomies, it also includes one feedback type (i.e. explicit indication) that has not been identified previously. The resulting comprehensive framework (Table 3.4) is a list of all feedback types used by the Iranian and NZ teachers in their classrooms.

**Table 3. 4 Framework used to code the types of feedback**

<b>Feedback Type</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Example</b>
<b>1. Declarative Recast</b>	The reformulation of the student's erroneous utterance (Fu & Nassaji, 2016)	S: she <i>listen</i> , she usually <i>listen</i> T: she usually listens regularly S: yes
<b>2. Interrogative Recast</b>	The reformulation of the student's erroneous utterance in the form of a question. (Nassaji, 2015)	T: Yesterday you went out, how was it? S: it is, it was so hard to .. <i>went</i> to the destination T: oh it was hard to get there was it? S: (continues talking)
<b>3. Clarification request</b>	The indication to the student that the message has not being understood (Ellis, 2009) and that it contains an error and requires reformulation.	S1: he is a cruel (wrong) person T: sorry what do you mean? S2: cruel S1: cruel T: cruel
<b>4. Metalinguistic feedback</b>	Providing information on the student's erroneous utterance, along with providing the correct form. (Fu & Nassaji, 2016)	S: I was reality show T: for TV we say on reality show S: (continues talking)
<b>5. Metalinguistic cue</b>	Providing information on the student's erroneous utterance, without providing the correct form. (Fu & Nassaji, 2016)	S: my friend <i>have</i> been there T: my friend is only one person S: has T: yes
<b>6. Elicitation</b>	Giving the student a chance to self-correct without asking a direct question. (Fu & Nassaji, 2016)	S: depends to their objects T: it .. (pause) S: it depend T: it depends S: it depends
<b>7. Explicit correction</b>	Clearly indicating that the student has made an erroneous utterance and providing the correct form. (Ellis, 2009)	S: he's over here T: over here no, over there, you say here (gestures), over there (gestures) S: over there, over there
<b>8. Repetition</b>	Repeating the student's erroneous utterance with a rising intonation to draw attention to it. (Fu & Nassaji, 2016)	S1: how are you job going? T: <i>how are your job going?</i> S2: is T: yes
<b>9. Re-ask</b>	Repeating the same question in a heightened tone after the student has made an error (Yoshida, 2010) to encourage reformulation.	S1: what wearing he T: <i>the question was what is he wearing?</i> S2: she's wearing jeans T: (nods) yes

<b>Feedback Type</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Example</b>
<b>10. Directing question to other students</b>	Asking other students for the correct answer. (Fu & Nassaji, 2016)	T: what does the exhausted mean? S1: very fast T: no, what does it mean? (looks at others for answer) S2: very tired T: yes
<b>11. Use of L1</b>	Using L1 to convey feedback to student easier. (Fu & Nassaji, 2016)	T: how are they similar? S: they're painting seriously T: no, they ... S: they, both of them are .. T: خیلی خیلی سخت کار می کنند (: they work very very hard) S: extremely serious
<b>12. Explicit indication</b>	Explicitly indicating to the student that there is an error, without providing the correct form or any other information.	S1: mustn't T: no, but that's a common mistake. Not mustn't or must not S2: can't T: can't
<b>13. Nonverbal feedback</b>	Using facial expression or gestures 1) to indicate that there is an error (non-verbal indication), (Ellis, 2009) or 2) to give metalinguistic information about the error (non-verbal metalinguistic cue).	S: I go to the T: (points backwards to indicate that it is past) S: I went to the company
<b>14. Multiple feedback</b>	Using multiple types of feedback to correct an error.	S: teacher I don't be ready for it. T: you don't be ready? (rising intonation). You were not ready for it. S: yes, you were not ready for it.

In addition to the above-mentioned OCF types which all classify as negative feedback, transcripts of classroom observation data indicated that both Iranian, and in particular NZ teachers also used a type of positive feedback. I refer to this type of feedback, which has not been identified in the literature, as 'false positive confirmation'. The reason I am referring to it as 'false' positive confirmation is that despite the student's erroneous utterance, the teacher confirms the ill-formed language production and consequently may give the student the impression that the produced language is correct. In the following example, the Iranian teacher responded to the students' oral error by falsely confirming his ill-formed language production both verbally and non-verbally.

T: Nima what did you learn about Ali?  
 S: OK, Ali have, he have 2 cousins  
 T: (nods to agree) yep, good  
 S: 4 family members

### 3.7.2.4 Types of students' oral errors

In addition to coding teachers' feedback types, students' oral errors were also classified as being one of four types: morpho-syntactic, phonological, lexical, or semantic error. An example of each error type is shown in Table 3.5.

**Table 3. 5 Types of students' oral errors**

Types of errors	Example
1. Morpho-syntactic	S: he <i>like</i> movies T: he ... (pauses) S: he likes
2. Phonological	S: his hair is <i>bald</i> (wrong pronunciation) T: bold (nods to agree) S: bold
3. Lexical	S: I've <i>paraglide</i> before T: that's not paragliding, that's parachuting, with a boat S: yes
4. Semantic	T: who's the most reliable person in your family? S: my <i>cousin</i> is the most reliable person T: in your family? S: yes T: your cousin is your relative, in your family? S: Oh, my mum is the most reliable person

### 3.7.2.5 Reliability and Member Validation in Coding

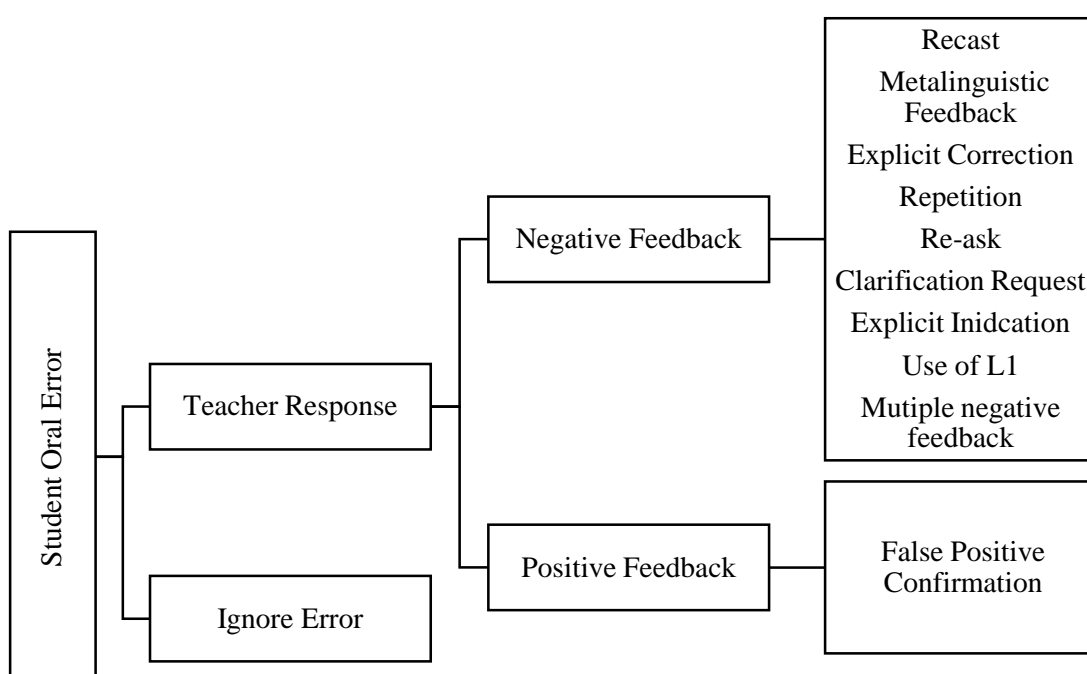
Reliability refers to the consistency in data collection and analysis (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Since the codes (i.e. OCF types) that had been identified for the purpose of my study played an important role in classifying, analysing, and interpreting the data, it was important to establish the validity and reliability in coding.

Therefore, both inter and intra-rater reliability were used to check the coding of feedback types. Intra-rater reliability was enhanced by re-coding the feedback types five times during a period of three months. Also, inter-rater reliability was enhanced by randomly selecting 30% of all feedback episodes and asking a second coder to code the feedback types. The second coder was a doctoral graduate student in the field of applied linguistics whom I had trained to understand the different

OCF types that had been identified in the study. There was 83.7 % agreement between his and my coding of the feedback types, and areas of doubts were decided on by consensus.

### 3.7.2.6 Model of error correction

After looking at transcripts of the Iranian and NZ teachers' classroom data, a model of error correction was developed for the purpose of this study (see Figure 3.2). Figure 3.2, which is adapted from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model of error correction, summarises the error correction procedure that occurred in my study. While Lyster and Ranta's model explains the full procedure that starts with students' errors and ends with topic continuation, this model focuses merely on aspects of teacher feedback.



**Figure 3. 2 Error correction model**

According to this model, as the student makes an oral error, the teacher either ignores the oral error or responds to it. In the case of responding to the error, teacher feedback can further be categorised into being either negative or positive. My study proposes that in addition to the many OCF types that teachers use to respond to oral errors, which all classify as negative feedback, teachers may also respond to oral errors positively. In other words, negative feedback includes the different OCF types that teachers use to either reformulate students' erroneous utterances, or



elicit the correct response from the students. Positive feedback, on the other hand, refers to teacher feedback that aims to encourage students even despite their production of ill-formed language that contains an oral error.

### 3.7.2.7 Counting teachers' OCF feedback

After coding the OCF types and categorizing types of students' oral errors, the frequency of the oral errors, feedback episodes, total number of feedback moves, and ignored errors were counted. This was to determine how each teacher individually, and the Iranian and NZ teachers as a group, responded to students' oral errors in class.

Transcripts of classroom data contained information on many aspects of teacher feedback and learner uptake; however, for the purpose of RQ2, only relevant data were selected and focused on. In other words, RQ1 and RQ2 were aimed to assess the same key points, one in beliefs and one in practices. Therefore, because RQ1 focused on teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF and the sources of teachers' beliefs, to address RQ2, only classroom data that directly related to the three main objectives of RQ1 were chosen and analysed. Other classroom data that did not directly correspond to the main factors of teachers' beliefs (assessed in RQ1), were excluded for analysis for RQ2. Table 3.6 illustrates parts of the transcripts of observation data that were used to address RQ2 with regards to the key points discussed in RQ1.

**Table 3. 6 Key points assessed in teachers' beliefs (RQ1) and practices (RQ2)**

<b>Key points assessed for RQ1</b>	<b>Key points assessed for RQ2</b>
<b>1a.</b> Should errors be <u>corrected</u> ?	1b. Number of <u>corrected errors</u>
<b>2a.</b> <u>How</u> should errors be corrected?	2b. Number of <u>implicit vs. explicit</u> OCF types Frequency of each OCF type
<b>3a.</b> Which of <u>error type</u> is more important to correct?	3b. Number of errors corrected from <u>each error type</u> ( <i>morpho-syntactic, phonological, lexical, semantic</i> )
<b>4a.</b> <u>Who</u> should correct errors?	4b. Number of <u>reformulations vs. prompts, &amp; peer correction</u>
<b>5a.</b> <u>When</u> should errors be corrected?	5b. Number of <u>immediate vs. delayed</u> OCF types

In what follows, I explain the reason for focusing only on the above-mentioned aspects from the transcripts of classroom data to address RQ2, and argue how each aspect relates to the objectives of the study. I also present the analysis procedure for each section.

#### *1b) Number of corrected oral errors*

One of the first interview items asked whether teachers believed oral errors should be corrected or not. In terms of practice, to explore the extent to which teachers corrected oral errors in class, the total number of corrected errors (also known as episodes) were counted. By dividing the number of corrected errors by the total number of student oral errors and multiplying it by 100, a percentage count was found which indicated the extent to which each teacher corrected oral errors in practice.

$$\text{Extent of error correctioin} = \frac{\text{Number of corrected oral errors}}{\text{Total number of oral errors}} \times 100$$

#### *2b) Number of implicit vs. explicit feedback moves*

To determine how teachers corrected oral errors, I explored their classroom practices with regards to two themes: (1) the explicitness of their OCF practices, and (2) the range of OCF types they used in response to oral errors. With regards to the explicitness of their practices, I looked at the extent to which they used implicit and explicit feedback. In doing so, I initially classified the OCF types into two groups of explicit and implicit feedback, and counted the total number of feedback moves in each of the two groups and conducted a percentage count. Li's (2010) meta-analysis was used as a basis for categorizing different OCF types in my study (see Table 3.7). The modifications made to Li's categorization were the addition of re-ask to implicit feedback types, and explicit indication, direct question at others, use of L1, and non-verbal feedback to explicit feedback types.

**Table 3. 7 Taxonomy of explicitness of OCF types (Adapted from S. Li (2010))**

<b>Implicit</b>	<b>Explicit</b>
Recast	Explicit correction
Clarification request	Explicit indication
Elicitation	Metalinguistic feedback
Repetition	Direct question at others
Re-ask	Use of L1
	Non-verbal feedback

$$\text{Implicit OCF} = \frac{\text{Number of implicit OCF types}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Explicit OCF} = \frac{\text{Number of explicit OCF}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

In addition to the explicitness of the teachers' OCF practices, a further point that was considered to determine 'how' teachers corrected oral errors, was the range of different OCF types they used. In doing so, all the different OCF types that each teacher provided were coded and counted to determine the frequency of their usage. To determine the extent to which the teachers provided the different OCF types, the number of each type, for example clarification requests, was divided by the total number of OCF types teachers provided.

$$\text{Range of OCF types} = \frac{\text{Number of each OCF type}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

### *3b) Number of corrected errors from each error type*

To determine which type(s) of oral errors teachers corrected most, the extent to which the teachers corrected each of the four types of oral errors (i.e. morpho-syntactic, phonological, lexical, and semantics) was examined. In doing so, errors were categorised into the four types of skills and the errors from each category that were corrected were counted. Finally, a percentage count was conducted to determine the extent to which each teacher corrected each of the four types of oral errors. The following equation shows the measurement for lexical errors. The three other types of errors were also counted accordingly.

$$\text{Correction of lexical errors} = \frac{\text{Number of corrected lexical errors}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

#### 4b) Number of immediate vs. delayed feedback moves

To determine the timing of the teachers' error correction practices, the OCF types they used were categorised as being either immediate or delayed. The categorization of the timing of OCF types is presented in Table 3.8.

**Table 3. 8 Categorization of immediate vs. delayed OCF types**

<b>Immediate</b>	<b>Delayed</b>
Recast	Delayed metalinguistic feedback
Repetition	
Elicitation	
Clarification request	
Re-ask	
Direct question at others	
Use of L1	
Non-verbal feedback	
Direct question at others	
Use of L1	
Non-verbal feedback	
Explicit correction	
Explicit Indication	

From there, to determine the extent to which the teachers corrected oral error immediately, the total number of immediate OCF types they provided was divided by the total number of their OCF types and then multiplied by 100. The same measurement was conducted for delayed OCF.

$$\text{Immediate OCF} = \frac{\text{Number of immediate OCF types}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Delayed OCF} = \frac{\text{Number of delayed OCF types}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

#### 5b) Number of reformulations vs. prompts

To investigate which source of OCF teachers used most, their error correction practices were categorised into one of three types: (1) teacher correction (which was explored through the OCF

types that categorised as reformulations), (2) self-correction (which was determined through the number of OCF types that classified as prompts), and (3) peer correction (which was counted as instances of interaction where another student corrected an error of a fellow student). As previously mentioned, through reformulations, teachers rephrase students' erroneous utterances into correct language forms. Prompts, on the other hand, instead of providing the student with the correct form, encourage students to self-correct (Ellis, 2009). The feedback types used in my study were categorised based on Nassaji's (2015) classification of reformulations and prompts (elicitations) (see Table 3.9).

**Table 3. 9 Categorization of reformulations vs. prompts**

<b>Reformulations</b>	<b>Prompts</b>
Recast	Metalinguistic feedback
Explicit correction	Repetition
	Elicitation
	Clarification request
	Re-ask
	Direct question at others
	Use of L1
	Explicit indication
	Non-verbal feedback

To compare the provision of reformulations, prompts, and peer OCF by Iranian and NZ teachers to determine their practices on 'who' should correct errors, a percentage count was conducted on the total number of reformulations and prompts provided by the teachers, and the instances of peer OCF that occurred in each classroom.

$$Teacher\ correction = \frac{\text{Number of reformulations}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

$$Self - correction = \frac{\text{Number of prompts}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

$$Peer\ correction = \frac{\text{Number of peer OCF}}{\text{Total number of OCF types provided}} \times 100$$

### 3.7.3 Data Analysis Procedure for RQ3

This section presents the analysis procedure used to address RQ3. The analysis of RQ3 was a comparison of the data that had already been analysed for RQ1 and RQ2. That is, given the comparative nature of RQ3 which looks at the application of teachers' OCF beliefs to their practices, rather than analysing a new set of data, already analysed data from RQ1 and RQ2 were put alongside each other and compared.

As shown in Table 3.10, RQ3 looked at the key items discussed in the interviews and the classroom data that related to the interview item. For example, teachers discussed their beliefs about whether or not oral errors should be corrected in the interviews; thus, the total number of oral errors which they corrected was counted and then compared to their stated beliefs. The aim was to identify the similarities/differences between what teachers had stated in the interviews, and how they performed in class.

**Table 3. 10 Comparison of data on belief interviews and classroom practices**

<b>Stated beliefs</b>	<b>Observed practices in class</b>
The importance of correcting errors	Number of episodes, and feedback moves
How to correct errors	Number of implicit vs. explicit feedback Number of each type of OCF
Which errors to correct	Number of corrections of type of error
Who to correct errors	Number of reformulations vs. prompts feedback, and peer OCF
When to correct errors	Number of immediate vs. delayed OCF

For each participant, their beliefs about key points that had been raised in the interviews were summarised into a column in the table. In the next column, each teacher's classroom practices that related to that particular belief were measured and presented. Consequently, each of the 10 teachers' beliefs raised in RQ1 were tabled alongside their classroom practices which had been counted and measured based on the same statistical measurements used in RQ2.

The result was a table with two main columns in which one included each teacher's stated beliefs about five key aspects of error correction, and one which included the descriptive statistical

measurement of the teacher's classroom practices. Then, by looking at each teacher's beliefs and the teacher's actual classroom practices, conclusions were made on the extent of the relationship between the teacher's stated beliefs and actual practices.

The following example (Table 3.11) from the Iranian teacher, Mina, illustrates how each teacher's beliefs (from RQ1) and classroom practices (from RQ2) were tabled alongside each other to compare the two (for RQ3). In this example, Mina's beliefs and practices on the issue of correcting oral errors have been compared. As Table 3.11 shows, Mina believed in the importance of correcting all student errors, and in practice she corrected all oral errors. That is, Mina's beliefs and practices on the issue of correcting errors completely aligned.

**Table 3. 11 Mina's beliefs and practices on correcting errors**

<b>Stated beliefs</b>	<b>Observed practices</b>
All errors must be corrected; I try not to ignore errors.	Total occurred errors: 158 Corrected errors: 158

### **3.8 Pilot study**

As previously stated, prior to the main study, I conducted a pilot study in NZ with one participant. The participant was a non-native English teacher who had been teaching English as a second language in NZ for four years and had a background in applied linguistics. The pilot was conducted for the following reasons:

- Assessing the feasibility of the full-scale study, in particular the classroom observations
- Exploring the effectiveness of data collection processes and data analysis methods
- Assessing the usefulness of interview questions in investigating the aims of the study
- Designing a comprehensive research protocol
- Determining the best angle for setting up the camera, and the placement of microphones to achieve highest quality of video and audio recordings
- Identifying problems that could occur during the set-up of camera and microphones in class
- Examining students' reaction to the presence of the camera and microphones in class

The pilot study proved to be effective both with regards to data collection procedure and data analysis methods. In data collection, it provided insights on whether the instruments were effective in collecting data to address all the research questions of my study. The pilot study assisted data collection in observations by testing and choosing the most suitable positioning of the camera and microphones for the classroom observations. It also provided a platform to practice conducting interviews with teachers.

The pilot study participant was also asked to provide feedback both on the observations and the interview sessions. The pilot study participant's background and knowledge of applied linguistics proved to be effective as he provided comprehensive feedback on the interview items (both elicitation and simulated recall interviews), which ultimately led to the selection/confirmation of the appropriate questions for the focus of the study. His feedback indicated that one interview item which enquired about the relationship between participants' motivation to become a teacher and their beliefs about feedback was vague. Therefore, the interview item was removed. Apart from that, all other interview questions showed to be comprehensive and to the point with regards to investigating different aspects of participants' beliefs about OCF.

The pilot study was also effective with regards to data analysis methods. The qualitative data of the pilot study was initially analysed using NVivo; however, I decided to manually analyse the qualitative data of the main study. That is because, through manual analysis, I was better able to engage in the data and develop critical thinking towards it to find links and draw conclusions. Also, considering the size and type qualitative data that I had for the main study, manual analysis proved to be more effective.

### **3.9 Trustworthiness**

While quantitative studies benefit from statistical approaches in creating validity and reliability of findings, qualitative studies use methodological approaches to establish the 'trustfulness' of findings (Noble & Smith, 2015). Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that trustworthiness of a study



can be obtained through credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. Credibility is creating belief in the reality and rightness of a study's findings. Transferability is making the findings of the study applicable to other contexts. Dependability refers to the state of consistency in the findings of a study, and finally, conformability is the extent to which the findings of the study represent the participants' of the study and not the researchers'. Creswell (2013) claims that at least two of these four strategies are adequate to establish trustworthiness for a good research.

In my study, trustworthiness was gained during both the collection and the analysis of data. Credibility achieved through 'member checking' by providing the research participants' with the interview data to allow them to verify its accuracy. This was done when conducting the elicitation and stimulated recall interviews by giving the teachers transcripts of the interviews to read and comment on before analysing them to ensure that the interviews reflected the participants' words and ideas.

The transferability, or wider application, of the study was achieved through 'thick description', which refers to providing rich sufficient details on the contexts, participants, and different stages of the study to create a detailed account of the research study to allow conclusions to be drawn to other similar contexts and participants. Confirmability of the study was established in a number of ways; *audit trail*, triangulation and *reflexivity* (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Audit trails are records of how the qualitative study was constructed, and the researcher clearly describes all the taken research stages from data collection, research design to report of the findings. In my study, field notes that had been made during the classroom observations were also used to document not only the events that took place, but also to describe thoughts that I had about various issues of the study. Finally, reflexivity which refers to the attitude of systematically attending the construction of knowledge in a stepwise manner, was achieved using a researcher's journal (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In doing so, I kept a diary and made regular attempts to record my interpretations and reflections of various stages of the research study.

### **3.10 Ethical considerations**

The ethics committee of Auckland University of Technology's (AUTEC) approval of my research study was gained in June 2106 (Ethics Application Number 16/200). Prior to conducting the research, I approached the heads of the schools by sending them a formal email to inform them of my research study and the stages involved in data collection (see Appendices F and G for a sample of the letters). Throughout the research, both data and participant privacy and confidentiality were considered as the number one priority. The teachers were initially sent information sheets of the research procedures and the nature of their participation and a consent form. If the teachers agreed to voluntarily take part in the study, they were asked to sign the consent form (see Appendices C and D) and return it through email. Also, the teachers were reassured that there would be no consequences on their employment, social status or grades at their schools, and that they could stop their participation from the research study at any time. The teachers were assured that any information or footage they provided would be used solely and exclusively for the purpose of the research. Overall, three principles were implemented from the start of the study; namely principles of partnership, participation, and protection.

The principle of partnership was implemented by ensuring that there was respect and benefit for the participants. The study centred on English language teachers; therefore, the research participants all shared the same interest of improving their knowledge of language teaching, and in particular, their interactions with their students. Given that the aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices on OCF, the teachers' involvement could have benefited their language teaching career. Through their involvement, the teachers gained deeper insights into their own personal beliefs and classroom practices to develop a better understanding of the role of OCF in correcting errors. Also, after the second interview, I shared parts of my classroom observation notes with the teachers to inform them of my notes as an observer. The teachers claimed that their participation in the study, along with the notes that I shared with them, benefited them by increasing their awareness of their beliefs and practices on error correction.

The principle of participation was implemented by clarifying to the teachers what their role was in the study and how data that they provided benefited the research study. The teachers were told that their main role was to provide data through filling in a short questionnaire, responding to interview questions, allowing for classroom observations and recordings to be made of their teaching. The information was initially conveyed to the teachers through a Participation Information Sheet (see Appendix B) and later explained further in person during the first meeting with each teacher.

The principle of protection was implemented through referring to the participants with pseudo names to protect their identity. Also, no mention of their school names have been made. As for the students in each class, there are no mentions of any names and they have been referred to as simply ‘students’ in the study. In addition, member checking was conducted by giving the transcripts of the interviews to the teachers to allow them to delete any parts which they felt uncomfortable with. The teachers that responded to the member checking all stated that they completely agree with the content of the transcripts and no changes had to be made.

### **3.11 Summary**

The chapter described a detailed description of the research approach, research participants, the data collection and analysis procedures, followed by a discussion of trustworthiness and related ethical issues. An exploratory multiple-case study approach was chosen to investigate the teachers’ beliefs about OCF, their actual classroom practices, and the relationship between the two, in two different instructional contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL). The study used a qualitative approach to data collection in order to enhance our understanding of the teachers’ OCF beliefs and practices. The analysis of the data included qualitative (RQ1 & RQ3) procedures, in addition to very limited statistical descriptive measurements (RQ2). The chapter finished with the study’s ethical considerations and the steps taken to ensure the participants’ privacy.

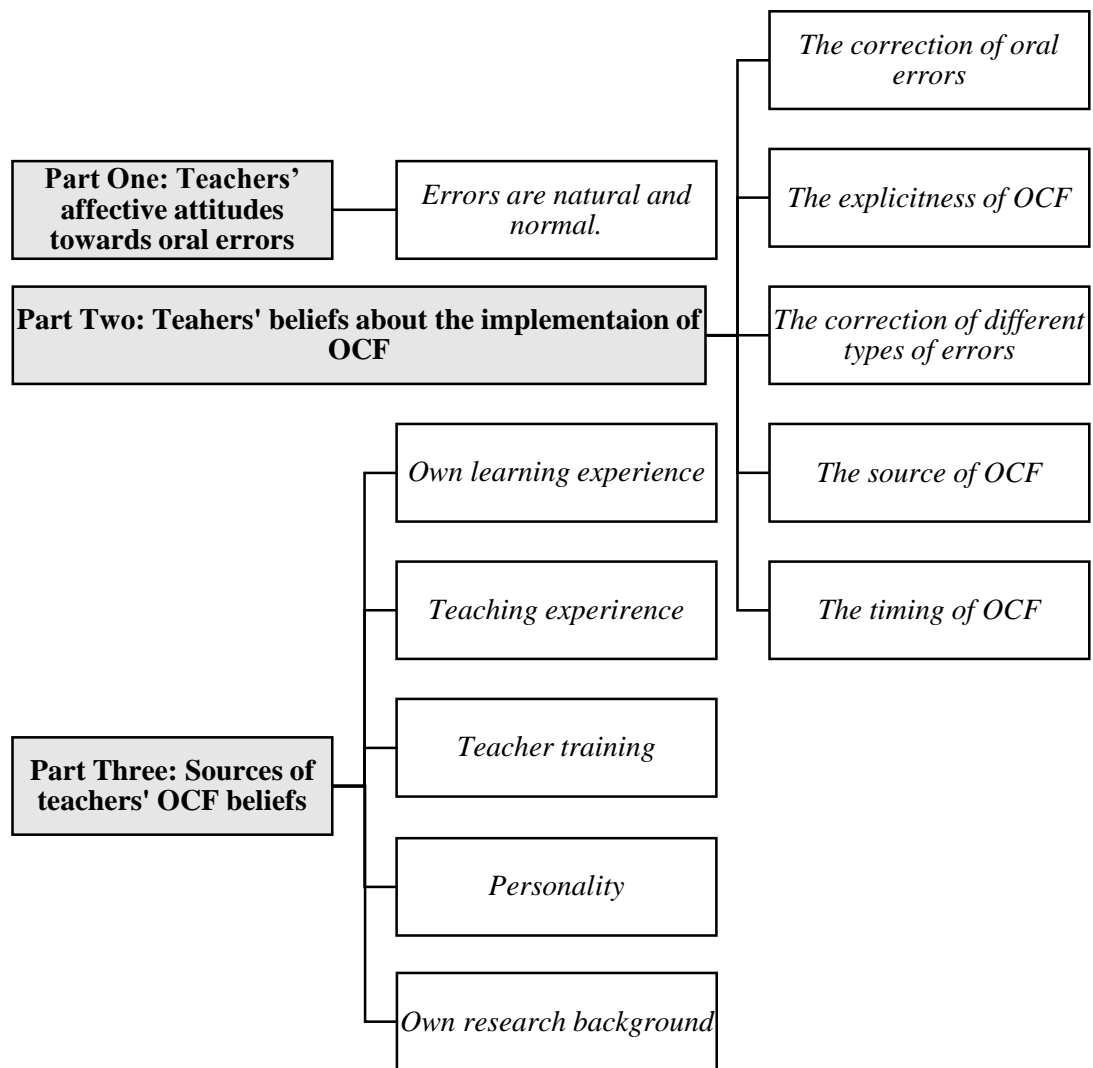
## Chapter 4: Findings

### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents findings related to the three research questions. RQ1 was posed to explore and compare the beliefs of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers about learners' oral errors, the provision of OCF, and the sources of the teachers' beliefs. RQ2 was designed to investigate and compare the actual classroom error correction practices of Iranian and NZ teachers. Finally, RQ3 was framed to explore and compare the relationship between OCF beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers. As explained in the Methodology chapter, an exploratory multiple-case qualitative approach was used to obtain rich data on teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the link between them across two instructional contexts (Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL). To analyse the qualitative data, Miles and Huberman's (1994) Interaction Model for Qualitative Data Analysis was used which involved three interrelated activities, namely, data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. In what follows, the findings of the three research questions are presented.

#### **4.1 RQ1: What beliefs do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers hold about: learners' oral errors, the provision of OCF, and the sources of their beliefs?**

Figure 4.1 shows the three main sub-parts of RQ1 that deal with teachers' beliefs about aspects of OCF, namely, (a) affective attitudes about learners' oral errors, (b) beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF, and (c) the sources of such beliefs. Two of these categories are further divided into sub-categories. The OCF provision category includes the concepts of whether or not to correct errors, how to correct, which errors to correct, who to correct, and when to correct. Sources of teachers' beliefs includes teachers' own language learning experience, teacher training courses, teaching experience, personality, and their research education.



**Figure 4. 1 Main parts of RQ1**

In what follows, findings of the interview data from both Iranian and NZ teachers are presented. I would present each of the three main sections as Part One, Part Two, and Part Three. Within each of the three main sections, I discuss the key points that arose from the teacher interview data, followed by an elaboration of each key point. It should be noted that, in my study, data related to the initial and stimulated recall interviews have been referred to as ‘1’ and ‘2’, respectively.

#### **4.1.1 PART ONE: Teachers’ beliefs about students’ oral errors**

This section presents the findings related to teachers’ affective attitudes towards learners’ oral errors. It indicates that overall, apart from two Iranian teachers, the teachers in my study had a positive affective attitude towards learners’ oral errors and considered errors natural.

#### 4.1.1.1 Teachers' affective attitudes towards students' oral errors

Affective attitude is a mental state that includes beliefs and feelings (Latchanna & Dagneu, 2009), which in this study refers to teachers' perceptions and feelings towards students' oral errors. The main point that emerged from teachers' attitudes towards students' oral errors was that 'errors are natural'. This point is discussed below.

*(1) Errors are a natural and normal part of language learning.*

Interview data showed that all five NZ teachers and three Iranian teachers (Mina, Shadi, & Saber) claimed to have a positive affective attitude towards oral errors and believed errors to be a normal and natural part of language learning. The manifestation of this positive attitude is reflected in Mina, Saber, and Kylie's responses:

*"It's very natural for students to make errors, that's why they're students" (Mina. 1)*

*"I'm perfectly okay with students making errors" (Saber. 1).*

*"I'm happy for them to make errors because it means they're trying with language and that's a positive thing." (Kylie. 1)*

Most teachers believed oral errors to be "a normal part of learning" (Shadi, Rose, Jim, & Tom), and claimed that correction helps students learn from their mistakes (Saber, Lisa, & Rose). Parts of the teachers' interview data indicating their positive attitudes towards students' oral errors are presented below.

*"I don't feel disappointed when they do (make errors), because they need to make those mistakes to learn how to correct them. So everyone makes mistakes. I just feel it's fine, everyone does it, it's okay." (Lisa. 1)*

*"As a teacher and as a language learner myself I know errors are all part of learning a language and so it's not a feeling of oh they failed or they're not learning or not improving, it's like okay let's use this as a way to improve." (Rose. 1)*

*"I think it's (errors are) entirely natural. I know from being a language learner as an adult that errors are unavoidable and natural and so I don't feel anything wrong. I don't feel surprised as a teacher obviously. I don't have a negative feeling about it." (Jim. 1)*

Only two teachers (Baran & Amir) noted a contrary view that they do not have a very positive perception towards oral errors and stated that errors concern them. The two Iranian teachers

explained their negative attitudes towards oral errors by stating that, at the upper-intermediate level, students are expected to produce correct language.

*“In this level, I would really get angry because you know they've studied all the grammar and the rules, so in this level you expect them to make correct sentences, have the correct pronunciation, do not have any mistakes but unfortunately they usually do and I don't feel okay with it.” (Baran. 1)*

*“Naturally it (error) bothers me especially if it's something I have already taught them.” (Amir. 1)*

However, despite having a negative affective attitude, both Iranian teachers stated that they try to exercise patience towards their students when they make errors, or simply pretend that they are receptive of the errors.

*“I try to be patient, as a teacher you need to be patient because if I want to lose my temper quickly, that will have a negative effect on them and they would lose their self-confidence.” (Baran. 1)*

*“I try to, at least pretend that I am okay with it, I try to somehow hide it.” (Amir. 1)*

To conclude, all five NZ teachers and three Iranian teachers (Mina, Shadi, & Saber) expressed a positive affective attitude towards students' oral errors. The teachers believed oral errors to be a natural part of language learning and an indication to L2 development. The only two teachers (Baran & Amir) who claimed to not have a very supportive perception noted that they still try to show that they are receptive of students' errors. An important note is that these two teachers were both teaching upper intermediate classes at the time of data collection and believed that students of an upper intermediate language proficiency are expected to produce correct language structures.

#### **4.1.2 PART TWO: Teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF**

This section presents the findings related to teachers' beliefs about five key aspects of OCF (i.e. Hendrickson's (1978) key questions). The results showed that teachers' beliefs on aspects of OCF at times varied from one teacher to another, but overall some Iranian teachers held stronger beliefs (i.e. expressed more support) about the importance of correcting oral errors than the NZ teachers did. Nonetheless, there were also areas of similarities between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs, for examples with regards to the explicitness and timing of OCF. In what follows, I present the findings on each of these five aspects.

#### 4.1.2.1 Teachers' beliefs about the correction of oral errors

The interview data indicated that all five Iranian and five NZ teachers believed that oral errors should be corrected; however, there was a marked difference in the extent to which the teachers considered oral error correction to be necessary. While three of five Iranian teachers (Mina, Baran, & Shadi) believed oral error correction to be necessary, only one NZ teacher (Tom) similarly expressed strong support for error correction. The interview responses indicate their strong support for OCF:

*"All errors should be corrected. Actually, I have to say **have to be corrected** ... I try not to ignore. I try not to ignore my students' errors and mistakes". (Mina. 1)*

*"Yeah, yeah I do (think errors should be corrected). I think in their homestay situations and shops nobody would ever correct them, so I think as a teacher, it's your duty to correct them, cause nobody else will and they're just going to go with them making mistakes. I think it's my job to correct people." (Tom. 1)*

*"yeah because I want to remind them that they've made a mistake and they should be more careful. If you don't correct some students they would have a kind of wrong self-confidence and then at the end of the term they would expect you to give them the highest score, you know that is another problem too." (Baran. 1).*

Also, Baran believed that students need to be reminded that there are areas that they still need to learn from. She also hoped to avoid the end of semester 'hassles' with weak students where they want to move up to the next level and believe that they should. Also, while Tom's response includes his perception about the role of teachers in classrooms, he highlights the importance of error correction for learners.

Contrary to this, two Iranian (Amir & Saber) and four NZ teachers (Lisa, Kylie, Rose, & Jim) acknowledged the importance of oral error correction and yet stressed the importance of not 'over-doing' it. For example, both Amir and Saber believed that some oral errors occur because of students' lack of concentration (Amir), or a slip of the tongue (Saber), and these errors are best not to be corrected. Nonetheless, Amir insisted that if errors are repeated in class, he believed that they should then be corrected.

*"I don't correct all of them (errors) but yes some of them, sometimes you as a teacher realise that the student knows the correct form but now under certain circumstances she's probably nervous, maybe she doesn't have enough concentration or things like that, so I*



*usually as a teacher skip it. But sometimes I see a student keeps making the same mistake and I have to correct her" (Amir. 1).*

Saber stated that to avoid over-correction, he will correct very 'serious' oral errors where the meaning of students' language production is not clear.

*"As long as they can convey the meaning I will let them speak, but when they have a very serious problem, like when they say a word and it's not understandable anymore I just try to correct it, but not at first because maybe it was just a slip of the tongue, for the second time yeah for sure (I will correct it)" (Saber. 1).*

Similarly, four of five NZ teachers believed that not all oral errors should be corrected and stated that only errors that "impede communication" (Kylie. 1) require teachers' attention. Nonetheless, they stressed that attention to oral errors "obstructs communication if it is overdone" (Jim. 1). To avoid over-emphasizing students' oral errors, NZ teachers claimed to only focus on the 'lesson's related errors' (Lisa) and the 'more important ones' (Rose).

*"They (students) make so many errors, it's impossible to correct every single one ... so depending on what we're focusing on in the lesson, I'll correct. I'll focus on what we're learning today." (Lisa. 1)*

*"Not every error, I don't think every error needs to be corrected or needs to be emphasised but yes, the more important ones as they inhabit the meaning of what the student has said, then yeah they're really useful to language learning." (Rose. 1)*

It should be stated that, while these teacher responses (from both contexts) include information on teachers' beliefs about which errors they generally believe should be corrected/ignored, they specifically highlight their beliefs that not all errors require correction. Teachers' beliefs about the types of errors that should be corrected are presented in Section 4.1.2.3.

In addition, the interview data revealed four main reasons for the teachers' beliefs about the importance of OCF. First, all teachers believed that OCF can facilitate L2 development. Second, some teachers believed that accuracy is more important than fluency. Third, some teachers stated that students expect error correction, and finally, Iranian teachers believed that OCF shows their attention, knowledge, and responsibility to their students. These reasons are further explained in the following sections.

*(1) OCF can assist L2 development*

All ten teachers believed that correcting oral errors assists students in their L2 development. While all teachers from both countries believed in the relationship between error correction and L2 development, two teachers (Mina & Tom) further explained their beliefs. Mina perceived that her facilitative role as a teacher in correcting oral errors assists her students to learn the language better. She highlighted that it is because of the feedback that she provides when correcting errors that students can learn better.

*“They (students) make mistakes, I correct them, and then they learn.” (Mina. 1)*

Also, Tom noted that through oral error correction, he can help students stop making the same errors ‘over and over again’. He also believed that if oral errors are untreated, students can “speak wrongly on for months and years and don’t know it.” (Tom. 1)

## *(2) Accuracy is more important than fluency*

Interview data showed that teachers’ beliefs about whether or not oral errors should be corrected stemmed from their perceptions of accuracy and fluency. Teachers’ beliefs about fluency and accuracy were overall categorised in three groups: first, two teachers (one Iranian and one NZ) believed that accuracy is more important than fluency; second, three teachers (two Iranian and one NZ) believed both accuracy and fluency to be important; and third, five teachers (two Iranian and three NZ) considered fluency to be more important.

The first group of teachers, Mina and Tom, who held the strongest views towards oral error correction, both pointed to the importance of accuracy over fluency and highlighted the significance of correcting students’ oral errors.

*“I’m definitely towards accuracy first and then fluency, because errors should be corrected.” (Mina. 1)*

*“You need to correct someone so many times anyway, as often as possible. I do correct people, maybe not always but I do correct them a lot.” (Tom. 1)*

Despite having similar beliefs, the two teachers gave different reasons to explain their beliefs. Mina stressed the importance of focusing on students’ oral errors and correcting them as a way

of providing students with the ‘opportunity to learn from their mistakes’. As mentioned in the previous section, Mina mainly highlighted her role in class as one to correct students’ errors and enable them to learn the language better as a result of that correction. On the other hand, Tom stated that focusing on accuracy in class assists students by giving them the required knowledge and confidence to speak in the target language.

*“I studied at university and it was a long-time ago, but I appreciate the fact ... they were really heavy on accuracy, on grammatical accuracy ... but later on I appreciated how that gave me so much confidence in my speaking cause I knew I was right ... and I really appreciated later that accuracy, that a teacher does accuracy.” (Tom. 1)*

The second group of teachers, Baran, Shadi, and Rose, believed that accuracy is important; however, they also valued fluency to a degree. While the three teachers believed both accuracy and fluency to be important, they each stated different reasons for their beliefs. Baran explained that in lower levels she opts for fluency and in higher levels she aims at improving both fluency and accuracy. Similarly, Shadi stated that the significance of accuracy over fluency depends on the activity type.

*“Both are important, but it depends. When it’s discussion of course fluency is more important, but when they are practicing an exercise after grammar here accuracy is important.” (Shadi. 1)*

Likewise, Rose also acknowledged the importance of both accuracy and fluency but believed that accuracy is ‘probably more important’ given the ‘not-so-mixed’ background of students in her class. She explained this by asserting that in more mixed classrooms, the teacher can focus more on communication and fluency.

The third group of teachers, Amir, Saber, Lisa, Kylie, and Jim, believed that fluency is more important than accuracy; and stated that not all oral errors should be corrected. Four out of five of these teachers claimed that the main reason that they value fluency over accuracy is due to their strong attention to students’ motivational (Saber), emotional and affective (Lisa, Kylie, & Jim) statuses. Amir considered his own personality to be the main reason for his belief in the importance of fluency over accuracy.

Saber's interview data indicated that he had a strong interest in increasing his students' level of motivation, and through focusing on fluency and ignoring errors 'as much as possible', he aims to motivate the students.

*"For me as a teacher my students should be motivated. I can drop everything else for my students to be motivated. I try to skip the errors as much as I can." (Saber. 1)*

One reason that both Amir and Saber gave for valuing fluency over accuracy was that they believed in the importance of not interrupting the flow of conversation and enhancing students' motivation to learn. They believed that by ignoring oral errors, teachers can help the flow of conversation and keep the students motivated.

*"I wanna give my students the feeling that they can do, they are all able to do, even if they make errors, so I'm trying to ignore some of the errors, the ones which I think are not very important at this moment, the ones which I think well this student knows this adverb, but at this point she's too occupied. I'm trying to escape these errors, but the ones that I usually correct are the ones which directly relate to the pattern we practice in that session" (Amir. 2).*

Similarly, Saber perceived that too much error correction can hinder communication and demotivate students and stated that *"I try to skip the errors as much as I can"* (Saber. 1).

*"When my students have errors and I repeatedly correct them, it can be demotivating to continue." (Saber. 1).*

As for the NZ teachers, Lisa believed that since fluency is more important to her than accuracy, she tends to ignore students' oral errors, and in particular errors that are not directly related to the lesson being taught.

*"I focus more on fluency, just getting them to try and speak without me interrupting too much. Sometimes I will go around and make notes of errors they have made, not every single one though. Because if I did, we would be there all day (laughs) and I don't want to spend the whole class focusing on corrections." (Lisa. 2)*

As Lisa's interview data showed, she believed that too much oral error correction can be a 'waste' of valuable classroom time, and stated that she intentionally chooses to ignore many errors in attempt to allow students to improve their language fluency.

Kylie's interview data indicated that the main reason that she believed too much error correction to be detrimental to students was that she valued fluency over accuracy.

*"I don't want to interrupt students, because between fluency and accuracy, I'm more towards fluency and communication, so I think that's probably what I value in language, it's about communication or relationship with the language itself. I think." (Kylie. 1)*

Jim's attention to creating meaningful conversation in class was the underlying reason for his belief in the significance of improving students' fluency.

*"I think my aim is because they're people, we're all part of this wonderful universe and we're equal and we're just wanting these things to carry on. I mean it's a conversation, there is meaning so I don't want to just assess them based on accuracy. That's not the name of the game for me." (Jim. 2)*

Jim believed that his 'easy-going' personality, along with his desire to not break students' flow of speech shaped his belief in the importance of fluency and ignoring errors.

*"I'm more on fluency... maybe it's because I am a little easy-going too, but on top of all in the end we can't just let the students go without any correction, you have to have a way to correct it ... you have to look for chances, sometimes you get a chance to correct their errors without hurting their feelings and sometimes you don't. If I don't get the chance, then no I will not break the continuity and I'll let them go on. I may even ignore them (errors) on purpose if I see it is not the right time to do it, or if this particular student is not the right one so I even ignore it on purpose." (Jim. 1)*

The next section presents the third reason underpinning some teachers' support for OCF.

### *(3) Students expect OCF*

All five Iranian teachers stated that their students expect them to correct their oral errors, therefore, they believe that OCF should be provided.

*"The point is that most of the students expect you to correct them." (Baran. 2)*

While referring to students' expectation for correction, Shadi also stated that her belief in error correction might be shaped by the school manager's expectation to correct students' errors. This shows that Shadi believed that she is affected not only by the students' expectations for OCF, but also by the manager's expectation of correction of errors in class.

*"I guess maybe the manager expects us to correct the errors." (Shadi. 2)*

On the other hand, three of five NZ teachers (Kylie, Rose, & Jim) also pointed to students' desire to receive OCF. However, unlike the Iranian teachers who were influenced by their students' need for correction, none of the NZ teachers' beliefs were affected by their students' expectation of OCF. The selected parts of interviews shown below indicate that while the NZ teachers acknowledged learners' expectation for OCF, they are not affected by it.

*"Learners have different expectations of feedback relating to their own experience, and maybe in their countries they're used to perfection. And that's what they value, and so there's an expectation that I'm going to correct every single little error, but there's a mismatch because what I value could be fluency or raising confidence in using the language, and not worrying about every single preposition error. So there could be a mismatch there as well." (Kylie. 1)*

*"Students expect it (feedback). Especially students from most of the countries we have, they are used to it, they expect it, we probably give an awful lot less than what they're actually used or it is given a different way." (Rose. 2)*

*"I've had that exchange with some students ... at times where students have said they've liked them (errors) to be pointed out. But then again it obstructs communication if it's overdone." (Jim. 1)*

#### *(4) OCF is the teacher's responsibility and a proxy of conscientiousness*

The interview data showed that three of five Iranian (Mina, Baran, & Shadi) and one NZ teacher (Tom) believed that error correction is their main role as teachers. In addition, four of five Iranian teachers (Mina, Baran, Shadi, & Saber) believed that through OCF, they demonstrate their attention, knowledge, and sense of responsibility to learners. The four Iranian teachers' beliefs about why they correct errors specifically suggests that they consider OCF as a proxy of conscientiousness.

The four Iranian teachers (Mina, Baran, Shadi, & Saber) pointed to their fear of being judged by their students as not being proficient or caring enough. They believed that through correcting oral errors, they can imply that they are knowledgeable, caring, and that the students are important to them.

*"Most of the students expect you to correct them. If you don't, they would think that maybe you were not that much attentive, or you didn't care, or they're not important to, or you didn't understand the error." (Baran. 2)*

*"I'm worried about other people's judgement. Maybe my students say the teacher didn't notice it. And they don't know the rules of teaching but they just see this and think that*

*I'm not listening. And maybe if you have a smart student in your class they might think that you didn't notice the student's mistake"* (Shadi. 2).

*"They (students) might think they are not important to you, you are just sitting there and you're passing time and earning money. I try to show them that you are important to me with feedback"* (Saber. 1).

While Mina did not clearly point to her fear of being judged by her students, she believed in teachers having a traditional superior role of the 'knower' and stated that students should expect error correction from the more knowledgeable person in class - the teacher. She believed that students should think that *"that's the teacher, she knows more than me, so that's why I am her student and she is my teacher, so I (i.e. the student) won't feel bad (about being corrected)." (Mina.1)*

#### **4.1.2.2 Teachers' beliefs about the explicitness of OCF**

According to their responses to the interview items, the 10 teachers can be classified into three main groups; first, six teachers (three Iranian and three NZ) believed that errors should be corrected implicitly; second, two teachers (one Iranian and one NZ) believed that both implicit and explicit OCF are effective; and third, two teachers (one Iranian and one NZ) believed that explicit OCF is more effective.

The first group of teachers (Mina, Amir, Saber, Lisa, Kylie, & Jim) believed that implicit feedback is effective to correct students' oral errors. Three of these teachers claimed that the main reason for their beliefs in using more implicit feedback is their fear of 'demotivating' and 'embarrassing' students.

*"I try not to do it very directly, because I don't want to make my student feel he or she has done something wrong, or I usually try to manage my classes in a way that my students feel like they are having fun, and if I do things like that then my students won't be willing to come to the next session, and that's the thing I have always been scared of."* (Amir. 1)

*"Probably more implicit maybe ... I'm not targeting one specific student and saying you're wrong, this is what it should be. I'm just collecting a group of mistakes from everyone and going through them together so they don't feel embarrassed or awkward. They've got something wrong, you know everyone has made a few mistakes and we're all going through them together."* (Lisa. 1)

*"It's more implicit, I think in general because the principle I guess I'm not braving on would be to help them make the connection rather than just say that's what it is and no you're wrong or something like that." (Jim. 1)*

Saber believed that explicit correction fails to benefit students' language development as it hampers their motivation. Amir, Lisa, and Jim did not elaborate more on their beliefs. Also, Mina and Kylie both stated that they value implicit self-correction or peer correction techniques to elicit the correct linguistic form from the students.

*"I don't tell the students directly that you are making a mistake, I try to ask my students to correct themselves through elicitation and get the student herself to correct it, or the other students" (Mina. 1)*

*"I've tried different things. I've thought about this as well but sometimes I will rephrase the question and ask them to say it again just to make them aware that maybe they need to rephrase something. (I) just ask the question again hoping that by communicating they are, have to think of something." (Kylie. 1)*

The second group of teachers (Shadi & Rose) believed that depending on the type of classroom task and students' proficiency levels, both implicit and explicit OCF can be effective.

*"It depends on the level of the students. Because of being the higher level ... I can be more explicit with them. Whereas, if it was lower levels pre-intermediate or something like that I would probably be less explicit." (Rose. 2)*

The third group of teachers (Baran & Tom) believed that explicit OCF is more effective than implicit OCF. Baran explained her belief by emphasizing that through explicit correction she aims to 'remind' students of their errors and areas that require more practice.

*"I want to remind them that they've made mistakes and they should be more careful, but sometimes when I know that the student knows about these things, but at that moment maybe because of maybe stress, or she's in a hurry, or thinking about the problem that she was talking about, she forgets the grammar so I would understand and I'll do it implicitly." (Baran. 1)*

While pointing to his belief in the effectiveness of explicit feedback, Tom did not explain why.

In concluding this section, Iranian and NZ teachers held similar beliefs about how explicit oral errors should be corrected. Table 4.1 summarises the three groups of teachers based on their beliefs about the explicitness of OCF.



**Table 4. 1 Comparison of teachers' beliefs about how to correct errors**

<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Iran</b>	<b>NZ</b>
Implicit <b>OCF is more effective</b>	n: 3 Mina, Amir, Saber	n: 3 Lisa, Kylie, Jim
<b>Both implicit and explicit OCF are effective</b>	n: 1 Shadi	n: 1 Rose
Explicit <b>OCF is effective</b>	n: 1 Baran	n: 1 Tom

#### 4.1.2.3 Teachers' beliefs about the correction of different error types

This section presents the teachers' beliefs about the correction of the different types of errors (i.e. morpho-syntactic, phonological, lexical, semantic errors). As mentioned in Section 4.1.2.1, when asked about whether or not they believe oral errors should be corrected, most teachers claimed that not all errors should be corrected, and only 'major/serious' errors that impede communication should be corrected. To have a more comprehensive understanding of the oral errors that teachers believe should be corrected, they were further asked specifically to elaborate which type(s) of errors they believe require correction. Data analysis showed three groups of teachers; first, most teachers (three Iranian (Amir, Saber & Baran) and two NZ (Lisa & Rose) teachers) believed that phonological errors are more important than other errors.

*"Usually I'm worried about their pronunciations because almost all of them have studied the necessary grammar and vocabulary, but they care about the pronunciation, and sometimes you would hear some weird pronunciations that I show reactions to."* (Baran. 1)

*"If you don't have the pronunciation that's when the meaning can just get lost if you're talking to someone. So I think a lot of, I do a lot of repetition in my class from new words that we've learned just because I think that is, the basis of learning a new language is pronunciation."* (Lisa. 1)

The second group of teachers (one Iranian (Mina) and one NZ (Tom) teacher) believed that morpho-syntactic and structural errors are most important to be corrected in comparison to other errors. Both Mina and Tom had also stated that most if not all oral errors should be corrected.

*"I'm really strict about grammar. If someone makes a grammar mistake, I really, write it down and I'll get on to it, I'll nail it."* (Tom. 1)

Tom explained his emphasis on correcting morpho-syntactic errors by stating that his teaching in general centres around grammar, and that morpho-syntactic errors hinder communication for students.

The third group of teachers (one Iranian (Shadi) and two NZ (Kylie & Jim) teachers) stated that they believe no particular oral error type is more important than other errors. Shadi noted that all errors are important, and they should all be equally corrected. However, Kylie and Jim pointed to their ‘holistic’ views towards language and the importance of communication in classrooms.

*“I don’t think any errors are more important than others, not beyond the principle of obstructing communication but that’s an ideal.” (Jim, 1)*

Table 4.2 summarises the teachers’ beliefs about which type(s) of oral error should be corrected.

**Table 4. 2 Comparison of teachers’ beliefs about the correction of different types of errors**

<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Iran</b>	<b>NZ</b>
Morpho-syntactic errors <b>are most important</b>	n: 1 Mina	n: 1 Tom
Phonological errors <b>are most important</b>	n: 3 Amir, Saber, Baran	n: 2 Lisa, Rose
All errors <b>are equally important</b>	n: 1 Shadi	n: 2 Kylie, Jim

#### **4.1.2.4 Teachers’ beliefs about the sources of OCF**

Teachers’ responses to this question revealed that all five Iranian and five NZ teachers believed that the best source of OCF is self-correction, followed by peer-correction, and finally, teacher correction.

*“I kind of do all three ... I want them to kind of realise their mistake and some of them do say something and then they’ll quickly be like oh no, and they’ll self-correct which is great. If they do get it wrong, then I will usually kind of make a face or ask if other students agree or disagree and then get another student to kind of correct. And if still it’s wrong then I will. I really want them to, I think that’s the best way of learning them figuring out for themselves rather than me just giving them the answers.” (Lisa. 1)*

However, four of five NZ teachers (Kylie, Rose, Jim, and Tom) expressed concerns about the practicality of always encouraging self- and peer correction over teacher correction, and admitted that this is not always possible in real classrooms.

*"I like all of them. Ideally, I think would be good if the student can self-correct and that happened sometimes as well, they can recognise their own mistakes and correct it. I think it's useful if another student does too. As long as it's done kind of the cooperative and kind way. I think that's important. It depends on the group as well because some groups are less likely to want to interfere or intervene or they just see it differently. A lot of students are passive, and they want the teacher to do it. I think that's the expectation." (Kylie. 1)*

Rose believed that self-correction is the best type of correction, which would "in an ideal world" be followed by "peer correction, but in a more of a real situation that we have here would be teacher." (Rose. 1).

Jim believed that self-correction and peer correction are impractical and impossible at times and stated that the teacher does need to step in to help.

*"Ideally it would be self then maybe peer then teacher, but I mean self would be ideal but I think it's impractical because they don't always recognise it so it's impossible, I mean there's a level of difficulty there. So that's why the teacher intervenes I guess or try and guide them or help them." (Jim. 1)*

Tom believed that students sometimes fail to recognise their own or their peer's oral errors and this calls for him as the 'native speaking' teacher to correct the error.

*"I don't know if another student would pick up the error and would even know, sometimes students do correct each other. I suppose as a teacher you could encourage that in class, let's correct each other. But probably comes to the teacher really, because I'm a native speaker obviously." (Tom. 1)*

#### **4.1.2.5 Teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF**

The interview data showed that teachers' beliefs on the timing of OCF can be categorised into three groups; first, one Iranian teacher (Baran) believed that immediate OCF is most effective; second, three teachers (one Iranian and two NZ) considered delayed OCF to be more effective than immediate OCF; and third, six teachers (three Iranian and three NZ) believed that depending

on task type, some oral errors should be corrected immediately and some should be delayed until the end of the task.

Baran, the only teacher who believed that oral errors should be corrected immediately explained that due to the high number of oral errors that students make, it is best to correct each error immediately as it can better facilitate language development.

*“Sometimes the students make a lot of mistakes and if you want to stay there would be hundreds of mistakes, so I prefer to correct them immediately.” (Baran. 1)*

The second group of teachers (Amir, Lisa, & Kylie) believed that immediate OCF can hamper the flow of students’ speech and interrupt them, and thus believed that errors should be corrected at the end of each task. However, Amir admitted that he at times ‘automatically’ corrects students’ errors immediately.

*“I don’t do it immediately, because I’ve noticed that when I do it immediately it sounds like I have interrupted the student, somehow jumped in the middle of the conversation, and then my student loses his concentration. Sometimes they don’t even remember what to do next and I try not to do it, but sometimes I automatically do it, honestly speaking (laughs).” (Amir. 1)*

*“I usually correct errors at the end of speaking tasks, so I let them just talk even though they are making lots of mistakes, I will note down, not every single one, a few of them for grammar, pronunciation and vocab. Then at the end when everyone’s finished, the notes are taken from everyone, I’ll put them up on the board and we’ll just go through it and I’ll try and get them to guess why it’s wrong.” (Lisa. 1)*

*“I prefer not to interrupt them I think ideally right there and then if they’re in a stream of speech. Maybe at the end of that part then I might.” (Kylie. 1)*

The third group of teachers (Mina, Shadi, Saber, Rose, Jim, & Tom) believed that depending on the focus of the task (Mina, Saber, Rose, & Jim), type of task (Jim), and the relationship with the students (Tom), some oral errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay (Mina, Shadi, Saber, & Rose). Four of the ten teachers believed that for fluency tasks (i.e. speaking exercises), they opt for more delayed OCF, whereas in accuracy tasks (i.e. grammar exercises) they immediately correct errors.

*"If they (students) are speaking or giving a summary, most of the time I wait till the end until they finish, and after that I correct them. But when they are making sentences, I try to correct them at the time." (Mina. 1)*

*"Actually, I correct students at different times, for example when they're saying a summary I make notes, and at the end of the summary because I want the conversation to flow I will then correct them. But when they're saying a sentence, or I ask them to reproduce a sentence based on grammar, I will correct it on the spot." (Shadi. 1)*

*"Depending on the activity you're doing, cause if it's an activity where you are focusing on fluency then you'd possibly let it go and come back to it afterwards, but if it is on grammatical accuracy then I would want to correct it straight away." (Rose. 1)*

*"I tend to, I mean it's often one to one, I tend to do it immediately. That's what I was sort of observing in class today. If there are errors which, if I've noticed some particular issue that is common to substantial proportion to a group then I might delay it then by the way so that I can suitably correct it at a later time for everyone." (Jim. 1)*

Amir believed that phonological errors should be corrected on the spot because of the importance that they have in students' language learning, while other types of errors can be corrected at the end of the session.

*"With pronunciation, immediately, I skip once but I don't give them a second chance to repeat that mistake, but for other parts, I can decorate their sentences, sometimes they say very unnatural sentence and I then rephrase it, and I want them to speak more beautifully and so I take notes and (correct them) in the end of the session." (Tom. 1)*

Also, Tom claimed that for 'little' errors (i.e. minor) he tends to correct them immediately, and as for the more important and common ones, he prefers to correct them after the task and on the board for all the students.

*"I'd do both (immediate and delayed). Sometimes if it's a little thing, I would do it subtly in front of the student, as long as it not humiliating the student or making them feel embarrassed. Sometimes I would go around when the students are doing a pair activity ... with a bit of paper and a pen and I'll listen and take some note and I'll choose the most, let's say the five most say obvious things that need to be corrected and I'll go back to the board after the exercise and say that some, somebody said this, doesn't matter who it is. I'll write on the board and let's correct that. So, no one is being singled out, but most students they don't seem to mind being corrected." (Tom. 1)*

In concluding this section, Iranian and NZ teachers mostly held similar beliefs as to when oral errors should be corrected. Most of the teachers from both countries believed that, depending on the task and the relationship with the students, some errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay. The only noticeable difference between the two instructional contexts was that,

while none of the NZ teachers considered the immediate correction of the errors to benefit students, one Iranian teacher preferred to correct errors immediately. Table 4.3 summarises the teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF.

**Table 4. 3 Teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF**

<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Iran</b>	<b>NZ</b>
<b>Errors should be corrected with delay and at the end of the task.</b>	n:1 Amir	n:2 Lisa, Kylie
<b>Some errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay, depending on the task.</b>	n:3 Mina, Shadi, Saber	n:3 Rose, Jim, Tom
<b>Errors should be corrected immediately.</b>	n:1 Baran	n:0 -

#### **4.1.3 PART THREE: Sources of teachers' OCF beliefs**

This section presents the analysis of teachers' responses to the interview items that explored the sources of their OCF beliefs. The responses showed that the teachers believed that their OCF beliefs were mainly originated from five sources; namely, their own language learning experience, their teaching experience, their teacher training courses, their personalities, and their own research education. The findings indicated that both Iranian and NZ teachers believed that their personalities were a main source of their OCF beliefs. Also, while the Iranian teachers considered their teaching experience as their main source of beliefs, the NZ teachers believed their own language learning experience and training programmes were their main sources of OCF beliefs. In what follows, I present the findings on each of these five sources.

##### **4.1.3.1 Source One: Own Language Learning Experience**

Teachers' own language learning experience, known as apprenticeship of observation, proved to be a main source of both NZ and Iranian teachers' OCF beliefs. Most of the teachers (except for Shadi & Rose) claimed that their own language learning experience, either as a young or adult, foreign or second language learner, had significantly shaped their beliefs about how to correct oral errors in class as a teacher.

Four of five Iranian (Mina, Baran, Amir, & Saber) and four of five NZ teachers (Lisa, Kylie, Jim, & Tom) believed that their own language learning experience had given them a good insight and understanding of the process of learning a new language. For this reason, they claimed that as current language teachers, they are better equipped to empathise and build rapport with students and their challenges. Some of these teachers (Amir, Saber, & Lisa) remembered the types of feedback they had received as language learners, which they believed had consequently affected their current beliefs about error correction.

*“I am a polyglot, different languages, I studied Chinese as my university field, and I studied German and Spanish. What I say is a mishmash from my own experience which was really enough. When my students make errors, I can definitely understand which level, which step they are (at), because I have also studied languages and I have been in their place for 5 times. So, I understand.” (Saber. 1).*

According to Saber, being a polyglot (i.e. knowing several languages) had enabled him to have a deeper understanding of the process of language learning and its difficulties, and as a result, he believed that he can better empathise with learners when making errors.

Amir also stated that his own language learning experience in Iran had shaped his current beliefs.

*“I was being corrected directly (in class), and when I was corrected directly, especially because I thought my English was perfect, and anytime they corrected me I just couldn’t stand it, so this is something I just got it as a habit ... (now) I prefer to do it (correct errors) through rephrasing it.” (Amir. 1)*

Lisa had learnt both German and French as a young language learner, and while she liked the interactive feedback of her German teacher, she disliked the direct correction of her French teacher. She noted that her current beliefs about feedback are similar to her German teacher.

*“I remember my German class especially, he was very interactive with the students. It was you know if we did make mistakes he would ask other students if it was correct or not. So maybe I have kind of remembered those techniques. The French lesson, she would directly correct, and it was, you felt a bit embarrassed in front of a big class full of students, so I’ve tried to avoid that.” (Lisa. 1)*

Kylie confirmed that her own extensive language learning experience had affected her current beliefs.

*"I took Japanese lessons last year for example. Took Maori a few years before that at school I did French and Spanish and Latin for quite a while, and as a language learner, I'd say that too much correction is off putting." (Kylie. 1)*

Some teachers (Mina, Baran, Amir, Jim, & Tom) recalled that as language learners they 'expected' or 'admired' feedback and correction from their teachers, and as a result of that experience, they now currently believed that error correction can assist L2 development.

*"As a student, I expect my teacher to correct me if I make a mistake" (Mina. 1)*

*"I am now a language learner as well in other languages, and I admire my teacher when she pays attention and notices that which sentence was correct and she corrects me, so it shows that the teacher is attentive, she cares about my mistakes, if she doesn't care I don't think that would be a nice class for me" (Baran. 1)*

*"I'm always open to being corrected. I was always one of the best students in class, no matter what language, and when I had a mistake there was correction, and I was okay with receiving it." (Saber. 1)*

*"I wanted to be reminded, in some way some sort of signal ideally. Because there's a sort of insecurity of not knowing whether what you're producing is correct, native like, really just right ... and getting that feedback (can help). I asked people to remind me and sometimes they did, but then after a while I think we had conversations and they said oh it's just so tiring to actually have to (correct you), if there is (an error) and it's okay." (Jim. 1)*

*"I studied at the Auckland University and it was a long-time ago, but I appreciate the fact, I didn't realise at the time but they were really heavy on accuracy, on grammatical accuracy and learning of regular verbs for example but later on I appreciated how that gave me so much confidence in my speaking cause I knew I was right." (Tom. 1)*

Apart from the above eight teachers who perceived their own language learning experience to have affected their current beliefs about how to oral correct errors, only two teachers (Shadi & Rose) rejected the effect of their own language learning experience on their OCF beliefs. The reason is that both teachers stated that they had not paid any particular attention to how they were being corrected as learners and failed to see a relationship between their previous experience and current beliefs.

*"My beliefs don't really come from my own learning experience, because (at) that time I didn't pay attention to these things." (Shadi. 1)*

*"I don't think (my beliefs come) from my own language learning background, it was such a long time ago and ... I don't recall any feedback techniques." (Rose. 1)*



#### 4.1.3.2 Source Two: Teaching Experience

All five Iranian teachers believed that the main source of their current beliefs about how to correct oral errors was their teaching experience. Iranian teachers stated that most of their current beliefs were a result of years of teaching and dealing with different students at various language proficiency levels. However, only two NZ teachers (Jim & Tom) acknowledged that their teaching experience had slightly affected their OCF beliefs.

*“My beliefs mostly come from my teaching experience. I didn’t study teaching as a university field of study, but as far as I’m concerned, I’d say 60-70% it comes from your own experience, little by little you learn how to manage a class, how to offer information. I’d say yes, most of it comes from your own teaching experience but your background as a foreign language learner or your mother tongue and things like that are definitely effective too but not as much as your own teaching experience.” (Amir. 1)*

Saber, the least experienced Iranian teacher, also believed that his teaching experience had changed the way he viewed oral errors and how he corrected them in class.

*“I think my beliefs come from my teaching experience, and when my students had errors and I repeatedly corrected them, which can be demotivating to continue, so after a while I realised that maybe it’s a good idea to give them a chance to speak. I found out through my teaching experience, what works and what doesn’t work.” (Saber. 1)*

The next section focuses on the role of teacher training programmes on forming the teachers’ beliefs.

#### 4.1.3.3 Source Three: Teacher training programmes

The interview data indicated that all ten teachers had attended teacher training programmes for different periods of time. That is, the Iranian teachers noted that they had attended a one-day training workshop that had only familiarised them with general techniques for language teaching. As for the NZ teachers, they all stated that they had attended teacher training courses that had also mainly covered language teaching techniques and limitedly covered the required techniques for oral error correction. Overall, four of five NZ teachers (except for Jim) perceived that their OCF beliefs had been shaped by the training courses.

*“I learnt so much in the course, because I haven’t come from a teaching background at all ... I got a lot of feedback tips from the course.” (Lisa. 1)*

*"My awareness was raised a little bit more when I was learning about different techniques and maybe that influenced me at some point too. I'm not sure what I was doing before that or there that was a change, just that I was more aware of that." (Kylie. 1)*

While all five Iranian teachers and Jim acknowledged the effectiveness of the training courses, they admitted that the courses had failed to equip them with the required knowledge to correct oral errors. The following selected parts from the interviews with the Iranian teachers and Jim show their perception about the effectiveness of the training programmes.

*"At the beginning yes it was effective, at the beginning the training course taught me many things but later no, it was just my experience (of teaching that helped me with errors)." (Mina1. 1)*

*"We didn't have very serious or academic trainings, there were just you can say one-day training so it was too general." (Baran.1)*

*"I've had a short training course and I don't think so, well those, I'm not trying to say those training courses are not good and not worth it, no they are good, but they're just good to start with, that's all." (Amir.1)*

#### **4.1.3.4 Source Four: Personality**

The interview data revealed that all ten teachers agreed that their personalities can and had affected their OCF beliefs, and consequently their style of feedback provision in class. All ten teachers were asked to describe their personalities as best they could and were questioned on whether they perceived their personalities to be a source of their beliefs about OCF.

Mina's 'positive and optimistic' personality had made her believe that as an adult learner, she did not feel negative about receiving feedback and correction from the teacher. This had consequently made her believe that being a teacher herself meant that she should correct all oral errors.

*"I don't have that personality that when my teacher corrects me I would feel bad, I never feel bad" (Mina. 1)*

Baran's 'sociable, sensitive, and not passive' personality had made her feel responsible to correct oral errors in class.

*"I'm kind of a responsible person, I show reactions, I'm a reliable person, I'm never passive. I'm afraid of routines and being passive. So, I try to be active and I show reactions, as a result, I think that when I'm a teacher so this is my duty to correct them,*

*to help them get better, so when I don't show reactions it shows that I will be irresponsible.” (Baran. 1)*

Shadi considered herself to be ‘a kind and an introvert person’, and while she also claimed that her personality had shaped her beliefs about OCF, she did not explain how. In addition, Amir and Saber both claimed that their ‘easy going’ (Amir) and ‘friendly’ (Saber) personalities had affected their beliefs about how to correct oral errors.

*“I think my personality affects my beliefs because my personality is a part of me, that’s how I think, that’s how I evaluate things, make decisions, so it obviously affects my reactions (to errors) as well. So, I guess I’m an easy-going teacher as well, because too few students of mine think I am a hard-graded teacher, most of them believe I’m as easy graded teacher.” (Amir. 1)*

*“I can make friends easily and most of the time just by five minutes of teaching they become my close friends, so I feel okay to interact with them (students) and do correction. If I were a shy person, I wouldn’t do that for sure.” (Saber. 1)*

Lisa’s ‘laid back, friendly, and relaxed’ personality had led her to believe that error correction or negative feedback can mean that she is critical of students, which is against her personality.

*“I think the way to give feedback is probably just generally who I am, like my character. I’m not someone who would ever be negative towards someone else especially as a teacher.” (Lisa. 1)*

Kylie also confirmed the relationship between her personality and feedback style.

*“I think I probably could because I don’t think I would want to be corrected all the time me personally. So that probably translates into what I do.” (Kylie. 1)*

Rose believed that her ‘friendly, relaxed, confident, and encouraging’ personality has shaped her beliefs about error correction.

*“There probably is some link between how much feedback you give and personality, and a lot of it (comes) probably from personality and personal style.” (Rose. 1)*

Similarly, Tom noted that personality does affect teacher’s beliefs as “*teaching is sort of like acting really so you bring so much of your personality into it.*” (Tom. 1). He further explained that being a ‘people’s person’ he likes to be included in the class activities, and thus sees feedback as a means of interacting with students in class.

*“I like to be part of the whole thing, have a dynamic class and part of being dynamic, I suppose it’s feeling like you’re doing something useful when you’re giving feedback, cause it’s very hard to set something up and sit back for half an hour and do nothing so yeah I suppose you sort of want to be part of it. I suppose the personality thing, not wanting to be excluded.” (Tom. 2)*

Jim stated that he enjoys interacting with people and his students and admitted that he does at times ‘overindulges’ in communication with the students. His emphasis on getting the conversation going had made him believe that oral errors are ‘not to be afraid of’. While he acknowledged that his personality could have affected his beliefs about errors, he did not elaborate more on the relationship.

#### **4.1.3.5 Source Five: Own Research**

The interview data revealed that only one of five Iranian (Saber) and three of five NZ teacher (Kylie, Rose, & Jim) believed that their OCF beliefs had been shaped through their own research at university or self-studying. Saber had not complete a language teaching related- degree, but noted that he has read many language teaching-related books to learn about teaching and error correction techniques.

*“Actually, I have studied some books (teaching and learning related), the affective filters, that are very, very important, like stress. I really try to calm the class down.” (Saber. 1)*

As for the three NZ teachers, they had completed language teaching-related university degrees, and thus believed that their research background had shaped some of their OCF beliefs.

*“Because I have studied the area, so some of it would come from research and journals, that has influenced from what I studied.” (Rose. 1)*

*“My (Master’s) studies raised my awareness about feedback.” (Kylie, 1)*

*“Yes, I learnt how to treat pronunciation errors in my Master’s.” (Jim, 1)*

This section addressed part three of RQ1 which focused on exploring the sources of Iranian and NZ teachers’ beliefs about OCF. Table 4.4 summarises the findings of the teachers’ sources of beliefs about OCF.

**Table 4. 4 Teachers' sources of beliefs about error correction**

Sources of Beliefs	Iran	NZ
Own Language Learning Experience	n: 4 Mina, Baran, Amir, Saber	n: 4 Lisa, Kylie, Jim, Tom
Teaching Experience	n: 5 Mina, Baran, Shadi, Amir, Saber	n: 2 Jim, Tom
Teacher training programme	n: 0 -	n: 4 Lisa, Kylie, Rose, Tom
Personality	n: 5 Mina, Baran, Shadi, Amir, Saber	n: 5 Lisa, Kylie, Rose, Jim, Tom
Own Research	n: 1 Saber	n: 3 Kyle, Rose, Jim

#### 4.2 RQ2: How do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers provide OCF in classrooms?

RQ2 explored the error correction practices of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers. The findings are presented around key themes identified in RQ1; do teachers correct oral errors? (Section 4.2.1), how do teachers correct oral errors? (Section 4.2.2), which type(s) of oral errors do teachers correct? (Section 4.2.3), who corrects oral errors? (Section 4.2.4), and when do teachers correct oral errors? (Section 4.2.5).

To address these five key questions, a total number of 30 hours of classroom observation data were collected, transcribed, coded and analysed. As mentioned in the Methodology chapter, the analysis of the classroom data consisted mostly of frequency counts of number of corrected oral errors, implicit vs. explicit OCF, corrected types of errors, reformulations vs. prompts and peer OCF, and immediate vs. delayed OCF. The frequency counts and percentages of different factors of teacher error correction practices provided a description of the teachers' provision of OCF in practice. The descriptive statistics summarised the patterns of teachers' OCF provision in Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts. As previously mentioned, due to the small sample size and qualitative nature of this research, inferential statistical analysis was not used and instead, the two contexts were compared through descriptive statistical analysis (e.g. frequency counts and percentages). In what follows, I present the findings of each of the sub-sections investigated to address RQ2.

#### 4.2.1 Do teachers correct oral errors?

The analysis of the teachers' error correction practices revealed that teachers' responses to oral errors differed from one teacher to another. More specifically, some teachers corrected more oral errors than other teachers did. Also, some teachers provided a larger number of OCF moves in response to oral errors. Finally, some teachers provided 'false positive conformation' on some oral errors (as indicated in the Methodology chapter, I have referred to this feedback as false positive confirmation). Figure 3.2 from the Methodology chapter illustrates the model of OCF for the Iranian and NZ teachers used in this study.

As Table 4.5 shows, overall, 800 oral errors occurred in the Iranian context and only 494 oral errors took place in the NZ context. Out of the 800 oral errors, the Iranian teachers ignored 96 errors and with the remaining 704 errors, they provided a total of 785 instances of OCF moves on 699 oral errors to correct them, and provided false positive confirmation on the other 5 oral errors. In sum, the Iranian teachers corrected 87.37% of all oral errors in the classrooms, ignored 12%, and provided false positive confirmation on a small number of errors (0.62%).

**Table 4. 5 Frequency and percentage of corrected oral errors**

	Frequency		Percentage	
	Iran	NZ	Iran	NZ
Total Number of oral errors	800	494		
Total number of corrected errors	699	225	87.37%	45.54%
Total number of OCF types used	785	276		
Total number of ignored errors	96	173	12%	35.02%
Total number of false positively confirmed errors	5	96	0.62%	19.43%

In the NZ context, out of the 494 oral errors, the teachers ignored 173 of all errors, and with the remaining 321 oral errors, they corrected 225 errors using a total of 276 OCF moves, and provided false positive confirmation on the remaining 96 errors. Overall, the NZ teachers corrected 45.54% of all oral errors, ignored 35.02% of errors, and falsely confirmed 19.43% of all oral errors.

As the comparison between Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts showed, the Iranian teachers corrected a noticeably larger proportion of oral errors and provided a great amount of OCF moves

to correct the oral errors. The NZ teachers, however, not only corrected a considerably smaller amount of oral errors, they also ignored a larger proportion of errors, and provided considerably more false positive confirmation. Overall, the findings showed the stronger attention of the Iranian EFL teachers (in comparison to the NZ ESL teachers) to oral errors.

Apart from the differences between the two instructional contexts, there were also differences observed between the five teachers within each instructional context with regards to the extent to which they corrected oral errors. In the Iranian context, while all teachers corrected a great proportion of oral errors, some teachers corrected more errors than others. For example, Mina corrected all oral errors (100%) that had occurred in her classes, and both Baran and Shadi similarly corrected about 93% of all oral errors. Amir corrected fewer oral errors but still corrected a noticeably large proportion of errors (80.70%), and finally, Saber corrected the least amount of oral errors in his classes (66.66%). Saber and Amir were the only Iranian teachers who provided few instances of false positive confirmation. Table 4.6 summarises the extent to which each of the five Iranian teachers corrected oral errors.

**Table 4. 6 Iranian teachers' correction of oral errors**

Teachers	Total Errors	Teacher Response
Mina	158	Corrected: 158 (100%) Ignored: 0 (0%) FPC: 0 Number of OCF moves: 179
Baran	198	Corrected: 186 (93.33%) Ignored: 12 (6.06%) FPC: 0 Number of OCF moves: 194
Shadi	162	Corrected: 151 (93.20%) Ignored: 11 (6.79%) FPC: 0 Number of OCF moves: 184
Amir	114	Corrected: 92 (80.70%) Ignored: 21 (18.42%) FPC: 1 (0.87%) Number of OCF moves: 106
Saber	168	Corrected: 112 (66.66%) Ignored: 52 (30.95%) FPC: 4 (2.38%) Number of OCF moves: 122

(Note: FPC: false positive confirmation)

Similarly, in the NZ context, there were differences in the teachers' correction of oral errors (see Table 4.7). While some teachers (Rose & Tom) corrected most of the learners' errors, some teachers corrected less than half of learners' oral errors (Lisa, Kylie, and Jim). More specifically, Rose and Tom corrected 85.71% and 73.39% of all oral errors and did not provide any instances of false positive confirmation. Lisa corrected 40.81% of all oral errors, ignored 28.57% errors, and falsely confirmed the largest proportion of errors (30.61%) compared to her colleagues. Similarly, Jim corrected 35.23% of all errors, ignored a larger proportion 41.90%, and provided false positive confirmation of 22.85% on all oral errors. Kylie corrected the least amount of errors (16.32%) and instead, compared to her colleagues, ignored the largest amount of oral errors (61.22%), and provided false positive confirmation on 14.28% of errors.

**Table 4. 7 NZ teachers' correction of oral errors**

Teachers	Total Errors	Teacher Response
Lisa	98	Corrected: 40 (40.81%) Ignored: 28 (28.57%) FPC: 30 (30.61%) Number of OCF moves: 52
Kylie	98	Corrected: 16 (16.32%) Ignored: 60 (61.22%) FPC: 14 (14.28%) Number of OCF moves: 30
Rose	84	Corrected: 72 (85.71%) Ignored: 12 (14.28%) FPC: 0 Number of OCF moves: 53
Jim	105	Corrected: 37 (35.23%) Ignored: 44 (41.90%) FPC: 24 (22.85%) Number of OCF moves: 47
Tom	109	Corrected: 80 (73.39%) Ignored: 29 (26.60%) FPC: 0 Number of OCF moves: 94

(Note: FPC: false positive confirmation)

In sum, there were noticeable differences in the extent to which Iranian and NZ teachers corrected oral errors. While Iranian teachers corrected a great number of oral errors, the NZ teachers corrected a considerably smaller amount of oral errors and also provided a large amount of false positive confirmation on some oral errors. In addition, there were also differences observed between the extents to which teachers corrected oral errors within the same instructional context.



#### 4.2.2 How do teachers correct oral errors?

As discussed in the Methodology chapter, to determine ‘how’ teachers provided OCF in class, their feedback moves were classified as being either implicit or explicit feedback. That is, recasts, repetitions, elicitations, clarification requests, and re-asks were categorised as implicit OCF, while explicit correction, explicit indication, metalinguistic feedback, directing question at others, use of L1, and non-verbal feedback were considered as explicit OCF. In addition to classifying the single feedback moves in the data, the multiple feedback moves were also examined to determine whether, as a whole, they were implicit or explicit. In cases where the OCF types used in the multiple feedback moves were a combination of both implicit and explicit, the multiple feedback moves were coded as ‘mixed’ and excluded from the count.

As shown in Table 4.8, both Iranian and NZ teachers corrected most of the oral errors implicitly. More specifically, the Iranian teachers provided 91.42% of all their OCF implicitly and the remaining 8.57% explicitly. In comparison, implicit OCF made up 71.61% of all NZ teachers’ feedback moves and 28.38% of their OCF was provided explicitly. The findings of the two instructional contexts indicates that in comparison, the Iranian teachers provided a larger proportion of implicit OCF than the NZ did, and at the same time, the NZ teachers corrected a noticeably larger proportion of oral errors explicitly.

**Table 4. 8 The explicitness of teachers’ OCF practices**

	Frequency		Percentage	
	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>
Total number of implicit OCF	650	169	91.42%	71.61%
Total number of explicit OCF	61	67	8.57%	28.38%
Total	711	236	100%	100%

In addition, the explicitness of teachers’ OCF practices were also examined in each instructional context. As shown in Table 4.9, all five Iranian teachers corrected a great proportion of oral errors implicitly, and there were some differences in the Iranian teachers’ use of implicit OCF across the five teachers. While Baran provided the largest proportion of implicit OCF (i.e. 97.67%), Mina provided the least amount of implicit OCF (i.e. 85.43%) in comparison to her Iranian colleagues. The other three Iranian teachers’ implicit OCF ranged between 89.66% and 94.90%.

**Table 4. 9 The explicitness of Iranian teachers' OCF practices**

<b>Implicitly</b>	<b>Teacher Response</b>
Mina	Implicitly: 129 (85.43%) Explicitly: 22 (14.57%)
Baran	Implicitly: 168 (97.67%) Explicitly: 4 (2.33%)
Shadi	Implicitly: 156 (89.66%) Explicitly: 18 (10.34%)
Amir	Implicitly: 93 (94.90%) Explicitly: 5 (5.10%)
Saber	Implicitly: 104 (89.66%) Explicitly: 12 (10.34%)

As for the NZ context, there were noticeably more differences between the five NZ teachers with regards to the explicitness of their OCF practices. As illustrated in Table 4.10, some teachers provided considerably more implicit OCF than others did. For instance, Tom and Jim corrected a considerably large proportion of oral errors implicitly (83.72% and 81.58%, respectively). Similarly, Kylie corrected a noticeable amount of oral errors implicitly (i.e. 76.92%) and Lisa corrected fewer errors implicitly (i.e. 60%). Finally, Rose provided a more balanced proportion of both implicit (49.02%) and explicit (50.98%) OCF and corrected slightly more errors explicitly (50.98%).

**Table 4. 10 The explicitness of NZ teachers' OCF practices**

<b>Implicitly</b>	<b>Teacher Response</b>
Lisa	Implicitly: 21 (60%) Explicitly: 14 (40%)
Kylie	Implicitly: 20 (76.92%) Explicitly: 6 (23.08%)
Rose	Implicitly: 25 (49.02%) Explicitly: 26 (50.98%)
Jim	Implicitly: 31 (81.58%) Explicitly: 7 (18.42%)
Tom	Implicitly: 72 (83.72%) Explicitly: 14 (16.28%)

In addition to the explicitness of the teachers' OCF practices, the different types of OCF that they provided were also explored to determine 'how' each teacher corrected oral errors. The analysis of the teachers' classroom practices revealed that, overall, Iranian teachers used a total of 13 OCF types, whereas NZ teachers used 12 types. This is because the Iranian teachers used their L1 to correct an oral error once and NZ teachers did not.

Overall, recasts (including declarative and interrogative recasts) were the most frequent feedback type for both groups of teachers, accounting for overall 64.19% Iranians and 45.64% for NZ teachers. The second most frequent used feedback in both contexts was multiple feedback with 15.41% for Iranian teachers and 23.18% for NZ teachers. However, the two contexts differed in their third most frequent OCF type used; while Iranian's third most frequent feedback was elicitation, accounting for 6.11%, NZ teachers used metalinguistic feedback as their third top used OCF with 6.52%. The remaining types of OCF ranged from 2.92% to 0.12% for Iranian teachers, and 5.79% to 0.36% for NZ teachers (see Table 4.11).

**Table 4. 11 Frequency and percentage of each type of OCF**

	Frequency		Percentage	
	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>
1. Recast (declarative and interrogative)	504	126	64.19%	45.64%
2. Clarification request	11	1	1.40%	0.36%
3. Metalinguistic feedback	12	18	1.52%	6.52%
4. Metalinguistic cue	7	16	0.89%	5.79%
5. Elicitation	48	15	6.11%	5.43%
6. Explicit correction	23	5	2.92%	1.81%
7. Repetition	15	7	1.91%	2.53%
8. Re-ask	21	5	2.67%	1.81%
9. Directing question at others	2	4	0.25%	1.44%
10. Use of L1	1	0	0.12%	0%
11. Explicit indication	3	12	0.38%	4.34%
12. Nonverbal feedback	17	3	2.16%	1.08%
13. Multiple feedback	121	64	15.41%	23.18%
Total	785	276	100%	100%

To sum up, the comparison of the Iranian and NZ teachers' use of implicit and explicit OCF revealed differences both across the two instructional contexts and within each context. Overall, the Iranian teachers provided more implicit OCF than the NZ teachers did, and the NZ teachers corrected more errors explicitly than the Iranian teachers did.

#### **4.2.3 Which type of oral errors do teachers correct?**

This section discusses the findings with regards to the teachers' correction of different types of oral errors. For this reason, errors were categorised into four groups of morpho-syntactic, phonological, lexicon, and semantic errors (Mackey et al., 2000). As Table 4.12 indicates, morpho-syntactic errors were the most frequent type of errors and consequently, most Iranian and

NZ teachers' OCF moves were provided in response to morpho-syntactic errors. In comparison, NZ teachers provided slightly more OCF (55.11%) on morpho-syntactic errors than Iranian teachers (54.97%) did. Overall, both Iranian and NZ teacher corrected more morpho-syntactic errors than other types of oral errors.

The second most frequent errors in the Iranian context were phonological errors, whereas the second most frequent errors in the NZ context were lexical errors. The analysis of teachers' correction of the different types of oral errors showed that phonological errors were the Iranian teachers' second most frequent errors (23.29%), followed by lexical errors (17.18%), and finally semantic errors (3.83%). As for the NZ teachers, lexical errors were there second most corrected errors (20%), then phonological errors (15.11%), and finally semantic errors (9.77%). This indicates that there were differences in the extent to which Iranian and NZ teachers corrected different types of oral errors.

**Table 4. 12 Teachers' correction of different types of oral errors**

<b>Errors</b>	<b>No. of errors</b>		<b>Number of corrected errors</b>		<b>Percentage of corrected errors</b>	
	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>
Morpho-syntactic	477	351	387	124	54.97%	55.11%
Phonological	167	46	164	34	23.29%	15.11%
Lexical	127	73	121	45	17.18%	20%
Semantic	29	24	27	22	3.83%	9.77%
Total	800	494	704	225	100%	100%

Also, within each context, the extent to which each teacher corrected different types of oral errors was also measured. The findings indicated that in the Iranian context, the teachers provided most of their OCF in response to morpho-syntactic errors (see Table 4.13).

**Table 4. 13 Iranian teachers' OCF on different types of oral errors**

<i>Teachers</i>	<b>Morpho-syntactic</b>		<b>Phonological</b>		<b>Lexical</b>		<b>Semantic</b>	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Mina	86	48.04 %	55	30.72 %	27	15.08 %	11	6.14 %
Baran	94	48.45 %	53	27.31 %	40	20.61 %	7	3.6 %
Shadi	118	64.13 %	30	16.3 %	19	10.32 %	17	9.23 %
Amir	75	70.75 %	12	11.32 %	14	13.2 %	5	4.71 %
Saber	72	59.01 %	25	20.49 %	25	20.49 %	0	0 %

In comparing the five teachers, Amir provided the largest proportion of OCF on morpho-syntactic errors (70.75%) than the other Iranian teachers. With regards to phonological errors, again there were differences in the extent to which the Iranian teachers corrected them. In comparing the teachers, Mina had slightly more phonological errors in her classes, and thus provided a larger proportion of her OCF in response to phonological errors (30.72%) than the other Iranian teachers did. As for lexical errors, once again there were differences between the Iranian teachers, with Baran and Saber both correcting similar proportions of lexical errors (i.e. 20.61% and 20.49%, respectively). Finally, semantic errors were the least frequent and the least corrected type of errors. In comparison, Shadi who had more semantic errors in her classes also corrected a larger proportion of semantic errors (9.23%) than the other Iranian teachers did.

Similarly, the NZ teachers differed in the extent to which they corrected different oral error types (see Table 4.14). The analysis of the data showed that the NZ teachers OCF practices were more balanced across the four types of oral errors. Apart from Jim, all four NZ teachers provided most of their OCF moves in response to morpho-syntactic errors. Jim provided most of his OCF in response to semantic errors (38.29 %) as they were also the most frequent errors in his classes. Kylie provided the largest proportion of morpho-syntactic errors (70 %) than the other four NZ teachers did. As for phonological errors, Tom provided a larger amount of OCF to correct phonological errors (23.4 %) than the other NZ teachers did. With regards to lexical errors, Rose provided a larger proportion of OCF in response to lexical errors (37.73 %) than her colleagues did.

**Table 4. 14 NZ teachers' OCF on different types of oral errors**

<i>Teachers</i>	<b>Morpho-syntactic</b>		<b>Phonological</b>		<b>Lexical</b>		<b>Semantic</b>	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Lisa	36	69.23 %	3	5.76 %	5	9.61 %	8	15.38 %
Kylie	21	70.0 %	6	20 %	2	6.66 %	1	3.33 %
Rose	27	50.94 %	2	3.77 %	20	37.73 %	4	7.54 %
Jim	15	31.91 %	5	10.63 %	9	19.14 %	18	38.29 %
Tom	54	57.44 %	22	23.4 %	16	17.02 %	2	2.12 %

In sum, the comparison of the teachers' correction of different types of oral errors showed differences both within each instructional context and across the two contexts. Overall, (apart from Jim) all Iranian and NZ teachers provided most of their OCF in response to morpho-syntactic errors as they were also the most frequent oral errors in both instructional contexts.

#### 4.2.4 Who corrects oral errors?

To explore the different sources of OCF (i.e. teacher, peer, and self-correction) that the Iranian and NZ teachers used, their OCF moves were categorised as one of the three groups of reformulations (teacher correction), prompts (student self-correction), or peer corrections. Like the previous section, multiple feedback moves were also classified as being reformulations, prompts, peer OCF, or mixed. However, mixed multiple feedback moves were excluded from the counts. The analysis of the findings showed that teacher correction was the most frequently used source of OCF in both instructional contexts, followed by self-correction, and finally peer correction (see Table 4.15).

**Table 4. 15 Teachers' use of the sources of OCF**

	Frequency		Percentage	
	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>	<i>Iran</i>	<i>NZ</i>
Total number of reformulations	558	153	80.17%	55.63%
Total number of prompts	134	109	19.25%	39.63%
Total number of peer OCF	4	13	0.57%	4.72%
Total	696	275	100%	100%

Overall, the analysis of the findings indicated that while Iranian teachers used noticeably more teacher correction (i.e. 80.17%) than the NZ teachers (55.63%) did, the NZ teachers allowed for more self-correction to take place in their classrooms (i.e. 39.63%) than the Iranian teachers (19.25%) did. As for peer correction, it was used very limitedly since the Iranian teachers only used it four times (i.e. 0.57%), and the NZ teachers encouraged it only 13 times (i.e. 4.72%).

The analysis of the Iranian teachers' use of the three sources of OCF revealed that all five teachers corrected a great amount of oral errors themselves, while some teachers used more teacher correction than others. For instance, Baran corrected 91.38% of all oral errors herself and encouraged self-correction for only 8.62% of all errors. In comparison Shadi and Saber used less

teacher correction (67.04% and 68.33%, respectively) and more student self-correction (32.96% and 28.33%, respectively) than the other Iranian teachers did. Finally, peer correction was only used four times by Saber (3.33%). Overall, Iranian teachers did not encourage peer correction and instead used teacher correction first, followed by self-correction. Table 4.16 summarises Iranian teachers' use of different sources of OCF.

**Table 4. 16 Iranian teachers' use of the sources of OCF**

<i>Teachers</i>	<b>Teacher correction</b>		<b>Self-correction</b>		<b>Peer correction</b>	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Mina	116	73.89%	41	26.11%	0	0%
Baran	159	91.38%	15	8.62%	0	0%
Shadi	120	67.04%	59	32.96%	0	0%
Amir	81	83.51%	16	16.49%	0	0%
Saber	82	68.33%	34	28.33%	4	3.33%

In the NZ context, more differences were observed across the five teachers' use of OCF sources (see Table 4.17). Jim and Tom corrected most errors themselves (60.97% and 62.92%, respectively), and while Tom also limitedly encouraged peer correction (3.37%), Jim did not. Rose used teacher correction (52.94%) slightly more than learner self-correction (47.05%), and similar to Jim, she did not encourage peer correction at all. However, Lisa and Kylie both allowed self-correction to take place more than teacher correction. More specifically, they both corrected similar proportions of oral errors through teacher correction (i.e. about 34%), and while Kylie greatly used self-correction (62.06%) in class, Lisa encouraged more peer correction (19.56%) in her class.

**Table 4. 17 NZ teachers' use of the sources of OCF**

<i>Teachers</i>	<b>Teacher correction</b>		<b>Self-correction</b>		<b>Peer correction</b>	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Lisa	16	34.78%	21	45.65%	9	19.56%
Kylie	10	34.48%	18	62.06%	1	3.44%
Rose	27	52.94%	24	47.05%	0	0%
Jim	25	60.97%	16	39.02%	0	0%
Tom	56	62.92%	30	33.70%	3	3.37%

In sum, the comparison of Iranian and NZ teachers' use of teacher, peer, and self-correction showed noticeable differences between the two groups of teachers, with the Iranian teachers

providing a much higher proportion of teacher correction than the NZ teachers did. As for peer correction, it was the least used source of OCF with the Iranian teachers only using it a few times, and three of four NZ teachers using it limitedly. There were also considerable differences between teachers from the same instructional context regarding their use of the three sources of OCF.

#### 4.2.5 When do teachers correct oral errors?

To explore the timing of teachers' error correction practices, their OCF moves were categorised into being either immediate or delayed. Similar to the two previous sections, multiple feedback moves were also explored and categorised accordingly and in cases where they were coded as mixed, they were excluded from the counts. Apart from delayed metalinguistic feedback and instances of delayed multiple feedback, all other OCF types were provided immediately in response to learners' oral errors. In practice, Iranian teachers used delayed feedback only once, and NZ teachers used it only three times.

The results of the analysis of Iranian and NZ teachers' timing of OCF shown in Table 4.18 indicated that both groups of teachers similarly provided most of their OCF immediately, with Iranian teachers providing slightly more immediate feedback (i.e. 99.87%) than NZ teachers (96.73%) did.

**Table 4. 18 Frequency and percentage of immediate vs. delayed OCF**

	Frequency		Percentage	
	<i><b>Iran</b></i>	<i><b>NZ</b></i>	<i><b>Iran</b></i>	<i><b>NZ</b></i>
<i>Total number of immediate fb</i>	827	267	99.87%	96.73%
<i>Total number of delayed fb</i>	1	9	0.12%	3.26%
<i>Total</i>	828	276	100%	100%

In addition, similar to the previous sections, teachers within a single instructional context were also compared to each other. In the Iranian context, apart from Saber who only provided one instance of delayed OCF, all the other OCF moves that the Iranian teachers provided were immediate (see Table 4.19). Overall, Iranian teachers provided extensive amounts of immediate OCF in response to learners' oral errors.



**Table 4. 19 Iranian teachers' timing of OCF**

Teachers	Teacher Response
Mina	Immediately: 176 (100%) Delayed: 0
Baran	Immediately: 194 (100%) Delayed: 0
Shadi	Immediately: 184 (100%) Delayed: 0
Amir	Immediately: 106 (100%) Delayed: 0
Saber	Immediately: 167 (99.4%) Delayed: 1

Similarly, in the NZ context, only Tom and Lisa provided very little instances of delayed OCF, with Tom and Lisa providing delayed OCF only three and six times, respectively. Overall, the NZ teachers' timing of OCF showed the NZ teachers' strong tendency to correct oral errors immediately. Table 4.20 summarises the five NZ teachers' OCF moves with regards to their timing.

**Table 4. 20 NZ teachers' timing of OCF**

Teachers	Teacher Response
Lisa	Immediately: 46 (88.46%) Delayed: 6
Kylie	Immediately: 30 (100%) Delayed: 0
Rose	Immediately: 53 (100%) Delayed: 0
Jim	Immediately: 47 (100%) Delayed: 0
Tom	Immediately: 91 (96.81%) Delayed: 3

In concluding this section, the comparison of the timing of Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF practices indicated that, apart from a few instances, both groups of teachers provided all their OCF moves immediately as students made the errors.

#### 4.2.6 Summary

In brief, the findings of my study indicated that teachers' OCF practices can vary from one teacher to another. That is, noticeable differences were observed between Iranian and NZ teachers' provision of OCF in classrooms, as well as between teachers' OCF practices within each of the

two instructional contexts. To investigate teachers' actual classroom practices, a number of aspects were explored with regards to different aspects of OCF.

First, Iranian and NZ teachers' total number of corrected oral errors were measured and compared, and the findings showed that the Iranian teachers corrected a noticeably larger proportion of oral errors than the NZ teachers did. Also, the Iranian teachers provided a large number of OCF moves in correcting the errors. In addition, the NZ teachers provided a large amount of false positive confirmation on many of the learners' oral errors.

Second, the analysis of the explicitness of the teachers' OCF practices showed that the Iranian teachers provided a considerably greater proportion of implicit OCF than the NZ teachers did. Which means that, in comparison, the NZ teachers provided more explicit OCF than the Iranian teachers did. With regards to the types of OCF, findings showed that the Iranian teachers used 13 types of OCF, and the NZ teachers used 12 types of OCF when correcting students' oral errors. Both Iranian and teachers used recast and multiple feedback as their two most frequent types of OCF in class. Also, the findings revealed a new type of OCF (i.e. explicit indication) and a teacher's response to oral errors (i.e. false positive confirmation) that had not been identified before. The analysis of the data showed that the NZ teachers provided a larger proportion of false positive confirmation than the Iranian teachers did.

Third, the analysis of teachers' correction of different types of oral errors indicated that morpho-syntactic errors were the most frequently occurred errors in all classes (except for Jim's), and thus they were the most frequently corrected type of errors in both instructional contexts. In the Iranian context, phonological errors were the second most frequent and the second most corrected errors. However, in the NZ context, the second most frequent and second most corrected oral errors were lexical errors. Semantic errors were the least frequent errors in both instructional contexts.

Fourth, the analysis of the teachers' provision of reformulations, prompts, and peer correction indicated that teacher correction was overall the most frequently used source of OCF in both

contexts, with the Iranian teachers using noticeably larger proportions than the NZ teachers. Also, in comparison, the NZ teachers provided more opportunities for self-correction than the Iranian teachers did. As for peer correction, both Iranian and NZ teachers provided very little amount of it when correcting oral errors, with the NZ teachers providing more instances of peer correction than the Iranian teachers did.

Fifth, the timing of teachers' provision of OCF was examined by looking at the extent to which the teachers provided immediate and delayed OCF. The results showed that apart from a few instances of delayed OCF, almost all of the Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF moves were provided immediately after the oral errors occurred.

#### **4.3 RQ3: What is the relationship between the OCF beliefs and classroom practices of a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers?**

RQ3 explored the relationship between the stated beliefs and actual classroom practices of teachers in both instructional contexts (i.e. Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL). Similar to the findings of the first two research questions, the findings of RQ3 are presented around key themes identified; the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the correction of oral errors (Section 4.3.1), the relationship between beliefs and practices regarding the explicitness of OCF (Section 4.3.2), the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices on the correction of different types of oral errors (Section 4.3.3), the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices on the sources of OCF (Section 4.3.4), and the relationship between beliefs and practices regarding the timing of OCF (Section 4.3.5).

To address RQ3 and determine the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and actual classroom practices, the two sets of data for RQ1 (interviews) and RQ2 (classroom observation data) were compared. In doing so, first, the key points discussed in interviews were selected and classroom data that related to each of these points were identified (see Table 4.21). For example, during the interviews, the teachers discussed their beliefs about whether or not oral errors should be corrected. In order to determine whether their beliefs about error correction were reflected in their practices

or not, the total number of corrected errors and ignored errors were counted. Then, the two sets of data (i.e. teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices) were compared alongside each other. That is, the key points in the interviews (from RQ1) and the teachers' classroom practices (from RQ2) were compared to determine the relationship between the two (for RQ3).

**Table 4. 21 Comparison of data on teachers' beliefs and classroom practices**

<b>Stated beliefs</b>	<b>Observed practices in class</b>
a) The importance of error correction	Number of corrected oral errors and ignored errors
b) How to correct errors	Number of implicit vs. explicit feedback
c) Which errors to correct	Number of corrected types of oral errors
d) Who to correct errors	Number of reformulations, prompts, peer correction
e) When to correct errors	Number of immediate vs. delayed feedback

In what follows, the results of the comparison of the two sets of data (belief interviews and classroom observation data) are presented by first looking at both Iranian and NZ teachers simultaneously. The teachers' stated beliefs are reported, and their error correction practices are presented in percentage counts, and the relationship between each teacher's beliefs and practices is assessed. In the next section, the findings of the analysis of the relationship between teachers' beliefs and OCF practices on the extent to which oral errors should be corrected are presented.

#### **4.3.1 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about whether or not errors should be corrected**

The comparison of the teachers' beliefs and classroom practices revealed that overall, there were many instances of consistency between the two for both Iranian and NZ teachers. As shown in Table 4.22 and Table 4.23, three of five Iranian (Mina, Baran, & Shadi) and one NZ teacher (Tom) believed that most if not all oral errors should be corrected. Mina firmly stated that all oral errors should be corrected, and no error should be ignored, and in practice, Mina corrected all student oral errors. Similarly, Baran and Shadi both believed that most oral errors should be corrected, but stated that they also believed that some minor errors can be ignored. In practice, Baran and Shadi both corrected most oral errors (93.33% and 93.20%, respectively) and only ignored 6.06% (Baran) and 6.79% (Shadi) of all the students' errors. This indicates that the three Iranian teachers

who had expressed strong support for the correction of errors, applied their stated beliefs to their classroom practices.

Also, Tom, the only NZ teacher who similarly believed that most oral errors should be corrected, had explained that error correction allows students to learn better from the feedback they receive. In practice, Tom corrected 80 out of the total 109 oral errors (73.39%) that occurred in his class. In other words, he ignored 26.60% of all student errors. Therefore, Tom's strong belief in the importance of correcting most students' oral errors were reflected in his practices to an extent, and while he corrected a high proportion of oral errors, he also ignored a high number of them which may not completely align with his stated beliefs.

The second group of teachers (two Iranian and Four NZ teachers) believed that not all oral errors should be corrected. The two Iranian teachers (Amir & Saber) claimed that they ignore oral errors if they are not repeated and do not break the communication of meaning. Similarly, the four NZ teachers (except for Tom) emphasised that oral errors that don't obstruct communication should be ignored in order to instil confidence in students. In practice, the two Iranian teachers ignored more errors than the other three Iranian teachers did, with Amir ignoring 18.42%, and Saber ignoring 30.95% of all oral errors. The four NZ teachers ignored a larger number of students' errors. Lisa and Rose ignored 28.57% and 14.12% of all oral errors in their classes, respectively. Jim corrected 61 out of a total 105 errors in his class; thus ignored 41.90% of all oral errors. Also, Kylie ignored the highest proportion (61.22%) of oral errors that had occurred in her class. That is, she only corrected 16 out of the 98 student errors.

**Table 4. 22 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of oral errors**

<b>Iranian Teachers</b>		
<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Practices</b>	
<b>Correct all/most errors</b>	<b>Total Errors</b>	<b>Teacher Response</b>
Mina	158	Corrected: 158 (100%) Ignored: 0 (0%)
Baran	198	Corrected: 186 (93.33%) Ignored: 12 (6.06%)
Shadi	162	Corrected: 151 (93.20%) Ignored: 11 (6.79%)
<b>Not all errors</b>		

Amir	114	Corrected: 92 (80.70%) Ignored: 21 (18.42%)
Saber	168	Corrected: 112 (66.66%) Ignored: 52 (30.95%)

Overall, apart from Amir and Rose who corrected more errors than they said they would, Saber and the three NZ teachers (Lisa, Kylie, & Jim) applied their beliefs to their classroom practices. The large proportion of oral errors that these four teachers ignored in their classes reflects their stated beliefs and concerns about negatively affecting learners' motivation.

**Table 4. 23 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of oral errors**

	<b>NZ Teachers</b>	
<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Practices</b>	
<b>Correct all/most errors</b>	<b>Total Errors</b>	<b>Teacher Response</b>
Tom	109	Corrected: 80 (73.39%) Ignored: 29 (26.60%)
<b>Not all errors</b>		
Lisa	98	Corrected: 40 (40.81%) Ignored: 28 (28.57%)
Kylie	98	Corrected: 16 (16.32%) Ignored: 60 (61.22%)
Rose	84	Corrected: 72 (85.71%) Ignored: 12 (14.12%)
Jim	105	Corrected: 61 (58.09%) Ignored: 44 (41.90%)

In sum, while the Iranian and NZ teachers had noticeably different beliefs about the extent to which oral errors should be corrected, in practice both Iranian and NZ teachers mainly performed in line with their stated beliefs. However, there was some level of mismatch between one Iranian (Amir) and two NZ (Rose & Tom) teacher's beliefs and practices on the correction of oral errors.

#### **4.3.2 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about the explicitness of OCF**

This section discusses the comparison of the teachers' beliefs and classroom practices on how errors should be corrected. The findings showed non-alignment between teachers' beliefs and the explicitness of their OCF practices in both instructional contexts.

Three Iranian (Mina, Amir, & Saber) and three NZ (Lisa, Kylie, & Jim) teachers believed that oral errors should be corrected implicitly, as opposed to explicitly. In practice, while the six

teachers provided most of their feedback moves implicitly, they also provided some, and in case of NZ teachers, a lot of explicit OCF. The Iranian teachers - Mina, Amir, and Saber - provided a high proportion of implicit OCF in practice, but also provided some explicit OCF. As shown in Table 4.24, while 85.43% of all Mina's OCF practices were implicit, she also provided 14.57% explicit OCF. Similarly, Amir delivered 94.90% implicit and 5.10% explicit OCF. Likewise, 89.66% of all Saber's OCF practices were implicit, and the remaining 10.34% of his total feedback moves were provided explicitly.

The three NZ teachers - Lisa, Kylie, Jim - similarly provided most of their feedback moves implicitly. However, despite the three teachers' emphasis on the detrimental effect of correcting oral errors explicitly, in practice, they responded to some errors explicitly. Lisa, Kylie, and Jim delivered 40%, 23.08%, and 18.42% of their overall OCF practices explicitly, respectively. Therefore, the beliefs and practices of the six teachers partially aligned (see Table 4.25).

Also, one Iranian (Baran) and one NZ (Tom) teacher had stated that oral errors should be corrected explicitly. In practice, the two teachers provided most of their feedback moves implicitly. Baran delivered 97.67% of her total OCF practices implicitly, and only a very small proportion (2.33%) of her feedback was delivered explicitly. Similarly, 83.72% of Tom's OCF practices were implicit, and only 16.28% of his feedback was provided explicitly. In other words, despite the two teachers' beliefs in the importance of correcting errors explicitly, in practice they corrected most of the errors implicitly.

**Table 4. 24 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on the explicitness of OCF**

<b>Iranian Teachers</b>	
<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Practices</b>
<b>Errors should be corrected implicitly</b>	<b><i>Teacher Response</i></b>
Mina	Implicitly: 129 (85.43%) Explicitly: 22 (14.57%)
Amir	Implicitly: 93 (94.90%) Explicitly: 5 (5.10%)
Saber	Implicitly: 104 (89.66%) Explicitly: 12 (10.34%)
<b>Errors should be corrected explicitly</b>	

Baran	Implicitly: 168 (97.67%) Explicitly: 4 (2.33%)
<b>Implicit &amp; explicit OCF are both effective</b>	
Shadi	Implicitly: 156 (89.66%) Explicitly: 18 (10.34%)

Despite the mismatch between most of the teachers' beliefs and practices on how to correct errors, one Iranian (Shadi) and one NZ (Rose) teacher's belief and practices aligned. Both teachers claimed that some oral errors should be corrected implicitly and some explicitly, and in practice, Shadi provided 89.66% of her feedback moves implicitly, and the remaining 10.34% explicitly. Rose, whose beliefs and practices on how to correct errors were more aligned, provided 50.98% explicit and 49.02% implicit OCF.

**Table 4. 25 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on the explicitness of OCF**

NZ Teachers	
Beliefs	Practices
<b>Errors should be corrected implicitly</b>	<i>Teacher Response</i>
Lisa	Implicitly: 21 (60%) Explicitly: 14 (40%)
Kylie	Implicitly: 20 (76.92%) Explicitly: 6 (23.08%)
Jim	Implicitly: 31 (81.58%) Explicitly: 7 (18.42%)
<b>Errors should be corrected explicitly</b>	
Tom	Implicitly: 72 (83.72%) Explicitly: 14 (16.28%)
<b>Implicit &amp; explicit OCF are both effective</b>	
Rose	Implicitly: 25 (49.02%) Explicitly: 26 (50.98%)

In sum, apart from one Iranian and one NZ teacher, the beliefs and practices of all other eight teachers on the explicitness of OCF diverged. While the teachers had different beliefs about how



errors should be corrected, in practice, all teachers (apart from Rose) provided most of their OCF practices implicitly.

### 4.3.3 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the correction of different types of errors

The analysis of the findings showed some level of mismatch between most of the Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and OCF practices about which type(s) of errors to correct. The summary of the findings is presented in Table 4.26 and Table 4.27.

The first group of teachers, Mina and Tom, believed that morpho-syntactic errors are more important than other oral errors, and thus need more attention. In practice, Mina provided most of her OCF (i.e. 48.04 %) on morpho-syntactic errors, 30.72 % on phonological errors, and 15.08 % and 6.14 % on lexical errors and semantic errors, respectively. Similarly, Tom also provided most of his OCF (i.e. 57.44 %) on morpho-syntactic errors, 23.4 % on phonological errors, and 17.02 % and 2.12 % on lexical and semantic errors, respectively.

The second group of teachers, which included three Iranian (Baran, Amir, & Saber) and two NZ (Lisa & Rose) teachers, believed that phonological errors are more important to correct than other errors. In practice, all five teachers diverged from their stated beliefs and mainly corrected morpho-syntactic errors. That is, Baran, Amir, and Saber provided 27.31 %, 11.32 %, and 20.49 % of all their OCF in response to phonological errors, respectively. Similarly, in the NZ context, Lisa and Rose provided only 5.76 % and 3.77 % of all their OCF practices on phonological errors.

**Table 4. 26 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of different error types**

Iranian Teachers	
Beliefs	Practices
<b>Morpho-syntactic errors are most important</b>	<i>Teacher Response</i>
Mina	Morpho-syntactic errors: 48.04 % Phonological errors: 30.72 % Lexical errors: 15.08 % Semantic errors: 6.14 %
<b>Phonological errors are most important</b>	
Baran	Morpho-syntactic errors: 48.45 %

	Phonological errors: 27.31 % Lexical errors: 20.61 % Semantic errors: 3.6 %
Amir	Morpho-syntactic errors: 70.75 % Phonological errors: 11.32 % Lexical errors: 13.2 % Semantic errors: 4.71 %
Saber	Morpho-syntactic errors: 59.01 % Phonological errors: 20.49 % Lexical errors: 20.49 % Semantic errors: 0 %
<b>All errors are equally important</b>	
Shadi	Morpho-syntactic errors: 64.13 % Phonological errors: 16.3 % Lexical errors: 10.32 % Semantic errors: 9.23 %

The third group of teachers (Shadi, Kylie, & Jim) believed that all errors are equally important and no particular error requires more attention than other types. In practice, the one Iranian (Shadi) and one of the two NZ (Kylie) teachers mainly corrected morpho-syntactic errors. That is, Shadi and Kylie provided 64.13 % and 70.0 % of all their OCF on morpho-syntactic errors, 16.3 % and 20 % on phonological, 10.32 % and 6.66 % on lexical, and 9.23 % and 3.33 % on semantic errors, respectively. In comparison to the other teachers, Jim who provided less OCF in response to morpho-syntactic errors (i.e. 31.91 %), provided a more balanced amount of OCF on different types of errors. That is, he provided 10.63 % of OCF on phonological errors, 19.14 % on lexical errors, and 38.29 % on semantic errors.

Overall, the analysis of the relationship between the teachers' beliefs and correction of different error types indicated some areas of non-alignment. Mina, Tom, and Jim were the only teachers whose stated beliefs and practices mainly aligned. As for the other seven teachers, there was inconstancy observed between their beliefs and practices.

**Table 4. 27 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on correction of different error types**

NZ Teachers	
Beliefs	Practices
<b>Morpho-syntactic errors are most important</b>	<i>Teacher Response</i>
Tom	Morpho-syntactic errors: 57.44 % Phonological errors: 23.4 % Lexical errors: 17.02 % Semantic errors: 2.12 %

<b>Phonological errors are most important</b>	
Lisa	Morpho-syntactic errors: 69.23 % Phonological errors: 5.76 % Lexical errors: 9.61 % Semantic errors: 15.38 %
Rose	Morpho-syntactic errors: 50.94 % Phonological errors: 3.77 % Lexical errors: 37.73 % Semantic errors: 7.54 %
<b>All errors are equally important</b>	
Kylie	Morpho-syntactic errors: 70.0 % Phonological errors: 20 % Lexical errors: 6.66 % Semantic errors: 3.33 %
Jim	Morpho-syntactic errors: 31.91 % Phonological errors: 10.63 % Lexical errors: 19.14 % Semantic errors: 38.29 %

#### 4.3.4 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about the sources of OCF

The data on the teachers' beliefs and the sources of OCF that they used in practice were analysed and compared alongside each other to determine the relationship between the two. The comparison revealed a considerable mismatch between Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on who should correct errors (see Table 4.28 and Table 4.29).

The five Iranian teachers had stated that the best way to correct oral errors is to provide opportunities for students to self-correct. If student self-correction fails, Iranian teachers believed that peer-correction can also benefit them, and finally if peer-correction also fails, teacher correction can help students. The Iranian teachers emphasised that teacher correction should be used only as the last source of OCF and only if the other two sources fail to correct the errors.

**Table 4. 28 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on the sources of OCF**

<b>Iranian Teachers</b>	
<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Practices</b>
<b>Self-correction is better than peer and teacher correction</b>	<b><i>Teacher Response</i></b>
Mina	Teacher correction: 73.89% Self-correction: 26.11% Peer correction: 0%
Baran	Teacher correction: 91.38%

	Self-correction: 8.62%
	Peer correction: 0%
Shadi	Teacher correction: 67.04%
	Self-correction: 32.96%
	Peer correction: 0%
Amir	Teacher correction: 83.51%
	Self-correction: 16.49%
	Peer correction: 0%
Saber	Teacher correction: 68.33%
	Self-correction: 28.33%
	Peer correction: 3.33%

However, in practice, all five Iranian teachers provided considerably more teacher correction than student self-correction. As indicated in Table 4.28, Mina corrected 73.89% of all oral errors herself, and allowed for only 26.11% of student self-correction to take place. Similarly, Baran provided a very high proportion of teacher feedback (91.38%) and very low (8.62%) student self-correction opportunities. Also, Shadi provided the least amount of teacher correction compared to other Iranian teachers with 67.04% teacher correction and 32.96% student self-correction. Likewise, Amir and Saber also provided more teacher correction than student self-correction with Amir accounting for 83.51%, and Saber accounting for 68.33% of teacher correction. Also, apart from Saber who only provided very few instances of peer correction (3.33%), the other four Iranian teachers did not provide any opportunity for peer correction to take place.

In the NZ context, as previously indicated, all five teachers also believed that self-correction is the best source of OCF, followed by peer, and teacher correction. However, unlike the Iranian teachers, the NZ teachers admitted that it may not always be possible to achieve self-correction in practice, and teacher correction may be more practical and ‘real’. As Table 4.29 illustrates, overall, the NZ teachers used a more balanced amount of teacher and self-correction. Lisa and Kylie provided smaller amounts of teacher correction than the other three NZ teachers did (i.e. 34.78% and 34.48% teacher correction, respectively), and for this reason, there seems to be more alignment between their stated beliefs and practices.

Rose and Jim who did not have any instances of peer correction in their classes, still provided many opportunities for self-correction. That is, Rose encouraged self-correction 47.05% of the

times and Jim allowed for it to happen 39.02% overall. Finally, Tom corrected most of the errors himself, but also at times encouraged peer (3.37%) and self-correction (33.70%).

**Table 4. 29 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on the sources of OCF**

<b>Iranian Teachers</b>	
<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Practices</b>
<b>Self-correction is better than peer and teacher correction, but it's not always possible</b>	<b><i>Teacher Response</i></b>
Lisa	Teacher correction: 34.78% Self-correction: 45.65% Peer correction: 19.56%
Kylie	Teacher correction: 34.48% Self-correction: 62.06% Peer correction: 3.44%
Rose	Teacher correction: 52.94% Self-correction: 47.05% Peer correction: 0%
Jim	Teacher correction: 60.97% Self-correction: 39.02% Peer correction: 0%
Tom	Teacher correction: 62.92% Self-correction: 33.70% Peer correction: 3.37%

Overall, the analysis of the teachers' beliefs and their use of the sources of OCF revealed more alignment between the two in the NZ context, than in the Iranian one. While all five Iranian and NZ teachers had supported self- and peer correction over teacher correction, NZ teachers allowed for a more balanced amount of the three sources of OCF to take place in their classes.

#### **4.3.5 The relationship between teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about the timing of OCF**

The analysis of data from the interviews and classroom observations revealed a considerable mismatch between both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and practices with regards to the timing of OCF (see Table 4.30 and Table 4.31).

As previously indicated, one Iranian (Amir) and two NZ teachers (Lisa & Kylie) believed that delayed OCF is most effective to correct oral errors. However, in practice, the three teachers' error correction practices varied considerably. Amir and Kylie corrected all errors immediately

and provided no delayed OC. Similarly, Lisa provided most of her OCF (88.46%) immediately in response to students' oral errors.

Also, the second group of teachers, which consisted of three Iranian (Mina, Shadi, & Saber) and three NZ teachers (Rose, Jim, & Tom), believed that some oral errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay, depending on the focus of the task and students' language proficiency. In practice, two Iranian teachers (Mina & Shadi) and two NZ teachers (Rose & Jim) corrected all of their students' errors immediately; that is, none of the four teachers provided delayed OCF. Likewise, Saber and Tom, both provided a significant amount of their feedback moves immediately. Saber, the only Iranian teacher who provided one instance of delayed OCF, corrected almost all oral errors immediately. In addition, Tom corrected 96.80% of all oral errors immediately, and only the remaining 3.19% of his OCF practices were provided with delay. Therefore, the beliefs and practices of these six teachers on the timing of OCF did not align.

**Table 4. 30 Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on the timing of OCF**

<b>Iranian Teachers</b>	
<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Practices</b>
<b>Both immediate &amp; delayed OCF are effective</b>	<b><i>Teacher Response</i></b>
Mina	Immediately: 176 (100%) Delayed: 0
Saber	Immediately: 167 (99.4%) Delayed: 1
Shadi	Immediately: 184 (100%) Delayed: 0
<b>Delayed OCF is more effective</b>	
Amir	Immediately: 106 (100%) Delayed: 0
<b>Immediate OCF is more effective</b>	
Baran	Immediately: 194 (100%) Delayed: 0

Baran was the only teacher who believed that oral errors should be corrected immediately, and in practice, she provided all her OCF immediately in response to the students' errors.

**Table 4. 31 NZ teachers' beliefs and practices on the timing of OCF**

<b>NZ Teachers</b>	
<b>Beliefs</b>	<b>Practices</b>

<b>Both immediate &amp; delayed OCF are effective</b>	<b>Teacher Response</b>
Jim	Immediately: 47 (100%) Delayed: 0
Tom	Immediately: 91 (96.80%) Delayed: 3 (3.19%)
Rose	Immediately: 53 (100%) Delayed: 0
<b>Delayed OCF is more effective</b>	
Lisa	Immediately: 46 (88.46%) Delayed: 6 (11.53%)
Kylie	Immediately: 30 (100%) Delayed: 0

Overall, the analysis of the findings showed that apart from Baran, all other four Iranian and all five NZ teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the timing of OCF diverged.

#### 4.3.6 Summary

In sum, the analysis of data for RQ3 revealed that many instances of non-alignment between the beliefs and OCF classroom practices of the teachers. In comparison, less alignment between beliefs and practices was observed in the Iranian context than in the NZ context. More specifically, first, with regards to the extent to which *oral errors should be corrected*, most of the Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and practices aligned. While all five Iranian and five NZ teachers believed that oral errors should be corrected, they differed in the extent to which they believed errors should be corrected. Despite the differences in the Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs, they mainly applied their beliefs to their practices.

Second, with regards to *how* oral errors should be corrected, the relationship between both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and practices diverged (apart from one NZ teacher whose beliefs and practices aligned). The teachers held different beliefs about the explicitness of OCF, but apart from Rose, they all mainly used implicit OCF. Rose, who had indicated that both implicit and explicit OCF are effective, in practice provided a more balanced amount of each one.

Third, as for *which errors* to correct, the findings showed some level of alignment, but mainly non-alignment between the teachers' beliefs and practices. While the teachers held different

beliefs about which errors to correct, they corrected the more frequent errors in their classrooms more, as opposed to the error type(s) they had stated they should. Only one Iranian (Mina) and two NZ (Tom, Jim) teachers' beliefs and correction of different types of errors aligned.

Fourth, regarding *who* should correct oral errors, the findings showed more alignment between the beliefs and practices of the NZ teachers, than the Iranian teachers. This is because, despite all five Iranian teachers' beliefs about the effectiveness of self-correction and peer correction over teacher correction, in practice, they corrected a large proportion of all errors through teacher correction. However, the NZ teachers also supported self- and peer correction over teacher correction, but further expressed doubts about their practicality, and in practice, provided a more balanced amount of all three sources of OCF.

Finally, as for *when* oral errors should be corrected, the findings showed a great amount of non-alignment between the beliefs and practices of both Iranian (apart from Baran) and NZ teachers. This is because, despite the teachers' beliefs about when to correct errors, they all provided a great proportion of their OCF practices immediately. However, Baran was the only teacher who believed that errors should be corrected immediately, and in class, demonstrated her beliefs in her practices.



## **Chapter 5: Discussion**

### **5.0 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the findings of the three research questions with reference to empirical studies and theoretical arguments in the Literature Review chapter. The first sections (5.1-5.1.5) discuss findings of Research Question 1. Sections 5.2-5.2.5 discuss findings of Research Question 2, and the next sections (5.3-5.3.5) discuss findings of Research Question 3.

### **5.1 RQ1: What beliefs do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers hold about: learners' oral errors, the provision of OCF, and the sources of their beliefs?**

The discussion of findings from RQ1 are presented in three sections:

In Section 5.1.1, a discussion of the comparison of Iranian and NZ teachers' affective attitudes towards learners' oral errors is presented.

In Sections 5.1.2-5.1.7, discussions of the comparison of Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF are provided.

In Section 5.1.8, a discussion of the sources of Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs is presented.

#### **5.1.1 The comparison of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' affective attitudes towards learners' oral errors**

This study revealed that while all five NZ teachers expressed a positive affective attitude (i.e. feeling) about the occurrence of learners' oral errors, only three of five Iranian EFL teachers felt the same. These teachers believed that oral errors are unavoidable and a natural part of L2 development, that learners need to go through a process in which errors occur, and that errors are not a sign of failure but an indication that learning is taking place. The positive affective attitude that most teachers in my study had towards oral errors was similar to Palestinian EFL teachers' feelings in Firwana's (2010) study. Using questionnaires with 151 teachers and interviews with 12 teachers, Firwana found that a strong majority of the teachers had positive affective attitude about the occurrence of oral errors and considered them to be a natural outcome of any language learning.

Despite the noticeable differences in the number of participants in my study and that of Fiwarni's, it is interesting to observe that similar results were obtained regarding teachers' general positive affective attitude towards oral errors. In my study, all five NZ and three of five Iranian teachers believed that oral errors are an indication of learning. However, given the small scope of my study and the limited available literature, more research is needed to explore attitudes towards the occurrence of oral errors among larger sample sizes.

However, my study found that two of five Iranian teachers – Baran and Amir – who were teaching upper-intermediate level classes at the time of data collection expressed some level of negativity towards the occurrence of learners' oral errors. Baran believed that errors should not occur in higher level classes, and Amir noted that if higher level learners make oral errors on what has already been taught in class, it 'bothers' him. Overall, both teachers believed that at higher levels of proficiency, learners are expected to produce correct language utterances. Both teachers, nonetheless, claimed to adopt a 'patient' approach towards errors by hiding their negative feelings in class.

Since Baran and Amir were the only Iranian teachers who were teaching higher level classes at the time of data collection, this could imply that learners' proficiency levels may affect teachers' feelings towards oral errors, that is, teachers may feel less positive towards errors in higher level classes. Also, given that none of the NZ teachers expressed any negativity towards errors, this can be one area of divergence between the two contexts. However, more research is needed to determine whether learners' proficiency levels may affect teachers' feelings towards the occurrence of oral errors, and whether instructional context plays a mediating role on teachers' feelings.

### **5.1.2 The comparison of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF**

The discussion of findings on teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF are presented in five sections:

- (1) teachers' beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected (Section 5.1.3), which also includes a discussion of the reasons behind teachers' beliefs (Section 5.1.3.1);
- (2) teachers' beliefs about how errors should be corrected (i.e. the explicitness of OCF) (Section 5.1.4);
- (3) teachers' beliefs about which error types are more important to correct (Section 5.1.5);
- (4) teachers' beliefs about who should correct errors (i.e. the sources of OCF) (Section 5.1.6) and;
- (5) teachers' beliefs about when errors should be corrected (i.e. the timing of OCF) (Section 5.1.7).

### **5.1.3 Teachers' beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected**

My study found that all five Iranian and five NZ teachers believed that oral errors should be corrected, yet they differed in the degree to which they considered OCF to be necessary. While three of five Iranian teachers considered error correction to be necessary, only one NZ teacher (Tom) stressed the importance of correcting oral errors. Teachers' overall support for the use of OCF to correct errors has previously been found in several studies (e.g. Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). Despite the differences in their research designs and the number and characteristics of their research participants, both Rahimi and Zhang (2015) and Gurzynski-Weiss (2010) found that teachers generally have strong support for error correction in language classrooms. This may be because, similar to my study, the teachers in their studies believed that OCF can assist L2 development, and thus they support its use in classrooms.

Iranian and NZ teachers' overall support for error correction can also be explained theoretically by means of the noticing hypothesis and the interaction hypothesis. First, according to the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 2001), the input that learners receive through OCF can turn into intake only through conscious attention to the input and thus noticing is a requirement for L2 development. In addition, as learners become aware of the gap between what they know and produce and what target language form they need to produce, they can make modifications to their existing knowledge (Gass & Varonis, 1994). Therefore, OCF can assist learners by providing negative

evidence that can increase learners' conscious attention to forms and allow them to restructure parts of their existing knowledge that deviates from target language forms (Gass, 1997, 2018).

Second, further support can come from the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996, 2015) which emphasises the importance of negotiation interaction between learners and their teachers. This interaction can lead to interactional adjustments that arise in order to repair communication breakdowns that have occurred (Gass, 1997, 2018; Long, 1996, 2015). It is believed that through interaction and opportunities for negative feedback, learners are better able to comprehend meaning and pay attention to target language forms (Gass & Mackey, 2006; S. Li, 2010; Loewen & Sato, 2018; Pica, 1994).

Despite all ten teachers' overall support for error correction, my study also found that four of five NZ teachers repeatedly expressed their concerns about the negative effects of over-correction of errors on learners' affective statuses. The NZ teachers believed that too much attention to oral errors can affect learners' emotions negatively and hamper their motivation. However, in the Iranian context, only one teacher (Saber) believed that over-correction may negatively affect learners' level of motivation.

Teachers' concerns about the negative effects of over-correction can also be understood from the theoretical perspective. According to Krashen (1982) and Schulz (1996), certain negative emotions such as stress can interfere with the process of learning. In the case of OCF, some teachers may assume that over-correction of errors can cause stress and anxiety and that this can lead to learners' unwillingness to learn, and ultimately result in less learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Empirically, earlier studies have also found that some teachers may be concerned about the negative effects of CF on learners (e.g. Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Kamiya, 2014; Roothoof, 2014; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016).

For instance, the four ESL teachers in Kamiya's (2014) study claimed that creating a comfortable learning environment in which learners are not affected negatively by explicit OCF is more

important than error correction as CF can affect learners' motivation and self-confidence. Similarly, both Vásquez and Harvey (2010) and Roothoof (2014) found that despite the teachers' positive attitudes towards OCF, they expressed concerns about damaging learners' affective dimensions. Hence, the findings of my study together with Vásquez and Harvey (2010), Roothoof (2014), and Kamiya's (2014) studies revealed that in spite of the teachers' positive attitudes towards OCF, they may have doubts about negatively affecting learners' motivation and feelings.

Therefore, the comparison of the two contexts showed that while all teachers expressed overall support for error correction, Iranian EFL teachers were more likely to stress the necessity of error correction, whereas NZ ESL teachers were more concerned with the negative effects that could arise from over-correction. This may suggest that in my study, instructional context could have affected teachers' beliefs about the importance of error correction. This argument can be supported with reference to studies that have found EFL teachers to be very focused on giving OCF (e.g. Agudo, 2014; Firwana, 2010; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). Both S. Li (2017) and Rahimi and Zhang (2015) claimed that instructional context can affect teachers' beliefs about the importance of OCF. A possible reason may be that there is more focus on accuracy in the EFL context than in the ESL context where the main aim may be to develop effective oral communication (Bitchener & Storch, 2016). This may lead EFL teachers to focus more on form and accuracy than ESL teachers do. Therefore, the findings of my study can provide further support for the assumption that teaching context may affect teachers' beliefs about the importance of OCF.

Also, further analysis of my study's interview data revealed that teaching experience might affect teachers' beliefs about whether or not to correct errors. In both contexts, the more experienced teachers (Mina and Baran from Iran and Tom from NZ) expressed more support for the use of OCF to correct errors than the less experienced teachers (Saber from Iran and Lisa from NZ) did. It may be that the more experienced teachers in my study had become more aware of the effectiveness of OCF for L2 development through years of teaching and less concerned with the

negative effects it may have on learners. As mentioned earlier in the Findings chapter, some teachers expressed during the interviews that error correction helps learners learn better. In their initial interviews, both Mina and Tom expressed that:

*“definitely all errors must be corrected because they (learners) learn from their mistakes”*  
(Mina, 1)

*“yeah corrected because nobody corrects them and they (learners) continue with the mistake. They learn from correction”* (Tom, 1)

This finding can also be seen in previous studies that have found a positive relationship between teachers’ experience and support for error correction (e.g. Demir & Özmen, 2017; Evans et al., 2010; Farrell, 2013; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kartchava, 2006; Kissau et al., 2013; S. Li, 2017; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Schulz, 1996; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). These studies showed that more experienced teachers held stronger beliefs (i.e. expressed more support) about the importance of error correction than less experienced teachers. This may be because less experienced teachers, as was the case in my study, were more concerned with negatively affecting learners’ emotions through error correction (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). In my study, the least experienced teachers from both contexts (Saber & Lisa) voiced their concerns about damaging learners’ self-confidence and motivation through overusing OCF. Overall, considering these findings, my study suggests that teaching experience may affect teachers’ beliefs about the importance of correcting errors in a way that more experienced teachers may be more supportive of OCF than less experienced teachers.

To sum up, all teachers from both contexts agreed on the importance of correcting errors, yet Iranian teachers expressed more support for error correction. Most of NZ teachers feared the negative effects of over-correction on learners’ motivation. Also, it was found that instructional context and teaching experience may affect teachers’ beliefs. However, to have a better understanding of why Iranian and NZ teachers hold different beliefs about the importance of OCF, I now discuss some possible reasons.

### **5.1.3.1 Reasons for the teachers' beliefs about whether or not to correct errors**

As teachers expressed their beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected, they were also asked to explain their beliefs, and as a result, four main reasons emerged from the interview data, namely: (1) OCF has the potential to lead to L2 development, (2) accuracy is more important than fluency, (3) learners expect to be corrected, and (4) it is part of teachers' responsibilities to correct errors. In what follows, findings related to each of these four reasons are discussed.

#### *(1) OCF can assist L2 development*

The first area of complete agreement between Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers was found with regards to their beliefs about the role of OCF in L2 development. All five Iranian and five NZ teachers claimed that OCF is effective as it can assist L2 development. The teachers' overall support for the use of OCF is in line with what the literature says about teachers' general support for providing OCF in L2 development (e.g. Firwana, 2010; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Kartchava et al., 2018; Leeman, 2007; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). These studies found that teachers mainly consider error correction to be important because it can play a facilitative role in their learning process. The teachers in my study also stressed that OCF can provide opportunities for students to learn from their mistakes and develop their knowledge of the target language. As discussed in the previous section, theoretical support for this finding comes specifically from Schmidt's (2001) noticing hypothesis. That is, noticing hypothesis states that through OCF learners are able to identify gaps in their existing knowledge and make conscious attempt to improve those areas, and thus develop their knowledge of the target language.

#### *(2) Accuracy is more important than fluency*

A second reason for the teachers' beliefs about the use of OCF may have been because of their perceptions about accuracy and fluency. A comparison of the data showed that Iranian and NZ teachers had complete agreement with regards to their beliefs about accuracy and fluency. That is, the findings showed that four of five Iranian and four of five NZ teachers either valued fluency over accuracy or considered them both equally important. These teachers stated during the interviews that depending on the type of classroom task, their approaches to fluency and accuracy

may change. That is, in communicative tasks they are more likely to focus on fluency, and thus ignore more errors, whereas in grammar-related tasks, teachers tend to stress accuracy over fluency. This finding can also be seen in some previous studies (e.g. Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Wang et al., 2018). For instance, Wang et al.'s (2018) investigation of three EFL teachers' beliefs revealed that the teachers considered oral communication fluency more important than grammatical accuracy and stated that OCF should mainly focus on increasing learners' communicative skills.

However, in my study, despite most of the Iranian and NZ teachers' support for fluency or considering both fluency and accuracy as equally important, one Iranian and one NZ teacher believed accuracy to be more important than fluency. The two teachers – Mina and Tom – both explicitly stated their strong support for grammatical accuracy and believed that all errors should be corrected. As mentioned earlier (Section 5.3.1), both teachers stated during the interviews that teaching mainly includes the correction of errors and creating opportunities for learners to learn from their mistakes.

### *(3) Learners expect OCF*

The third possible reason why the teachers believed oral errors should be corrected is because of their perceptions about learners' expectations. However, the comparison of the two contexts showed some level of disagreement between Iranian and NZ teachers. That is, while three of five NZ teachers acknowledged that learners may expect OCF, all five Iranian teachers repeatedly stated that they provide OCF because they believe that learners expect error correction. The difference between the two contexts in this regard is that, unlike all Iranian teachers who stressed their concerns about their learners' expectation for OCF, the three NZ teachers only acknowledged that some learners may want error correction.

However, the NZ teachers stated that their OCF practices may not always align with learners' expectations for OCF, as they do not support over-correction of errors. For instance, teachers Kylie, Rose, and Jim stated that while some learners expect OCF on all or most of their errors,



they avoid providing too much error correction to prevent obstructing communication. Teachers' concerns about learners' expectation for CF has previously been referred to by Farrell and Bennis (2013). In their case study on a novice and experienced ESL teacher, Farrell and Bennis found that both teachers agreed that learners expect CF and attend English classes to have their errors being corrected by the teacher. Similarly, in my study, all Iranian teachers claimed that they provide OCF to fulfil their learners' needs to be corrected, whereas no NZ teacher believed that errors should be corrected merely because of learners' expectation for OCF.

One possible explanation for this is that all five Iranian EFL teachers were teaching learners only from Iran, which means that they had a good understanding of what their learners might have expected as language learners. The fact that the Iranian teachers had learnt English in Iran through a similar system as their current learners, might mean that they had a better insight into what their learners were experiencing and what they needed or expected from an English EFL class. This was clearly the case with three of four Iranian teachers who claimed that they recall both expecting and admiring OCF from their teachers as learners and that this had led them to believe that their learners may similarly expect error correction.

In contrast, NZ teachers were teaching English to international learners from a range of different countries, and their learners had some level of experience of learning EFL in their countries prior to travelling to NZ. Therefore, there is a possibility that NZ ESL teachers might not have had a comprehensive understanding of what teaching approaches their learners were familiar with and what they expected in terms of error correction. That is because, unlike the Iranian teachers, the NZ teachers did not share similar EFL language learning experience with their learners, and thus might have lacked the comprehensive understanding that Iranian teachers had of their learners and their OCF expectations.

#### *(4) OCF is the teacher's responsibility and a proxy of conscientiousness*

The final reason that emerged from teachers' interview data regarding their beliefs about the importance of error correction was related to their perceptions about their roles as teachers. The

analysis of interview data showed two main themes: (1) three of five Iranian and one NZ teacher believed that providing OCF is their main role as teachers, and (2) four of five Iranian teachers claimed that through OCF, they demonstrate their attention and sense of responsibility to learners.

The first theme, teachers' beliefs about their role as sources of OCF, provides further confirmation for the assumption that some teachers tend to consider error correction as part of their responsibilities as teachers (Bitchener, 2012). One possible explanation for this may be that the three Iranian and one NZ teacher who considered OCF as their main role as teachers may have had a more traditional approach to teaching which might have led them to consider themselves as the main source of knowledge and therefore, to be the providers of correct language forms. This was evident from the four teachers' responses to the interviews when they stressed their roles not only as the main source of knowledge in the class and, but also as the one responsible for error correction.

A second possible reason may be related to their teaching experience, that is, the four teachers were amongst the more experienced teachers which may suggest that teaching experience can affect teachers' perceptions about the importance of correcting errors and teachers' roles as OCF providers. This assumption may be reasonable since the least experienced teachers from both contexts (Saber & Lisa) emphasised that their main role is not to correct errors, but to motivate learners in their language learning progress. This finding is in line with Fallah and Nazari's (2019) study on Iranian EFL teachers who found that while novice teachers consider CF as a more affective and personalised consideration, experienced teachers view it as a developmental aid. Overall, the findings of my study suggest that teaching experience can affect teachers' perceptions about their roles as teachers and OCF providers. However, given the small sample size of my study, further research is required to explore this assumption more comprehensively.

A third possible reason is that instructional context may be likely to affect teachers' beliefs about their roles as teachers. Given that three of five Iranian teachers considered OCF to be their main roles as teachers (in comparison to only one NZ teacher), it seems that the Iranian teachers in my

study were more likely to perceive OCF provision as their responsibility. This assumption can be supported with reference to findings from earlier studies on Iranian EFL teachers' beliefs about OCF (e.g. Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). These studies within the Iranian EFL context have shown that Iranian teachers tend to be sensitive towards errors (Karimi & Asadnia, 2015), and consider themselves as the primary source of knowledge in class (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015).

Further support for the claim that instructional context can affect teachers' beliefs about the importance of error correction comes from the second theme that emerged from the data. The second theme states that some teachers believed that by providing OCF they can demonstrate their knowledge, attention, and sense of responsibility to learners. This belief which was only expressed by four of five Iranian teachers may again point to the Iranian teachers' sensitivity towards errors and their roles as teachers. The four Iranian teachers believed that learners admire teachers who correct errors, and thus learners consider providing OCF an indication of the teachers' attention, sense of responsibility, and conscientiousness.

Overall, based on the two emerging themes that were mainly held by Iranian EFL teachers, it seems that instructional context may have affected teachers' beliefs about the importance of OCF. This is because the Iranian EFL teachers in my study were more likely to consider error correction part of their responsibilities as teachers and perceive it as an indication of their attention and knowledge. Further support comes from Rahimi and Zhang (2015), Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018), and Kaivanpanah et al. (2015) who, as previously mentioned, found that Iranian teachers are likely to have a traditional view towards teachers and consider themselves as the primary source of knowledge. The results of these three studies as well as my findings suggest that some teachers', and in particular Iranian EFL teachers', beliefs about the importance of error correction are likely to be affected by their perceptions of their roles as teachers.

In concluding this section, my study revealed that most of the Iranian EFL and all NZ ESL teachers had a positive affective attitude towards oral errors. While most of the Iranian teachers

stressed the importance of correcting learners' oral errors, most of the NZ teachers voiced their concerns about the possible negative effects of over-correction on learners' emotions and motivation. This study further found that instructional context and teaching experience may affect teachers' beliefs about the importance of OCF. This also aligns with the findings from Li's (2017) meta-analysis. That is, EFL and more experienced teachers may be more supportive of error correction than ESL and less experienced teachers.

Having discussed what teachers believe about the importance of OCF in error correction, in the following sections, I discuss findings of Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about other aspects of the provision of OCF (i.e. the explicitness of OCF, which errors to correct, the source of OCF, and the timing of OCF).

#### **5.1.4 Teachers' beliefs about whether to correct errors explicitly or implicitly**

According to the analysis of teachers' responses to the interview items that explored their beliefs about how to correct errors, the findings show that within each context, three types of beliefs were identified. The first group of teachers in each context considered implicit OCF to be more effective than explicit OCF. These findings confirm previous results that most teachers tend to value implicit over explicit OCF (e.g. Agudo, 2014; A. Brown, 2009; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kamiya, 2014; S. Li, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). As was the case with previous studies (e.g. Yoshida, 2008), both Iranian and NZ teachers in this study also mainly believed that implicit OCF can avoid interrupting and demotivating learners.

This finding aligns with the theoretical assumption of the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) which, as previously mentioned, states that OCF can negatively influence learners' motivation and self-confidence and promote anxiety. Most teachers in my study expressed that their support for more implicit types of OCF stems from their concerns about the possible negative effects of explicit OCF on some learners.

The second group of teachers believed that depending on the classroom task type and learners' proficiency levels, some errors should be corrected implicitly and others explicitly. That is, the more proficient learners are more likely to benefit from explicit OCF than lower level learners. This finding may theoretically be explained with reference to noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 2001) and the importance of noticing the gap for learners' L2 development. In comparison to lower level learners, more proficient learners may be more capable of noticing the gap between what they have produced and what the teacher has provided them with in the form of OCF.

Schmidt's noticing hypothesis can further be used to interpret the third group of teachers' beliefs that considered explicit OCF as the best way to correct oral errors as it can inform learners of their errors more explicitly. These teachers believed that more explicit OCF types can better inform learners of the areas that need improvement.

In comparing the Iranian and NZ teachers with regards to their beliefs about how to correct errors, my findings revealed three sets of beliefs within each context. The first group of teachers (three of five Iranian and three of five NZ teachers) believed that errors should be corrected implicitly and stated that implicit OCF is superior to explicit OCF because it can avoid demotivating and embarrassing learners. The second group of teachers consisting of only one Iranian and one NZ teacher believed that explicit OCF is more effective as it can be more direct in informing learners of areas they need to improve. Finally, the third group of teachers which also consisted of one Iranian and one NZ teacher believed that implicit and explicit OCF are both effective depending on the task and learners' proficiency levels. In explaining her support for the use of a combination of implicit and explicit OCF types, the NZ teacher (Rose) suggested that learners' proficiency levels can be a moderating factor for the explicitness of OCF. She believed that more proficient learners can benefit from explicit OCF, whereas less proficient learners require more implicit OCF types. Rose further explained that explicit OCF can be detrimental to less proficient learners.

Further analysis of the data showed that teaching experience may affect teachers' beliefs about how to correct errors. For instance, the least experienced teachers from both contexts (Saber &

Lisa) believed that errors should be corrected implicitly to avoid embarrassing learners and demotivating them. In contrast, two of the most experienced teachers (Baran & Tom) seemed to be less concerned with the potential negative effects of explicit OCF on learners' motivation, and instead expressed their support for the use of explicit OCF to remind learners of areas they need to improve.

Echoing Rahimi and Zhang (2015) and Junqueira and Kim's (2013) findings, the less experienced teachers in my study were less likely to support explicit OCF than the more experienced teachers. Rahimi and Zhang (2015) stated that novice teachers are likely to be more 'rigid' in their beliefs about OCF because of their limited classroom practices and are concerned with saving students' face. Whereas, more experienced teachers adopt a more 'flexible' approach to OCF as a result of years of language teaching, and thus consider both explicit and implicit OCF to be effective. Therefore, my findings confirm that teaching experience may be a moderating factor that can determine teachers' beliefs about how to correct errors, with the possibility that more experienced teachers may be more supportive of explicit OCF types than less experienced teachers.

Overall, this comparative study found that Iranian and NZ teachers held similar beliefs about how to correct errors. That is, both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs can be put into three categories: 1) errors should be corrected implicitly, 2) depending on the task and language proficiency, some errors should be corrected implicitly and some explicitly, and 3) errors should be corrected explicitly. This may suggest that instructional context in this study might not have affected how teachers perceive errors should be corrected. Instead, the findings showed that teaching experience can affect teachers' beliefs about this issue, and more experienced teachers are likely to be more supportive of explicit OCF than novice teachers.

#### **5.1.5 Teachers' beliefs about the correction of different types of oral errors**

Regarding the type of error(s) to correct, the comparison of teachers within each context revealed three categories of beliefs. Firstly, some teachers believed morpho-syntactic errors to be the most important errors to be corrected because they occur most frequently than other errors and can

ultimately hinder communication because of their high frequency. This finding confirms previous studies which found that some teachers are more concerned with correcting morpho-syntactic errors than other types of errors because of their high frequency in classrooms (e.g. Al Shahrani & Storch, 2014; D. Brown, 2016; Evans et al., 2010; Méndez & Reyez, 2012; Sluman, 2015). For instance, Sluman (2015) found that the teacher in her study was more concerned with correcting morpho-syntactic errors than phonological errors. This was mainly because the teacher believed morpho-syntactic errors are more generalizable to benefit the whole class, as opposed to phonological errors that may only concern one individual learner.

In addition, my study found a second group of teachers from both contexts who believed phonological errors to be the most important errors as mispronunciation can lead to miscommunication. This aligns with previous findings that showed some teachers' preferences towards correcting phonological errors (e.g. Aravena, 2015; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015). Finally, the last group of teachers claimed that no particular error is more important than others, and all errors are equally significant and should be the target of OCF. One possible reason may be that these teachers admitted to not have thought much about the different types of learner errors and considered them all equally important.

Overall, the comparison of the two contexts regarding teachers' beliefs about which errors to correct showed some differences. That is, one Iranian and one NZ teacher believed morpho-syntactic errors to be the most important errors that require teachers' attention. However, three of five Iranian and two of five NZ teachers believed phonological errors to be the most important errors. Finally, one of five Iranian and two of five NZ teachers considered all types of errors to be equally important.

In sum, the comparison of the two contexts showed that both Iranian and NZ teachers could be classified into three groups based on their beliefs about the type of error to correct. However, the two contexts were different in the number of teachers that held those three types of beliefs. That is, in comparing the two contexts, more Iranian teachers stressed phonological errors to be

important, whereas more NZ teachers believed all errors to be equally significant. Given the small number of participants in my study, no conclusive conclusion can be drawn, and thus this signals a need to further explore this more comprehensively.

#### **5.1.6 Teachers' beliefs about whether self-, peer, or teacher correction is most effective**

This study revealed that within each of the two contexts, the teachers held similar beliefs about who should correct errors. In the Iranian context, all five teachers believed in the superiority of self-correction, over peer correction and teacher correction. The Iranian teachers believed that self-correction can benefit learners' L2 development more as it involves them in the process of their own learning. Similarly, in the NZ context, except for one teacher (Tom), four of five the teachers believed in the effectiveness of self-correction over peer and teacher correction.

However, unlike Iranian teachers, the NZ teachers expressed their concerns about the practicality of pushing for self-correction and considered it to be 'too ideal'. That is, they believed that in practice, it may not always be possible to encourage self- and peer correction because of classroom-related factors such as time limitation and learners' lack of sufficient knowledge of the target language forms. The finding that all Iranian and most of the NZ teachers support self- over peer and teacher correction is in line with findings from previous studies (e.g. Agudo, 2014; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Melketo, 2012; Suárez Flórez & Basto Basto, 2017) that indicated that teachers mainly believe self-correction to be most effective as it can decrease learner anxiety and build more learner autonomy (Agudo, 2014).

This can be explained theoretically through Swain's (1985) pushed output hypothesis which states that pushing learners to produce output can have significant effects on L2 development as it allows learners to notice the gap in their knowledge, test their language related hypotheses, and reflect on their language through production. This argument may explain why all five Iranian and four of five NZ teachers clearly indicated that they support self-correction first, followed by peer and finally teacher correction as their last source of OCF.



However, only one NZ teacher (Tom) believed that self- and peer correction are impossible at times as learners may lack the required knowledge to notice their own and/or their peers' errors and he expressed his preference for teacher correction. This can be explained with reference to studies that have found instances where teachers did not hold a positive attitude towards self- and peer correction (e.g. Agudo, 2014; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Méndez & Reyez, 2012; Suárez Flórez & Basto Basto, 2017). Tom specifically claimed that he believes that learners do not have the required knowledge to notice and correct their own or their peers' errors which also aligns with Mendez and Cruz's (2012) findings. Méndez and Cruz's study in Mexico's EFL context showed that most teachers believed that only teachers can provide OCF and while self-correction can be effective, peer correction is the least favourable because it can potentially be harmful for learners' relationships.

In sum, my study found high levels of similarities in Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the source of OCF. That is, all five Iranian and four of five NZ teachers expressed their preferences for learner self-correction as the main source of OCF, followed by peer-correction and finally, teacher correction. Overall, my study revealed that with regards to beliefs about who should correct errors, instructional context might not play a moderating role in shaping teachers' perceptions. However, as explained in the Literature Review chapter, more investigation is needed to provide more insight into this area of research.

#### **5.1.7 Teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF**

This study revealed that within each context, teachers held different beliefs as to the timing of delivering OCF. The Iranian teachers' beliefs fall into three groups: (1) errors should be corrected with delay (1 teacher), (2) depending on significance of the error and task type, some errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay (3 teachers), and (3) errors should be corrected immediately (1 teacher). In comparison, NZ teachers' beliefs could be categorised into two groups: (1) both immediate and delayed OCF are effective depending on the task type and importance of the error (3 teachers), and (2) errors should be corrected with delay (2 teachers).

The overall comparison of teachers' beliefs in the two contexts showed some level of similarity. That is, three of five Iranian and three of five NZ teachers similarly believed that some oral errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay depending on two factors; (1) the type of the task and (2) the significance of the error. With regards to the task type, these teachers claimed that in conversation tasks they believe OCF should be delayed until the end of the task, but morpho-syntactic errors should be immediately corrected because of their high frequency and importance for learners' L2 development. With regards to the significance of the error, the study found that the teachers believe that if the error is important for communicating meaning and concerns most of the class, they are likely to correct it for all the students at the end of the task. This is in line with the findings from Roothoof's (2014) study that indicated that teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF may depend on the significance of the error. That is, teachers believe that errors that hinder communication may require immediate OCF in comparison with errors that do not cause miscommunication and can be corrected with delay.

Also, one of five Iranian and two of five NZ teachers believed that errors should be delayed to avoid interrupting learners' communication. These teachers expressed concerns about the potential negative effect of immediate OCF on learners' motivation which can be explained theoretically through Krashen's filter hypothesis. With reference to Krashen's theory, these three teachers feared that immediate OCF can interrupt communication flow, and thus be detrimental to learners' self-confidence and cause anxiety.

Furthermore, only one Iranian teacher – Baran – believed that errors should be corrected immediately because of the high number of errors that occur in class. Baran, one of the most experienced Iranian teachers, claimed that because of the high number of errors that learners make, correcting them immediately can benefit learners most as it helps to save time. Baran's preference towards immediate OCF can be understood with reference to her long teaching experience and her support for explicit error correction. She had clearly indicated during the interviews that learners learn best by receiving explicit and immediate OCF which allows them to immediately notice their areas of weakness. This can also be explained theoretically through both noticing

hypothesis and immediate cognitive comparison. The noticing hypotheses stresses the importance of creating opportunities for learners to notice the gap in their existing knowledge, and thus pay more attention to the input they receive (i.e. OCF). Therefore, according to Baran's beliefs, immediate OCF indicates to learners the gaps and areas that need further improvement more effectively. In addition, immediate cognitive comparison explains that immediate OCF can be effective as it allows learners to immediately compare their knowledge to the received input (i.e. OCF) and ultimately enable them to restructure their knowledge. Therefore, immediate OCF can reduce the interval between the error and OCF and allow learners to better notice the gap in their interlanguage.

Also, the fact that no NZ teacher expressed support for the use of only immediate OCF may seem reasonable given most NZ teachers' concerns regarding the possibility of affecting learners' emotions with explicit OCF and over-correction. This finding is in line with the many researchers who previously found that most teachers express doubts about using immediate OCF (e.g. Bell, 2005; A. Brown, 2009; Davis, 2003; Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Kartchava, 2006; Méndez & Reyez, 2012; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015; Roothoof, 2014; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). As was the case with Kaivanpanah et al.'s (2015) study, the teachers in my study (especially NZ teachers) also believed that immediate OCF can damage learners' self-esteem and confidence levels. Also, similar to Cáceres Aravena (2015) and Méndez and Cruz's (2012) findings, my findings show that the teachers who disapproved of immediate OCF were concerned with interrupting learners' communication. This suggests that for these teachers, learners' affective statuses might have influenced their beliefs about the timing of OCF.

Further analysis of the data showed that teachers' experience may have affected their beliefs about the timing of OCF. For instance, three of the most experienced teachers in the two contexts (Mina, Amir, and Tom) were amongst those who believed that a more diverse and flexible approach to errors which uses a combination of both immediate and delayed OCF can benefit learners most. In addition, the least experienced teachers in both contexts (Saber & Lisa) believed that delaying OCF till the end of the task can help maintain learners' motivation to continue learning the

language. Overall, these findings may suggest that teaching experience can affect teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF; with more experienced teachers supporting a combination of immediate and delayed OCF types and less experienced teachers preferring only delayed OCF in correcting errors. This confirms Bell (2005) and Rahimi and Zhang (2015) findings that showed that more experienced teachers were more flexible about immediate OCF, as opposed to less experienced teachers being hesitant towards immediately correcting errors for fear of negatively affecting learners.

However, the limited literature on the relationship between teaching experience and teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF has revealed contradicting results. Fallah and Nazari (2019) used a questionnaire to explore 137 novice and experienced Iranian teachers and found that the novice teachers were significantly more supportive of immediate than delayed CF. Nonetheless, Ölmezer-Öztürk's (2019) study on four novice and four experienced Turkish EFL teachers did not find a significant link between teachers' teaching experience and their preferences for immediate OCF, since some of both novice and experienced teachers believed in the importance of immediate OCF. It is likely that because of the different sample sizes and research designs that were used in these two studies, their results differed noticeably. Overall, given the contradicting results of the limited available studies and the small scope of my study, future research is needed to further investigate the relationship between teaching experience and teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF.

In concluding this section, the comparison of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs regarding the provision of OCF revealed both areas of similarities and differences between the two contexts. It is important to note that these findings are based on interviews with a small number of teachers, and thus a more quantitatively designed study might be worth conducting to tease out whether in fact these findings stand up to more in-depth scrutiny. However, one possible reason for the similarities and/or differences between the teachers' beliefs may be that their beliefs stemmed from similar/different sources (Borg, 2003, 2006). This is the focus of the next section.

### **5.1.8 The comparison of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' sources of beliefs**

The analysis of interview data showed that Iranian and NZ teachers mainly attributed their OCF beliefs to similar sources, yet there were some differences between the two contexts. In sum, all Iranian and all NZ teachers considered their personalities as the main source of their beliefs. This is not surprising considering that literature suggests that teacher personality can be an important predictor of teachers' held beliefs (e.g. Arif et al., 2012; Decker & Rimm-Kaufman, 2008; Farrell, 2013; Keshavarzi & Amiri, 2016; Poulou, 2007; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). For instance, Keshavarzi and Amiri's (2016) investigation revealed that teachers' personality traits can affect their OCF preferences. In particular, Keshavarzi and Amiri found that extrovert teachers tend to support the provision of OCF more than introvert teachers do.

Therefore, it may not be surprising that the teachers in my study who stressed the importance of correcting errors mainly considered themselves as extroverts. For example, Tom, the NZ teacher that described his personality as an extrovert and a 'people's person' also expressed strong support for the use of OCF to correct most errors. In contrast, Lisa, the NZ teacher who described herself as a shy person, expressed doubts about the negative effects of OCF in hampering learners' feelings and motivations. She explained that because she is naturally a shy person, she finds it difficult to correct learners' oral errors and break learners' communication flow. Therefore, my study supports the assumption that teachers' personality traits may affect their perceptions about OCF. However, more research is needed to further explore this issue.

In addition, four of five Iranian and four of five NZ teachers claimed that their beliefs about OCF were mainly shaped through their own language learning experience. This was also evidenced in earlier studies that have found teachers' own language learning experience to be strong indicators of teachers' current OCF beliefs (e.g. Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Borg, 2001; Ellis, 2006; D. Freeman, 2002; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Pajares, 1992). This is not surprising, considering the number of years that teachers have spent in classrooms as learners, it is likely that they have shaped their beliefs based on their own language learning experiences.

Also, my study revealed that four of five NZ teachers noted that teacher training courses can shape their OCF beliefs, whereas no Iranian teacher referred to the influence of the training courses on their beliefs. One possible reason for the difference between the two contexts may be that, unlike NZ teachers who all admitted to having completed teacher training programmes that had taught them how to teach English, the Iranian teachers in my study had not completed any long-term courses. The Iranian teachers noted that they had only attended a one-day workshop that had initially taught them about language teaching. Therefore, it would seem that the one-day workshops that Iranian teachers attended might have failed to shape their beliefs about language teaching methods and aspects of OCF in particular.

Given that most of the NZ teachers claimed that their beliefs were shaped through their teacher training courses, my findings are in line with that of earlier studies (e.g. Busch, 2010; Evans et al., 2010; Kissau et al., 2013; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2007; Vásquez & Harvey, 2010). These studies found a positive link between teacher training courses and changes in teachers' beliefs. For instance, Vásquez and Harvey's (2010) investigation of nine international teachers who were completing a teacher training course showed that the course had significantly affected the teachers' beliefs about OCF. That is, prior to the course, most of the teachers (especially less experienced teachers) had indicated that they focus only on the affective aspects of OCF, yet at the end of the course they admitted that they had become less concerned about the affective aspects of OCF and more supportive of providing it in class. Similarly, my study provides evidence in support of the potential role of teacher training courses (as opposed to one-day workshops) in shaping teachers OCF beliefs.

My study also found that while all five Iranian teachers considered their teaching experience as one of their two main sources of beliefs (alongside personality), only two of five NZ teachers agreed their OCF beliefs had originated from their teaching experience. This can be explained with reference to the previous paragraph. That is, given that Iranian teachers did not attend long-term training courses that could have effectively shaped their beliefs about OCF, they admitted that they had used a 'trial and error' approach to error correction as with other language teaching

related classroom issues. That is, with experience, the Iranian teachers developed an understanding of how best to correct errors. This was also evidenced in several previous studies (e.g. Demir & Özmen, 2017; Evans et al., 2010; Farrell, 2003; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kissau et al., 2013; Mackey et al., 2004; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Mellati et al., 2013; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015) which suggested that teachers mainly attribute their beliefs to their teaching experience. These studies found that while teachers attribute their beliefs to different sources, they consider their teaching experience as the main source of their beliefs.

In terms of teaching experience, Amir and Baran, and Rose and Tom were the most experienced teachers in the Iranian and NZ context, respectively. During the interviews, in comparison to their colleagues, these four teachers were more supportive of correcting errors with OCF. In contrast, the least experienced teachers in the two contexts - Saber and Lisa – claimed that they are conscious about affecting learners' motivation and feelings negatively through over-correction. Lisa in particular - the least experienced teacher in my study – repeatedly expressed her concerns about the negative effects of too much attention to errors.

The difference in the more experienced and less experienced teachers' beliefs regarding the importance of OCF can be explained with reference to studies such as Fallah and Nazari (2019) and Rahimi and Zhang (2015) which proposed that teaching experience can affect beliefs. In particular, Rahimi and Zhang's investigation of Iranian EFL teachers found that teaching experience can raise teachers' awareness of mediating factors on OCF such as task type, error type, OCF type, and the timing of OCF. This may mean that more experienced teachers take into account a number of different factors when treating errors that novice teachers may not know of. Due to the insufficient teaching experience of novice teachers, they may hold more rigid beliefs about OCF and instead may attribute their beliefs to their personalities (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015).

Also, given that all five Iranian teachers agreed that their teaching experience (along with their personality) is their principal source of OCF beliefs, my study also supports the assumption that teaching experience may be a main source of teachers' beliefs (J. C. Richards & Lockhart, 1994;

Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1981). In contrast, the NZ teachers who all admitted to having had their beliefs influenced by the training courses may have felt the need to follow what had been offered to them during the courses and had relied less on finding out how best to provide OCF through their own teaching experience.

Also, only one Iranian and three of five NZ teachers considered their own research background as a source of their beliefs. While three out of five NZ teachers had completed language teaching-related university degrees, none of the Iranian teacher had language teaching university degrees. This may be a possible reason why more NZ teachers claimed to have shaped some of their beliefs through their own research education. The Iranian teacher (Saber) who stated that his beliefs were shaped through his research did not complete a language teaching related-degree, but noted that he has used many language teaching-related books to learn about teaching and error correction in particular. This finding is in line with Evans et al. (2010) and Farrell and Bennis (2013) which showed that teachers are likely to draw upon their understanding of language learning research to correct errors. Overall, my findings indicate that the NZ teachers who had completed language teaching university degrees believed that their research background has shaped some of their OCF beliefs. However, due to the limited scope of my study, there is a need to further explore the effect of teachers' research background on shaping their beliefs.

In conclusion, this section provided a discussion of findings from the first research question which explores and compares Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs about the importance and provision of OCF, as well as the sources of teachers' beliefs. Drawing on theoretical arguments and empirical evidence with regards to research on teacher belief on OCF, a number of concluding remarks can be identified. First, teachers hold 'varying, even fragmentary views' on the importance and provision of OCF (K. Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Second, reasons for correction practices are typically complex and interactional rather than simple and non-interactional. Third, teachers attribute their OCF beliefs to various sources, and the extent to which each teachers' beliefs are shaped though the same source may also be different. Finally, teachers' beliefs can be in a dynamic interaction with their practices and different contexts which can also explain why



Iranian and NZ teachers held different OCF beliefs. These points are further discussed in the Conclusion chapter.

## **5.2. RQ2: How do a) Iranian EFL and b) NZ ESL teachers provide OCF in classrooms?**

The discussion of the findings from RQ2 are presented in five sections:

In Section 5.2.1, a discussion of the comparison of the extent to which Iranian and NZ teachers corrected errors is presented.

In Section, 5.2.2, a discussion of the comparison of the explicitness of Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF practices is provided.

In Section, 5.2.3, a discussion of the comparison of the type(s) of errors that the Iranian and NZ teachers corrected is presented.

In Section, 5.2.4, a discussion of the comparison of the sources of OCF provided by Iranian and NZ is presented.

In Section, 5.2.5, a discussion of the comparison of the timing of OCF provided by Iranian and NZ teachers is provided.

### **5.2.1 The comparison of the extent to which Iranian and NZ teachers corrected learners' oral errors**

In comparing the OCF classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers, the first difference that was observed was regarding the total number of oral errors that occurred in each context. The analysis showed that a higher number of oral errors were made in the Iranian context than in the NZ context. More specifically, learners made a total number of 800 oral errors in the Iranian classrooms, while only 494 errors took place in the NZ context. While it may not be easy to explain this difference in the total number of errors in the two contexts, one possible reason may be that the type of tasks that the teachers used could have affected the occurrence of errors (Milla Melero, 2017).

Literature suggests that task factors (such as task content, task focus, and whether it is an individual or a group task) can influence the teachers' CF practices (Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Mori, 2011; Yoshida, 2008). Therefore, when comparing two instructional contexts with regards to teachers' OCF practices, it is important to acknowledge the differences between the tasks used in each context and the potential effect of task-related factors on the teachers' error correction practices. However, it is important to note that in cases where teachers act as naturally as possible (Milla Melero, 2017) and no manipulation of the tasks occurs, the analysis of the data may lead to more valid findings (Mayo, 2011).

In my study, as previously mentioned, the language schools in both contexts had claimed that they adopt a communicative language teaching approach. The classroom observations showed that while both Iranian and NZ teachers used similar tasks, the Iranian teachers focused more specifically on grammar and pronunciation tasks than the NZ teachers did. While the NZ teachers also covered grammar and pronunciation points, they used a more holistic approach to teaching and generally paid less specific attention to grammar in their lessons. The Iranian teachers' overall strong attention to grammar points (Zarrabi & Brown, 2015) might have led them to create more opportunities for learners to produce language which could have resulted in the occurrence of more learner errors.

With regards to the extent to which errors were corrected, the study found, in comparing the two contexts, that the Iranian teachers corrected noticeably more errors than the NZ teachers did. That is, the Iranian teachers corrected 87.37% of all learners' errors, whereas the NZ teachers only corrected 45.54% of all oral errors that had occurred. These findings may not be surprising given that the literature on OCF practices has shown that the extent to which teachers from different contexts correct errors can range from low to high. In addition, as was the case with the number of errors, it is likely that differences in the task type/focus used in the two contexts, may account for the differences in the number of oral errors that were corrected in the two contexts (Gurzynski - Weiss & Révész, 2012; Jimenez, 2006; Mori, 2011; Yoshida, 2008).

The extent to which the NZ teachers corrected oral errors can be explained through studies (e.g. Iwashita, 2003; Mackey et al., 2003; Oliver & Mackey, 2003) that have shown that some teachers may ignore a noticeable amount of oral errors. For example, the findings of Oliver and Mackey's (2003) investigation of five Australian ESL teachers showed that the teachers ignored a large number of errors depending on the objective and context of the class. That is, the ESL teachers corrected considerably less errors in interactions that involved classroom management exchanges (i.e. related to the lesson, student behaviour and material) than interactions where the teachers focused explicitly on the language.

The NZ teachers in my study corrected less than half (i.e. 45.54%) of all oral errors which may be because the teachers acknowledged the importance of OCF, but expressed concerns about the potential negative effects of it on learners' motivation and self-confidence. Previous studies have also shown that some teachers ignored errors because they believed that OCF can negatively affect learners (e.g. Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019). For instance, Ölmezer-Öztürk (2019) found that the four Turkish EFL teachers in his study ignored some errors in order to avoid interrupting the learners' communication interaction and affecting certain learners negatively that may be more sensitive to OCF.

As for the Iranian teachers, their extensive correction of the learners' oral errors can also be explained through reference to the findings of some earlier studies (e.g. Lochtman, 2002; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Zhao, 2009). Zhao (2009) explored two Chinese EFL teachers at a secondary school and found that out of all 288 student turns that contained an error, 210 were corrected by the teachers. The researcher explained the high occurrence of the teachers' error correction practices with reference to the teachers' beliefs about learners' errors and OCF. The teachers had indicated that they not only consider errors to be a normal part of language learning, but also even expect learners to make errors. The teachers had further stated that they perceive certain types of OCF (i.e. recasts) as non-face-losing and effective for L2 development. As a result of these beliefs, the two teachers corrected a high proportion of errors.

Similarly, Lochman (2002) explored 600 minutes of three German as a foreign language teachers' OCF practices and found that the teachers corrected ninety percent of all student utterances that included an error. The researcher attributed the high frequency of error correction to the nature of foreign language teaching context in which there is much attention to form focused instruction. This may also explain the differences between the Iranian and the NZ teachers' error correction practices in my study.

In addition to task-related factors, given that error correction is a complex and interactional task, it may be that a number of other intervening factors caused a variation between the extent to which the Iranian and NZ teachers corrected errors. First, teachers' stated beliefs can be the underlying factor for the proportion of oral errors that were corrected in each context. Most of the Iranian teachers believed that not only is OCF effective, but that it is also necessary at times to inform learners of the areas they need to improve. They also believed that error correction is part of their responsibilities as teachers (Bitchener, 2012), which may be the reason why the Iranian teachers corrected a high proportion of errors. As for the NZ teachers, they corrected a noticeably smaller amount of oral errors than the Iranian teachers did. Again, the NZ teachers' stated beliefs about the importance of OCF for L2 development can explain their correction of errors, but also, their concerns about the potential negative effect of too much OCF on learners' motivation can explain why they provided less proportions of OCF than the Iranian teachers did.

This can also be explained theoretically with reference to Zheng's (2015) model of teacher's complex belief system. According to this model, one possible reason why teachers can differ in their error correction practices is because of their held beliefs. That is, differences in teachers' beliefs about aspects of OCF could lead to differences in their provision of OCF in class. This is because the different dimensions of teachers' beliefs systems (beliefs, practice, and contexts) are in constant interaction and can cause changes in each other. In my study, because the Iranian and the NZ teachers held different beliefs about the extent to which errors should be corrected, it may be that due to the interconnectedness of teachers' beliefs systems, differences in their beliefs led to variations in their practices.

Second, literature suggests that teaching context can affect the extent to which teachers correct errors (e.g. Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018; Milla & Mayo, 2014). These studies found that the EFL teachers corrected noticeably higher rates of errors than the ESL teachers did. It may be because, as previously mentioned, there can be more focus on accuracy in EFL contexts than the ESL ones (Bitchener & Storch, 2016), which may explain the large proportion of errors that the Iranian teachers corrected.

This can also theoretically be explained through CST, because differences in contexts can cause differences in OCF practices. The EFL and ESL instructional contexts in which Iranian and NZ teacher are situated in can differ considerably on the three levels of context. On the macro-context level, the educational system in these two countries, as well as the opportunity of being exposed to English in the environment (for the ESL context) or lack of exposure to English (for the EFL context), and the pressure of examinations can affect teachers' held beliefs about OCF. On the exo-context level, factors such as the schools' teaching approaches, training programmes, schools' expectations can influence what teachers believe about OCF. Finally, on the micro-context level, Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers are likely to differ in their knowledge of English, preferences for OCF practices, teaching preparations, relationship with their learners, learners' characteristic, learners' needs and expectations, time limitations, class sizes and layout, course books and teaching resources. Because of the possible differences in the contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL) with regards to these contextual factors, and due to the contextual influence on teachers' beliefs and practices (Zheng, 2015), it is theoretically expected that teachers' practices on OCF can also differ across the two instructional contexts.

Third, and related to the second possibility mentioned above, it may be that the differences between how extensively Iranian and NZ teachers corrected errors be because of their NS/NNS statuses. There is evidence to suggest that teachers' NS/NSS statuses can affect the extent to which they correct errors (e.g. Árvai & Medgyes, 2000; Demir & Özmen, 2017; Díaz, 2009; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Han, 2017; Hyland & Anan, 2006). These studies have mainly found that NNS teachers tend to provide more CF than NS teachers possibly because NNS are stricter

about accuracy and less tolerant of errors (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Han, 2017; Hyland & Anan, 2006). A number of reasons for this were identified in Literature Review chapter, namely; NS teachers have a more comprehensive knowledge of the language and tend to accept more varieties of structures (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982), NNS teachers consider error correction as part of their main teaching role (Hyland & Anan, 2006), NNS teachers' prior language learning experience may allow them to be more alert to errors, and NNS teachers are more likely to have been exposed to strict grammar teaching methods and OCF practices, and thus are more likely to adopt a similar approach (Han, 2017). These reasons may explain why the error correction practices of Iranian and NZ teachers in my study varied considerably.

Apart from the cross-contextual differences between the extent to which Iranian and NZ teachers corrected oral errors, there were also differences between teachers within each context. That is, within each context, some teachers corrected a higher proportion of errors than others did. In the Iranian context, the analysis of data revealed that while all five teachers corrected a high number of learners' errors, some teachers corrected noticeably more errors than others. More specifically, in the Iranian context, Mina corrected all oral errors (100%), Baran corrected 93.33%, Shadi corrected 93.20%, Amir corrected 80.70%, and Saber corrected 66.66% of all learners' oral errors that occurred. In the NZ context, variations between the extents to which the teachers corrected oral errors were more considerable. More specifically, Rose corrected 85.71%, Tom corrected 73.39%, Lisa corrected 40.81%, Jim corrected 35.23%, and Kylie only corrected 16.32% of all learner errors.

The differences in the extent to which the individual teachers within each context corrected errors could be attributed to a range of factors: first, teaching experience may affect the teachers' error correction practices. This may be because, the least experienced Iranian teacher, Saber, corrected the least number of errors in comparison to his colleagues. In the NZ context, the most experienced NZ teachers (Rose and Tom) provided noticeably more OCF in comparison to other NZ teachers. This finding can also be seen in previous studies that found that less experienced teachers correct a smaller proportion of errors than experienced teachers (e.g. Mackey et al., 2004).

This may suggest that, similar to Mackey et al. (2004), teaching experience could have affected the Iranian and NZ teachers' correction of errors. However, it is important to note that some earlier studies have also found that teachers' experience may not affect the extent to which teachers correct errors (Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Polio et al., 2006). The differences in the contexts might account for the different results obtained from the previous studies. Given the inconsistent results of earlier studies, which might have been because of the presence of variables such as differences in research designs, and the small sample size of my study, no clear conclusions can be drawn. Therefore, there is a need for further research to explore whether or not teaching experience can affect the extent to which teachers correct errors.

The second reason may be that the learners' language proficiency levels may affect the proportion of errors that teachers correct. While this argument might not be true for the Iranian teachers, it would seem to be more reasonable in the NZ context. The only two NZ teachers who were teaching higher level learners, Rose and Tom, corrected the most amount of learner errors. Rose had indicated during the interviews that she supports the use of OCF but believes that less proficient learners may not benefit from error correction as much as higher-level learners because of their limited knowledge of the target language. This may explain why Rose corrected a large proportion of her higher-level learners' errors. This was also evidenced in Fu and Nassaji's (2016) study that found that the Chinese as a foreign language teacher corrected 68.1% of all errors possibly because of the learners' higher level of proficiency. Panova and Lyster's (2002) study also provides further confirmation that teachers in lower proficiency level classrooms may correct fewer errors. However, given that Iranian teachers' error correction practices seemed not be affected by the learners' proficiency levels and because of the small scope of my study, more research is needed to determine whether, and the extent to which, learners' proficiency levels are likely to affect teachers' correction of errors.

The third possible reason why individual teachers differed in the extent to which they corrected errors is the pedagogical focus of their lessons. Jimenez (2006) explored Italian EFL teachers' OCF practices and found that the teachers corrected noticeably more errors during accuracy tasks

than comprehension tasks, and tasks that were carried out in a group or as the whole class rather than individually completed tasks. In my study, it may have been that each individual teacher corrected errors based on the focus of the task. As most of the teachers had indicated in the interviews, they believed that more errors should be corrected during accuracy tasks than fluency ones.

Overall, the differences in teachers' OCF practices can also imply the unpredictable nature of OCF practices. This is because, according to Zheng's model, teachers' practices are in constant interaction with a set of different beliefs and different contexts, thus various teacher, learner, and context-related factors interact simultaneously. As a result, it may not be possible to predict what OCF practices teachers will have in classrooms. For instance, while the Iranian teachers were teaching at the same communicative language school and some of the teachers shared similar beliefs about the importance of OCF, yet in their classroom practices they differed noticeably. This highlights the unpredictable nature of teachers' OCF practices which is determined by 'contextual constraints' (Bitchener & Storch, 2016).

In sum, based on my findings, it seems that the teaching context and the teachers' NS/NNS statuses may have influenced the extent to which teachers correct errors. In my study, NNS Iranian EFL teachers corrected a noticeably higher amount of oral errors than NS NZ ESL teachers did. Also, within each context, individual teachers differed considerably (especially in the NZ context) in the amount of errors they corrected, suggesting that factors such as teaching experience, learners' proficiency levels, and the focus/type of the task may mediate the complex and interactional nature of teachers' OCF practices.

### **5.2.2 The comparison of the explicitness of Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF practices**

This section presents the discussion of findings on how teachers corrected errors which includes two parts: first, the explicitness of their OCF practices, and second, the types of OCF that the teachers used in response to oral errors.

#### *a) The explicitness of teachers' OCF practices*



With regards to the explicitness of OCF, my study found that both Iranian and NZ teachers corrected oral errors more implicitly than explicitly. That is, 91.42% of all Iranian and 71.61% of all NZ teachers' OCF practices were categorised as being implicit. This observation is similar to many of the previous studies have also indicated that teachers have a strong tendency for more implicit than explicit OCF types such as recasts (D. Brown, 2016; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava et al., 2018; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018; Sheen, 2004, 2006; Yoshida, 2008; Zhao, 2009). Most of the Iranian and NZ teachers in my study claimed that they believe implicit OCF is more effective than explicit OCF.

In comparing the two contexts, interestingly, it was found that the NZ teachers (28.38%) provided more explicit OCF types than the Iranian teachers (8.57%) did. This finding seems to contradict the NZ teachers' stated beliefs and their preferences for more implicit OCF types. As mentioned in Section 2.8.2, the explicitness of teachers' OCF practices can depend on a number of factors such as; teachers' teaching experience (e.g. D. Brown, 2016; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015), learners' language proficiency levels (e.g. D. Brown, 2016; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mori, 2002), teachers' NS/NNS statuses (e.g. Demir & Özmen, 2017; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010), and the instructional context in which they teach (e.g. D. Brown, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006).

To determine if these factors influenced the explicitness of the Iranian and the NZ teachers' OCF practices, they were analysed in relationship to the teachers' error correction practices. The analysis of each teachers' OCF practices revealed that their teaching experience did not seem to have directly affected how they corrected errors. That is, the teachers provided both implicit and explicit OCF types irrespective of how experienced they were. More specifically, the least experienced Iranian teacher, Saber, provided a similar proportion of explicit OCF (10.34%) to his more experienced colleagues; Mina and Shadi, who provided 14.57% and 10.34% explicit OCF, respectively. Similarly, in the NZ context, the explicitness of the teachers' OCF practices seemed to be irrelevant to their teaching experiences. Both more and less experienced NZ teachers

provided a large proportion of explicit OCF, that is, Lisa provided 40%, Tom provided 16.28%, and Rose used 50.98% explicit OCF. This may suggest that teaching experience did not affect how Iranian and NZ teachers corrected oral errors.

This finding does not align with the results of Mackey et al. (2004) and Junqueira and Kim (2013) that showed that experienced teachers are more likely to provide more explicit types of OCF than less experienced teachers. It may be that the more experienced teachers in these studies had less concerns about the learners' negative feelings for explicit OCF, and thus provided more explicit OCF types (Kartchava et al., 2018; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). However, Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study only included two ESL teachers (one novice and one experienced), and Mackey et al.'s (2004) investigation involved eighteen ESL teachers (nine novice and nine experienced). The differences in the specific contexts and the number of participants of my study and those of the previous studies might account for the different results obtained.

Similarly, regarding the role of learners' proficiency levels in the explicitness of teachers' OCF practices, the findings of my study did not seem to align with those of earlier studies. Previous studies have found that teachers may be likely to provide more implicit OCF types in higher level classes (e.g. Ammar & Spada, 2006). These studies suggested that the limited knowledge that low proficient learners have of the target language may lead teachers to be more explicit with the OCF they provide. Also, more proficient learners may know enough about the target language to benefit from the less explicit types of OCF such as recasts (Ammar & Spada, 2006).

However, my study revealed that the Iranian and NZ teachers provided different amounts of both implicit and explicit OCF types irrespective of the learners' proficiency levels. In the Iranian context, all five teachers used explicit OCF for a relatively small proportion of oral errors, and the differences between the teachers' use of explicit OCF could not be attributed the proficiency level of their learners. For instance, Baran and Amir who were the only Iranian teachers who taught higher level classes provided 2.33% and 5.10% explicit OCF, respectively, and Shadi who taught lower level learners provided 10.34% explicit OCF.

In the NZ context, while each teacher provided a larger amount of explicit OCF than the Iranian teachers did, there also seemed to be no relationship between the learners' language proficiency levels and the explicitness of the teachers' OCF practices. That is, Rose and Tom who taught higher level learners provided 50.98% and 16.28% of explicit OCF, and Lisa and Kylie who taught lower level learners provided 40% and 23.08% explicit OCF. As the percentages show, there seems to be no apparent link between the NZ teachers' use of explicit OCF and their learners' proficiency levels.

With regards to the relationship between teachers' NS/NNS statuses and the explicitness of their OCF practices, the findings of my study aligned with some earlier studies (e.g. Díaz, 2009; Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010) and contradicted with some others (Demir & Özmen, 2017). Unlike Demir and Özmen (2017) who found that NNS used more explicit OCF types, the NNS teachers (Iranian) in my study, as well as the NNS teachers in Gurzynski-Weiss's (2010) study, used less explicit OCF types than the NS teachers did. It may be that, similar to the teachers in Gurzynski-Weiss's study, the NZ NS teachers in my study took fewer factors into consideration when providing OCF and therefore, used a larger amount of explicit OCF types than the Iranian NNS teachers did. These factors which are mainly student, teacher, error, and task related factors can limit teachers' use of a wider range of OCF types and instead lead them to use specific types which may be more automatised for the teachers (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2010). Also, Gurzynski-Weiss found that the NNS teachers in her study noticed and reflected more upon errors than the NS teachers did. Hence, it may be that the NZ NS teachers in my study also had less reflection on oral errors and their OCF practices, and thus corrected errors more explicitly without much thought.

With regards to the role of instructional context on the explicitness of teachers' OCF practices, my findings did not completely align with results of previous studies that found that instructional context can affect the explicitness of teachers' OCF use (e.g. D. Brown, 2016; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004, 2006). These studies have shown that teachers from different instructional contexts may differ in how they correct

errors. The difference between my study and earlier studies is that they were conducted in different contexts (such as immersion, content language teaching, and different EFL and ESL contexts) while my study concentrated on Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL contexts. Also, the differences in the research designs used in these studies might have affected the outcome of the studies.

However, my findings showed that NZ teachers used noticeably more explicit OCF than Iranian teachers did. While there may be no simple explanation for the NZ teachers' more noticeable use of explicit OCF than the Iranian teachers, it may be that the NZ teachers had not been aware of the different types of OCF they were using in practice and only persuaded what came automatically to them in correcting errors. However, given the small scope of my study, there is a need to further explore the role of factors such as teaching experience, learners' proficiency levels, teachers' NS/NNS statuses, and instructional context on the explicitness of teachers' OCF types.

*b) The types of OCF that teachers used*

In addition to the explicitness of the teachers' OCF practices, my study also explored the different types of OCF that Iranian and NZ teachers used in practice. The analysis of the data showed that Iranian teachers used a total of 13 and NZ teachers used 12 OCF types. In both contexts, recasts were the most frequent type of OCF, followed by multiple feedback.

This finding is not surprising given the numerous studies that have also found recasts to be the most frequent OCF type in classrooms (e.g. D. Brown, 2016; Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Kartchava et al., 2018; Llinares & Lyster, 2014; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). One reason why earlier studies, as well as my study, found recasts to be the most frequent type of OCF may be because of the non-threatening and unobtrusive nature of recasts (Kamiya, 2014; Loewen & Philp, 2006). Recasts can allow teachers to provide correction without interrupting the flow of communication. Also, time pressure may lead teachers to use more recasts than other explicit OCF types, which may take up more classroom time (Yoshida,

2008; Zhao, 2009). Finally, teachers may use recasts because they come naturally; that is, they require less online cognitive effort for teachers (D. Brown, 2016).

Also, my study identified one new OCF type; explicit indication (i.e. explicitly indicating to students that an error has occurred without providing the correct form), and a new teacher response to oral errors; false positive confirmation (i.e. re-enforcing an error by falsely encouraging students after they have made the error). While all OCF types have been classified as negative feedback, false positive confirmation which was frequently used specifically by NZ teachers could not classify as negative feedback, and instead has been labelled as a positive teacher response to oral errors in my study. More specifically, the Iranian teachers used false positive confirmation five times while NZ teachers provided it 96 times in response to learners' oral errors.

NZ teacher' attention to learners' emotional affective dimension in classrooms may be a possible reason why they used a large number of false positive confirmations. This can be understood from the theoretical perspective of Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis which suggests that OCF can negatively influence learners' motivation and self-confidence and promote anxiety. Most of the NZ teachers in my study expressed concerns about the negative effects of too much OCF on learners' motivation. It may be that the teachers, especially NZ teachers, felt the need to provide ample amounts of positive feedback in the form of false positive confirmation to encourage learners to produce more target language.

However, it may also be possible that the teachers, especially NZ teachers, were not aware of their extensive provision of false positive confirmations. Given that this is a new identified teacher response to oral errors and because of the limited scope of my study, further research is needed to explore whether, and the extent to which, teachers in other contexts provide false positive confirmation.

### **5.2.3 The comparison of the type(s) of errors that Iranian and NZ teachers corrected**

As previously mentioned, learners' errors were categorised into four types: morpho-syntactic, lexical, phonological, and semantic errors. The most frequent errors in the Iranian context were morpho-syntactic errors, followed by phonological errors, lexical errors, and semantic errors. In the NZ context, the most frequent errors were morpho-syntactic errors, then lexical errors, phonological errors, and semantic errors. It may be that, as previously discussed, the differences in the types of tasks that the Iranian and the NZ teachers used might have caused their learners to make different proportions of the four types of errors.

The analysis of the teachers' correction of different types of errors revealed that overall, in both contexts, morpho-syntactic errors were the most frequently corrected oral errors. In the Iranian context, morpho-syntactic errors made up 55.11% of all Iranian teacher correction moves, followed by phonological errors (23.29%), then lexical errors (17.18%), and finally semantic errors (3.83%). In the NZ context, morpho-syntactic errors made up 55.11% of all teacher OCF practices, then lexical errors (20%), followed by phonological errors (15.11%), and semantic errors (9.77%).

The finding that morpho-syntactic errors were the most frequently corrected errors in both contexts confirms results of some previous studies (e.g. Carranza, 2007; Guénette & Lyster, 2013; Karimi & Asadnia, 2015; J.-H. Kim & Han, 2007; Lyster, 2001; Mackey et al., 2000; Nabei & Swain, 2002; Yoshida, 2010). These studies have shown that teachers tend to correct morpho-syntactic errors more than any other types of errors. It may be that the structure of the lessons in these studies were more grammar based which led to more attention being given to grammatical accuracy, and thus more morpho-syntactic errors being corrected (Yoshida, 2008).

In my study, one possible reason why morpho-syntactic errors were the most frequently corrected type of error in both contexts may be, as previously mentioned, the teachers' stated beliefs about the high possibility of morpho-syntactic errors leading to communication breakdown. The second possible reason why morpho-syntactic errors were corrected most may have been because they were the most frequent type of error. This can also explain why teachers believed that if the highly

frequent morpho-syntactic errors are left uncorrected, they can lead to breakdown in communication of meaning. In fact, frequency may also be the reason for the order in which the teachers corrected the other types of errors.

That is, since the most frequent errors in the Iranian context were morpho-syntactic errors, followed by phonological, lexical, and semantic errors, respectively, most of the Iranian teachers' OCF practices were provided in response to first, morpho-syntactic errors, then phonological errors, followed by lexical errors, and finally semantic errors. Likewise, overall in the NZ context, morpho-syntactic errors were the most frequently corrected type of errors, followed by lexical errors, then phonological errors, and finally semantic errors, as they were the most frequent errors that had occurred in the NZ context. Therefore, my study found that the frequency of the types of errors may affect the extent to which teachers correct them.

In addition to the teachers' beliefs and error frequency, other factors have been identified to be likely to affect the type(s) of errors that teachers correct in classrooms, such as teachers' NS/NNS statuses (Demir & Özmen, 2017), task type (Carranza, 2007), teaching experience (Junqueira & Kim, 2013), and teaching context (D. Brown, 2016). With regards to the teachers' NS/NNS statuses, the findings of my study do not confirm those of previous studies (e.g. Demir & Özmen, 2017). Demir and Özmen explored fourteen NS and NNS teachers in Turkey and found that NNS teachers corrected more morpho-syntactic errors. In addition, Demir and Özmen revealed that NS teachers corrected more lexical and phonological errors than the NNS teachers did, suggesting that NS teachers are more concerned with intelligibility as opposed to grammaticality when correcting errors (Isaacs & Trofimovich, 2012). This is because intelligibility of language production may be more affected by mispronunciation and wrong lexical choices than morpho-syntactic errors (Mackey et al., 2000). However, my study found that both Iranian teachers and NZ teachers corrected morpho-syntactic errors more than other types of errors. Nonetheless, the Iranian teachers corrected phonological errors as their second most corrected errors, whereas the NZ teachers corrected lexical errors as their second most corrected type of error. This may have been because of the frequency of the different types of errors in each context.

Similarly, with regards to task type, my study found that both Iranian and NZ teachers corrected different types of errors not according to the type of the task, but mainly based on the frequency of the oral error. This observation may not be in line with Carranza's (2007) results that showed that the teachers corrected morpho-syntactic errors most and phonological errors least in both accuracy and fluency tasks because they believed morpho-syntactic errors are more likely to impede communication in both tasks. However, in my study, while it may not be possible to determine the role of task type on teachers' correction of types of errors, it would seem that error frequency might have had a stronger effect on which errors the teachers corrected. Nonetheless, no conclusions can be drawn from my findings study and there is a need to further investigate the role of task type on the types of errors that teachers correct.

Also, regarding the effect of teaching experience, my study found that teachers from both contexts corrected different types of oral errors irrespective of their experience, which is in contrast to the findings of Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study. As previously mentioned, Junqueira and Kim found that inexperienced teachers corrected more phonological errors, whereas experienced teachers corrected a balanced combination of phonological and morpho-syntactic errors based on their beliefs about the importance of different errors. Given the results of my study and the limited studies that have explored the relationship between teachers' experience and the correction of different types of errors, no generalizable conclusions can be drawn and there is a need to further explore this area.

Likewise, my study found that irrespective of their teaching contexts, the Iranian and NZ teachers mainly corrected the most frequent types of errors that had occurred in their classrooms. As previously mentioned, Brown's (2016) meta-analysis revealed that ESL teachers are more likely to correct phonological errors than EFL teachers because of the importance they attribute to pronunciation. Nonetheless, my study revealed that the NZ ESL teachers corrected less phonological errors than the Iranian EFL teachers did. Yet, given that the ratio of phonological errors was also overall higher in the Iranian context than they were in NZ context, it may not be possible to simply conclude that the NZ teachers' perceptions about the types of errors were not



reflected in the types of oral errors they corrected. It may be that, as suggested, the higher frequency of phonological errors in the Iranian context may have led most of the Iranian teachers to correct them more frequently than the NZ teachers did.

In sum, my findings indicated that the frequency of the different types of errors may have been a determining factor in the correction of those errors. That is, both Iranian and NZ teachers seemed to correct the more frequent types of errors more than the less frequent ones. However, given that the reasons for teachers' OCF practices are generally complex and interactional, there may be different factors involved in the correction of different types of errors. Therefore, it is worthwhile to identify these potential factors and their role on the correction of different types of errors.

#### **5.2.4 The comparison of the source of OCF in the Iranian and NZ contexts**

This study found that teacher correction was the main source of OCF in both contexts, making up 80.17% and 55.63% of all Iranian and NZ teachers' OCF moves, respectively. This means that in comparison to the NZ teachers, the Iranian teachers provided fewer opportunities for self- and peer correction. This may not be surprising given that most of the Iranian teachers (three out of five teachers) considered OCF as part of their main responsibilities as teachers, and believed that they are the main source of knowledge in class. In addition, as previously discussed, most of the Iranian teachers (four out of five teachers) believed that through error correction, they can indicate their attention, sense of responsibility and conscientiousness to learners. Therefore, it may be that the Iranian teachers used teacher correction as a means to fulfil their teaching responsibilities and to indicate to learners that they are knowledgeable and attentive to errors.

The teachers, and in particular the Iranian teachers' extensive use of teacher correction as their main source of OCF is in line with findings of previous studies where teachers were found to use teacher correction more than self- and peer correction (e.g. D. Brown, 2016; Irwin, 2017; Kartchava et al., 2018; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). This may be because, not only are teachers considered to be more knowledgeable of the target language, but learners may also prefer teacher correction over self- and peer correction (Ellis, 2008; Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Considering that Iranian teachers used more teacher correction than the NZ teachers did, this can also provide support for the argument that in EFL contexts, teacher correction is the most favourable source of OCF (Hedge, 2001). According to Hedge, in many EFL contexts, there is little exposure to English, and thus teachers are expected to correct errors in class.

With regards to peer correction, the data showed that the Iranian and NZ teachers used it very limitedly. While Iranian teachers only allowed for peer CF to occur four times, the NZ teachers encouraged it only 13 times. This limited use of peer OCF in both contexts, and in particular in the Iranian EFL context, may suggest that the teachers in my study were not strongly supportive of peer OCF. This finding was also evident in previous studies that revealed low rates of peer correction in language classrooms (Lyster et al., 2013; Mackey et al., 2003; McDonough & Mackey, 2000). These studies found that peer OCF was encouraged limitedly because of its potential face-threatening nature (Foster, 1998). It may be that the Iranian and NZ teachers in my study also avoided using peer OCF frequently because of the fear that it may be face-threatening to other learners.

As for self-correction, the data showed that NZ teachers (39.63%) provided more opportunities for self-correction than the Iranian teachers (19.25%) did. One possible reason, as previously mentioned, may be that Iranian teachers consider themselves as the main source of knowledge, and thus believe that learners may not have the required knowledge to correct their own errors. This echoes the finding of earlier studies that have found low rates of self-correction in language classrooms (e.g. Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Yoshida, 2008). It may be that the learners' language proficiency levels in these studies affected the teachers' support for the use of learner self-correction. That is, the teachers provided more opportunities for self-correction in higher level classes because they assumed learners had more knowledge of the target language (e.g. Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). A second possible reason may be that the classroom time pressure affected the teachers' use of self-correction and led them to correct most errors themselves (Zhao, 2009).

These contextual factors are what CST refers to as micro-context factors discussed earlier which can affect teachers' provision of OCF.

However, the findings of this study seem to contradict the argument that teachers provide more self-correction opportunities in higher level classes (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This is because the teachers who were teaching higher level learners in each context (Amir & Baran in Iran and Tom in NZ) in fact provided more teacher correction than the other teachers did. This study found that, irrespective of their teaching experience, some teachers provided more opportunities for self-correction than teacher correction than other teachers did. Overall, it may be that the teachers in my study were more affected by their beliefs about their roles as teachers and their responsibilities regarding OCF, than the proficiency level of their learners and their own teaching experience. This can theoretically be explained through CST and the interconnectedness of beliefs and practices.

In addition, theoretically, it is believed that the differences in teachers' OCF practices can be because of the contextual constraints. That is, teachers' classroom practices can be explained by their goals that have been shaped through their professional knowledge and their language learning experience (Bitchener & Storch, 2016). For example, teachers may be aiming to fulfil some pedagogical and interpersonal goals through their CF practices (Hyland & Hyland, 2006), therefore, it may be that, as teachers respond to learners' oral errors, they consider the error as well as the student that made the error.

In sum, in comparing the two contexts, the NZ teachers showed to be more supportive of providing more opportunities for self- and peer correction than the Iranian teachers were. This difference between the Iranian and NZ teachers' use of sources of OCF can be explained with reference to their stated beliefs. Most of the NZ teachers (four out of five) had stated that they prefer self- and peer correction to teacher correction and do not consider OCF as part of their main teaching responsibilities. In addition, the NZ teachers had noted that it may not always be possible to encourage self- and peer correction and that teacher correction may be the most

practical source of OCF in class because of time pressure and learners' limited abilities. Therefore, it may be that the differences between the Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' beliefs about their roles as teachers, resulted in different approaches to their use of self-, peer, and teacher correction in practice.

#### **5.2.5 The comparison of the timing of OCF provided by Iranian and NZ teachers**

The analysis of the timing of the teachers' OCF practices in the two contexts revealed that both Iranian and NZ teachers corrected a great proportion of their learners' oral errors immediately. That is, Iranian teachers corrected 99.87% and NZ teachers corrected 96.73% of all their learners' errors as they occurred.

More specifically, in the Iranian context, delayed OCF was used only once by Saber, the least experienced Iranian teacher. In all other instances of error correction, the Iranian teachers corrected errors immediately. Similarly, in the NZ context, of all the correction episodes that occurred, there were only nine instances in which the teachers (Tom and Lisa) delayed their correction to the end of the task. The two NZ teachers, who were both the least (Lisa) and most experienced (Tom) NZ teachers, were the only NZ teachers who used delayed OCF in addition to immediate OCF. All other three NZ teachers only corrected errors immediately as they occurred. This may suggest that both Iranian and NZ teachers had clear preferences for correcting errors immediately, as opposed to delaying correction to a later time or to the end of the task.

Given that the least experienced teachers in each context (Saber & Lisa) were amongst the teachers who delayed their error correction at times, this may suggest that teaching experience can have an effect on the timing of teachers' OCF practices. However, this finding contradicts Tom's use of delayed OCF and the results of Rolan-Ianziti's (2010) study that found that less experienced teachers are less likely to use delayed OCF because of their lack of experience and ability to delay error correction as delayed OCF is a 'professional discourse' that less experienced teachers need to learn. Rolan-Ianziti explored four French as foreign language teachers in Australia by comparing three experienced teachers with a novice teacher. The study found that,

while the experienced teachers at times delayed error correction to the end of the task, the novice teacher corrected all errors immediately. The researcher attributed delayed CF to the teachers' experience, stating that the more experienced teachers have acquired the knowledge and ability to use delayed CF, while less experienced teachers lack the required knowledge to delay CF.

However, it is important to note that the noticeable differences between the two studies' task types and research designs may have been the reason for the different results obtained. That is, in Rolan-Ianziti's study, the language course aimed at developing basic oral proficiency and to assess learners' abilities, learners were asked to perform three role-plays in front of the teacher. Because role-plays require learners to complete an interactive communicative task in which each learner performs a particular role within a specific time frame, it is likely that the teachers may have felt the need to allow the task to finish and later provide CF on the errors that had occurred. Therefore, because of the nature of the role plays tasks, it may be that learners had limited time to complete the tasks, and thus the more experienced teachers delayed CF to the end of the task, while the novice teacher interrupted learners during their role plays to correct errors immediately. Given the differences in the classroom task types and research designs, the results of my study may not be comparable to those of Rolan-Ianziti. Therefore, there is a need to determine whether the findings of my study which suggest that less experienced teachers are more likely to delay OCF in communicative tasks, can also be applicable to other contexts.

As discussed in Section 2.8.5, literature suggests that the choice of the timing of OCF may depend on the type of the task, type of the error, and the learners making the error (Vilček, 2014). However, it seems that the results of my study may not provide support for any of these factors as the Iranian and NZ teachers either did not provide any delayed OCF or only provided it in a very limited way. One possible factor which might have affected the teachers' timing of OCF in my study is their teaching experience. Other micro-context level factors (such as class time limitations) could have affected the timing of teachers' OCF practices (see Section 5.2.1). However, given the small scope of my study as well as the limited number of available studies

that have explored the timing of teachers' OCF practices and potential factors that may mediate their practices, there is a need to further investigate this area.

In concluding this section, drawing on empirical evidence about teachers' practices of error correction using OCF, three conclusions can be made. First, teachers generally agree that OCF can help L2 development, and thus are likely to correct a noticeable proportion of oral errors. In my study as well as numerous earlier studies (Lyster, 2001; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), teachers have corrected a minimum of two-third of learners' oral errors. Second, there are complex reasons why teachers correct errors the way they do. Third, teachers may vary in their provision of OCF. These points are further discussed in the Conclusion chapter.

### **5.3 RQ3: What is the relationship between the OCF beliefs and error correction practices of Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers?**

This question investigates the relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of teachers in the two contexts of Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL. The discussion of the findings from RQ3 are presented in five sections:

In Section 5.3.1, a discussion of the comparison of the relationship between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected, and their classroom practices is provided.

In Section, 5.3.2, a discussion of the comparison of the relationship between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the explicitness of OCF and their classroom practices is presented.

In Section, 5.3.3, a discussion of the comparison of the relationship between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the type(s) of errors that should be corrected and their classroom practices is presented.

In Section, 5.3.4, a discussion of the comparison of the relationship between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the sources of OCF and their error correction practices is presented.

In Section, 5.3.5, a discussion of the comparison of the relationship between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF and their actual OCF practices is provided.

### **5.3.1 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about whether or not errors should be corrected**

My study mainly found instances of alignment between the beliefs and classroom practices of both Iranian and NZ teachers regarding the extent to which errors should be corrected. As previously stated, all ten teachers in my study believed that oral errors should be corrected, and all ten teachers expressed their support for the use of OCF in error correction as they believed it can assist learners' L2 development. However, in comparison, the Iranian teachers held stronger beliefs about the correction of errors. In practice, the Iranian teachers corrected a considerably larger proportion of learners' oral errors (87.37%) which may reflect their stronger held beliefs about OCF. As for the NZ teachers, they believed that OCF is effective, yet over-correction can negatively affect learners' motivation. In practice, the NZ teachers corrected 45.54% of all oral error. This may suggest that overall, both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the effectiveness of OCF and the importance of error correction were mirrored into their classroom practices.

This finding confirms the results of previous studies that have also shown alignment between teachers' beliefs about whether, and the extent to which errors should be corrected and their actual classroom practices (e.g. Kamiya, 2014; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019). The teachers in Kamiya's and Ölmezer-Öztürk's studies held different beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected, however, in practice both studies found that their teachers demonstrated their beliefs into their classroom practices.

In the Iranian context of my study, irrespective of the five teachers' stated beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected, they all demonstrated their beliefs in their error correction practices. For example, Mina believed that all errors should be corrected, while Saber supported OCF but also voiced his concern about the effect of over-correction on learners' motivation. In practice, Mina and Saber corrected all (100%) and most (66.66%) of learners' oral errors. Theoretically, the relationship between Iranian teachers' beliefs and practices on the correction of oral errors can also be explained through Zheng's (2015) model of CST. According to CST, if teachers' interpretation of the different contextual factors in which they are placed in is consistent

with their held beliefs, the teachers are likely to adopt practices that are in line with both the context and their beliefs (Zheng, 2015). That is, if the Iranian teachers interpreted the contexts of their schools, classes, and learners as being supportive of error correction, they were likely to adopt a more attentive approach to OCF which had been a belief that most of the Iranian teachers had expressed.

However, in the NZ context, there also seemed to be alignment between the teachers' stated beliefs about and the teachers' OCF practices. While some teachers (Lisa, Kylie, & Jim) showed to be more consistent in the application of their beliefs to practices, others were less consistent (Tom & Rose). For example, Tom, the only NZ teacher who had expressed strong support for the correction of errors, corrected a slightly smaller proportion of errors than Rose did, who had expressed concerns about the negative effects of over-correction. While Tom corrected 73.39% of all errors, Rose corrected 85.71% of her learners' oral errors. It seems that Tim corrected fewer and Rose corrected more errors than they stated they would.

This non-alignment between the two NZ teachers' beliefs about the extent to which errors should be corrected and their actual OCF practices can be explained with reference to findings of earlier studies (Bak, 1996; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrokhi, 2007; Junqueira & Kim, 2013; Kartchava et al., 2018; Roothoof, 2014; Zheng, 2013). For example, Kartchava, et al.'s (2018) investigation of 10 ESL teachers' beliefs and OCF practices revealed non-alignment between the two, because the teachers corrected considerably smaller numbers of errors than they said they would. The researchers introduced three factors that may have mediated the application of the teachers' beliefs to their OCF practices. First, they claimed that the gap between the teachers' technical and practical knowledge (Basturkmen et al., 2004) might have caused non-alignment between beliefs and practices. Basturkmen et al. (2004) distinguish between the explicit knowledge that teachers hold as a result of deep reflection and empirical exploration (i.e. technical knowledge) and decisions teachers make during classroom teaching (i.e. practical knowledge). This may be similar to Zheng's (2013) categorization of beliefs in which she explains that most instances of



divergence between teachers' beliefs and practices stem from not distinguishing 'professed' beliefs (i.e. stated) from 'implicit' beliefs (i.e. beliefs that underpin their practices).

Second, Kartchava, et al. (2018) suggested that the teachers' concerns about interrupting communication flow and negatively affecting learners' motivation, as well as not knowing when to correct errors, might have prevented them from putting their beliefs into practice. Third, the complexity of language classrooms (i.e. the teacher's task of thinking, planning, and decision making in classrooms) might have led to the non-alignment between the teachers' beliefs and practices (Borg, 2006; Tsui, 2003).

Similarly, in my study, it may be that the gap between the teacher's technical and practical knowledge (Basturkmen et al., 2004) of whether to correct errors or not, and the complexities in the classrooms, prevented Tom and Rose from completely applying their beliefs into their OCF practices. That is, while the two teachers held beliefs about the extent to which errors should be corrected, they might have been unable to put those beliefs into actual practices given the 'unplanned nature' of error correction (Basturkmen, 2012). This can also be explained theoretically through CST. According to CST, teachers' beliefs systems are complex which can indicate that no individual belief is independent of all other beliefs (Zheng, 2013, 2015). Also, teachers may hold core and peripheral beliefs that may not always be compatible with each other which can lead to non-alignment between beliefs and practices (Zheng, 2015). Therefore, it may be that the conflicting beliefs that the teachers may have held caused 'tension' (Zheng, 2013, 2015) between their beliefs and practices. Although my study did not specifically explore and distinguish the two types of teachers' beliefs (i.e. positively related and contradicting beliefs), it highlights this as an important area for further research because the compatibility between the beliefs that teachers hold can determine whether or not teachers can implement those beliefs into their practices (Zheng, 2015).

It may also be possible that Tom and Rose's beliefs about whether to correct oral errors were not completely demonstrated in their OCF practices because more than one belief underpinned their

practices (Zheng, 2013). This can also be explained theoretically through CST that suggests that teachers hold sets of different beliefs that dynamically interact with each other and with other contextual factors. Therefore, these relating and contradicting beliefs that teachers hold can influence their classroom practices based on the teaching context in which teachers are positioned in (Zheng, 2013).

Also, given that the link between teachers' beliefs and practices is "not absolute, but conditioned by various teaching situations" (Zheng, 2013, p. 339) it may be that other contextual factors (such as learners' expectation, schools' course requirements, and time limitations) caused the three NZ teachers to perform differently from their stated beliefs. That is, teachers may have diverged their OCF practices from their beliefs about which errors to correct because of what they assumed their learners or the school may expect from them, as well as the pressure of time limitation in class.

In sum, my study found that, apart from two NZ teachers, most teachers' beliefs and OCF practices regarding the extent to which errors should be corrected aligned. As for the inconsistencies found between the two NZ teachers' beliefs and OCF practices, a few possible mediating factors (i.e. teachers' perceptions about interactions, the gap between teachers' technical and practical knowledge, and contextual factors such as time limitation and classroom complexities, teachers' concerns about interrupting learners' affection) were identified.

### **5.3.2 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the explicitness of OCF**

My study found non-alignment between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about how to correct errors and the explicitness of the teachers' OCF practices. As previously stated, within each context, some teachers believed that errors should be corrected implicitly, some believed explicitly, and some perceived that a combination of implicit and explicit OCF can be most effective. In practice, while all ten teachers provided both implicit and explicit OCF, they varied noticeably in the extent to which they provided each type. That is, the Iranian teachers generally corrected errors more implicitly, whereas the NZ teachers corrected a considerable proportion of errors explicitly.

In the Iranian context, three teachers (Mina, Amir, & Saber) believed that implicit OCF can be more effective, Baran supported explicit OCF, and Shadi expressed support for a combination of both implicit and explicit OCF to correct errors. In practice, Mina, Amir and Saber provided 85.43%, 94.90% and 89.66% of all their OCF practices implicitly, respectively, which may demonstrate their stated beliefs. However, Baran only corrected 2.33% of all errors explicitly, and Shadi provided 89.66% and 10.34% of her OCF practices implicitly and explicitly, respectively. Therefore, neither Baran, nor Shadi's beliefs and practices on the explicitness of OCF showed to be consistent.

One possible explanation for this non-alignment may be the gap between Baran and Shadi's technical and practical knowledge (Basturkmen et al., 2004), or their 'professed' and 'implicit' beliefs (Zheng, 2013) regarding the explicitness of their OCF practices. While the two teachers expressed beliefs about how they perceive errors should be corrected (i.e. technical knowledge), it may be that they had been unable to put those beliefs into practice and instead, they drew on their personal practical knowledge. Also, according to CST, it may be that teachers held implicit beliefs that were incompatible with their more explicit held beliefs about how to correct oral errors which could have led to tensions in their beliefs and practices. As a result, tension influencing contextual factors were allowed to emerge (Zheng, 2015) and affect the application of beliefs to practices. That is, situational constraints such as time limitation, the need to cover prescribed curriculum, and the pressure from examination (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2003; Lee, 2008) could have affected the two teachers' application of their stated beliefs to the explicitness of their OCF practices.

It may also be that the priority that teachers gave to the different beliefs that they held (i.e. whether it was core or peripheral (Zheng, 2015) or to the different dimensions of their contexts (Bitchener & Storch, 2016) (macro-, exo-, and micro-contexts) could have led to the non-alignment between teachers' stated beliefs and OCF practices. This is an important area that requires further attention, and while it has received attention in the field of written CF (Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Hyland

& Hyland, 2006), there is a need for future research to further explore it in the field of oral error correction.

In the NZ context, apart from one teacher (Rose) whose beliefs and error correction practices about the explicitness of OCF aligned, the other four teachers' beliefs and practices noticeably diverged. Rose was the only NZ teacher who believed that a combination of implicit and explicit OCF is most effective to correct errors, and in practice she provided a similar proportion of both implicit (49.02%) and explicit (50.98%) OCF. In contrast, Lisa, Kylie, Jim who had expressed strong support for the use of implicit OCF provided mainly implicit OCF but also corrected different proportions of errors explicitly. More specifically, Lisa provided 60% implicit and 40% explicit OCF, Kylie provided 76.92% implicit and 23.08% explicit OCF, and Jim corrected 81.58% of all errors implicitly, and 18.42% of them explicitly. Interestingly, Tom who believed that oral errors should be corrected explicitly, only provided 16.28% explicit OCF and corrected the remaining 83.72% of error implicitly. Again, one possible explanation may be the gap between the teachers' technical and practical knowledge may be accountable for the mismatch between their beliefs and practices, as well as the effect of situational constraints (Basturkmen et al., 2004).

Previous studies have also shown that teachers' beliefs and OCF practices regarding the explicitness of error correction can diverge (e.g. Alzebaree, Ahmed, & Hasan, 2018; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrokhi, 2007; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; Roothoof, 2014; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018). For instance, the teachers in Basturkmen et al. (2004) and Roothoof's (2014) studies expressed support for prompts, but instead provided recasts in response to oral errors. The researchers attributed the teachers' extensive use of recasts, irrespective of their beliefs, to the less disruptive and indirect nature of recasts that allow teachers to focus on form without interrupting learners.

Also, more recently Ölmezer-Öztürk (2019) found that teachers' beliefs and OCF practices regarding OCF types were inconsistent, that is, while the teachers in his study expressed different preferences for OCF types, in practice, they were unable to completely demonstrate their stated

beliefs. The researcher explained the mismatch by considering oral error correction as an inherently unplanned and dynamic process. This may also be a possible explanation for the non-alignment between the beliefs and OCF types of Iranian and NZ teachers in my study. That is, the teachers might have been unable to apply their beliefs about how to correct errors into classroom practices because of the unplanned nature of oral errors and their correction.

The results of my study may contradict those of some other studies that have shown that teachers' beliefs regarding how to correct errors align with the OCF types they use in practice (e.g. Jensen, 2001; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava et al., 2018). The methodological and contextual differences between the previous studies and my study may be accountable for their different results. Jensen (2001), for instance, explored five ESL teachers in Australia using interviews, teacher journals and observations over a period of seven months. The researcher found that the teachers who expressed fear of interrupting learners' communication flow mainly used implicit CF types, and the teacher who expressed more support for frequent OCF use, provided a range of OCF types in practice. Also, Kartchava et al. (2018) explored pre-service teachers' beliefs and OCF practices through their responses to hypothetical classroom scenarios and classrooms observations, respectively. The researchers found that the teachers expressed support for recasts and were able to demonstrate that in their practices. The researchers attributed this to the possibility that recasts were the only OCF type the teachers knew, that recasts were less disturbing than other CF types, and the teachers' concerns about negatively affecting learners' communication with explicit OCF.

Similarly, in my study, it is possible that both Iranian and NZ teachers mainly used recasts, irrespective of the beliefs they held regarding how to correct errors, as recasts may have been the only technique they knew (Kartchava et al., 2018), and that recasts are implicit (Kamiya, 2014) and unobtrusive in nature (Long, 1991, 1996, 2007). The possibility that recasts may have been the only OCF type both Iranian and NZ teachers knew may not be unreasonable. This is because the Iranian teachers had only attended a one-day teacher training workshop which had not covered error correction techniques, and the NZ teachers who had completed longer training programmes stated that while they were taught about how to teach English in the training course, they did not

learn much specifically about error correction. Therefore, it may be that the teachers in my study had only become familiar with the reformulation of learners' erroneous utterances (i.e. recasts) during their training courses.

However, the differences in the findings of my study and those of earlier studies that found that teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the explicitness of OCF aligned (e.g. Jensen, 2001; Kamiya, 2014; Kartchava et al., 2018) can be caused by contextual factors (Zheng, 2013) (such as school curriculum, pressure of examination, and time limitation). Also, given the complex nature of OCF (i.e. its different aspects of how, which errors, who, and when to correct) (Vásquez & Harvey, 2010), it may be that teachers at times can engage in practices that are not in line with their beliefs. Even so, if different teachers work with the same teaching material and within the same context, they may provide OCF differently (Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019), and thus the relationship between their beliefs and practices may also be affected.

In addition, some of these studies explored teachers' beliefs regarding the different types of OCF (e.g. recasts, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback) (e.g. Kartchava et al., 2018; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018); that is, the teachers were asked about their preferences for different OCF types. However, in my study, teachers were not asked about their beliefs and preferences about different OCF types and instead were asked more holistically whether they support implicit or explicit OCF types. The reason for this is that the Iranian and NZ teachers in my study had indicated during the interviews (both initial and stimulated recall interview) that they had not completed teacher training courses on error correction. That is, all ten teachers claimed that they had not become equipped with knowledge of the categorizations of different OCF types (apart from most of the NZ teachers who claimed that they had only become familiar with recasts in training courses).

As a result, and to overcome this issue of not being able to categorise OCF types, the teachers in my study were only asked about their beliefs about the explicitness of OCF as opposed to their preferences for different OCF types. Therefore, it may be possible that the difference in how I

approached the teachers' beliefs about how to correct errors in comparison with previous studies, might have affected the outcome of my study. It is possible that if the teachers had more knowledge of the different OCF types, they may have been more likely to name the different OCF types they believed were more effective. Therefore, it may have been possible to assess their beliefs more specifically with regards to how to correct errors, as supposed to the more holistic explicit/implicit dichotomy that I used in my study. This issue could be seen as a possible limitation, therefore, conducting similar studies can be important to form a common ground regarding the explicitness of teachers' feedback practices.

In sum, the analysis of the relationship between both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and OCF practices regarding the explicitness of OCF showed to be inconsistent. That is, there were instances of both convergence and divergence between what the teachers stated and how they corrected errors in practice. The inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices about how to correct errors have been attributed to different mediating factors (such as the gap between technical and practical knowledge, time limitation, pressure to cover the prescribed curriculum and the examination, the effect of teacher training programmes in creating awareness of OCF types).

### **5.3.3 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the correction of different types of errors**

My findings showed a noticeable mismatch between both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about which type(s) of errors to correct and the teachers' OCF practices. As previously mentioned, within each context, teachers were categorised into three groups based on their beliefs about the type(s) of errors which they believe are more important to correct. The first group of teachers believed that morpho-syntactic errors to be more important than other errors. The second group believed that phonological errors require more correction than other errors. The third group of teachers believed that all errors are equally important and require attention, and no error type is more important than others.

In practice, however, the teachers from both contexts corrected the more frequent errors more than the errors they stated they would. That is, in both contexts, given that morpho-syntactic errors were the most frequently occurred errors, all ten teachers corrected them more irrespective of their stated beliefs. Therefore, apart from the apparent alignment between the beliefs and OCF practices of the two teachers (Mina & Tom) who stated that morpho-syntactic errors are more important to correct, other teachers showed non-alignment between their beliefs and OCF practices.

In the Iranian context, Mina believed that morpho-syntactic errors are the most important type of errors to be corrected and in practice, most of her OCF moves were provided in response to morpho-syntactic errors (i.e. 48.04 %). Also, Baran, Amir, and Saber had stated that phonological errors are more important than other types of errors and in practice, most of their OCF moves were used in response to morpho-syntactic errors (i.e. 48.45%, 70.75%, and 59.01%, respectively). In addition, Shadi, the only Iranian teacher who believed that all errors are the same, also mainly corrected morpho-syntactic errors (64.13%), followed by phonological (16.3%), lexical (10.32%), and semantic errors (9.23 %).

In the NZ context, Tom, the only NZ teacher who believed that morpho-syntactic errors are more important than other errors, demonstrated this in class. However, Lisa and Rose who believed that phonological errors are more important than other types of errors, in practice only devoted 5.76% and 3.77% of their OCF moves to the correction of phonological errors. Finally, Kylie and Jim who had stated that no particular error type is more important than other types of errors also mainly corrected morpho-syntactic errors (70.0%).

Overall, my study found instances where the Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs regarding which error(s) to correct and their OCF practices diverged. Also, while it seems that Tom's and Baran's beliefs aligned with their classroom practices, it may more likely be that they mainly corrected morpho-syntactic errors because they were the most frequent type of errors in their classrooms. Therefore, my study proposes that teachers are likely to correct more frequent errors (Junqueira



& Kim, 2013), irrespective of their held beliefs about which type of errors require more attention and correction.

The non-alignment found between the beliefs and practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about errors to correct is in line with the results of previous studies (e.g. Alzeebaree et al., 2018; Roothoof, 2014). Alzeebaree et al. (2018) found divergence between six out of their eight Kurdish EFL teachers' stated beliefs and practices regarding which error to correct. The researchers found that while the eight teachers expressed different beliefs as to the type of error they believe should be corrected, in practice, similar to my study, all teachers mainly corrected morpho-syntactic errors. Again, like my study, only two teachers believed that morpho-syntactic errors are more important than other types of errors to be corrected, and only these two teachers' beliefs and OCF practices regarding the correction of error types aligned. Interestingly, the researchers believed that the non-alignment found in their study between the teachers' beliefs and practices is a 'natural phenomenon' (Kamiya, 2014).

Contrary to the findings of my study, some studies have also found that teachers' beliefs about which error to correct can align with their OCF practices (e.g. Junqueira & Kim, 2013). Junqueira and Kim (2013) for example, showed that the two teachers in their study held different beliefs as to which error is more important, yet they were both able to apply their beliefs into their classroom practices. That is, the novice teacher in their study believed that phonological errors should be the focus of error correction as learners want OCF on their phonological errors.

In contrast, the experienced teacher believed that both morpho-syntactic and phonological errors need to be corrected as students prefer OCF on morpho-syntactic errors. In practice, the novice teacher mainly corrected phonological errors (72.8%), and the experienced teacher corrected a more balanced proportion of morpho-syntactic (32.5%) and phonological errors (40.0%). The researchers claimed that the teachers' correction of different types of errors mirrored the number of those errors in their classrooms. Even though Junqueira and Kim (2013) investigated just two teachers (one novice and one experienced), their finding is similar to the finding of my

study (with 2 novice and eight experienced teachers) in which the frequency of different types of errors may affect the extent to which the teachers correct those errors.

In addition, literature suggests that teaching experience may affect the application of teachers' beliefs to their OCF practices (Basturkmen, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Gatbonton, 2000; Mori, 2011; Tsui, 2003), in that experienced teachers are more likely to have more alignment between their beliefs and classroom practices. However, the findings of my study do not support this argument, and the Iranian and NZ teachers corrected the different types of errors the way they did irrespective of their teaching experience.

It can also be possible that the Iranian and NZ teachers corrected the most frequent errors in their classrooms irrespective of their stated beliefs because more than one belief may have underpinned their practices (Zheng, 2013). That is, the teachers may have believed that certain error types are more important than other errors, but also perceived that more frequent errors need more correction because of their high frequency and the possibility that their high frequency may lead to communication breakdown. While this was not specifically mentioned by any of the teachers, it may be a possible reason. Further researcher is required to explore whether teachers believe that more frequent errors are more important to correct than less frequent errors.

In sum, this study found many areas of divergence between both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and the correction of different types of errors. The findings suggest that, irrespective of teachers' stated beliefs or teaching experience, they may correct more frequent errors in their classrooms, and thus diverge from their stated beliefs. That is, whether the teachers believed that morpho-syntactic, lexical, or all errors should be corrected, in practice they mainly corrected morpho-syntactic as they were the more frequent errors in each classroom.

#### **5.3.4 The relationship between the beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the sources of OCF**

This study found a noticeable mismatch between both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about who should correct errors and the teachers' actual classroom practices. This is because all ten teachers

had stated that they believe self-correction is the best source of OCF, followed by peer correction, and that teacher correction should only be used when self- and peer correction fail to correct the error. It should be noted that the NZ teachers supported self- and peer correction over teacher correction, yet voiced doubts about the practicality of always encouraging self- and peer correction in classrooms. In practice, however, the teachers used large proportions of teacher correction, and very little if any amounts of peer correction.

In comparing the two contexts, the Iranian teachers used larger proportions of teacher correction and less of self-correction than the NZ teachers did. That is, the NZ teachers used a more balanced proportion of both teacher and self-correction in treating errors. More specifically, in the Iranian context, Baran provided 91.38%, Amir provided 83.51%, Mina used 73.89%, Saber used 68.33%, and Shadi provided 67.04% of teacher correction in response to learners' oral errors. As for the NZ teachers, Tom provided 62.92%, Jim provided 60.97%, Rose used 52.94%, Lisa used 34.78%, and Kylie provided 34.48% teacher correction.

One possible reason for the clear mismatch between Iranian teachers' beliefs and OCF practices may be that the Iranian teachers felt the need to express support for the use of self-correction over teacher correction possibly because of response bias. That is, it may be that while the Iranian teachers did not completely agree with the use of self-correction in response to all oral errors, they expressed support for it as it may have been the 'more correct and desirable' response to the question. Therefore, their actual OCF practices which involved the extensive use of teacher correction diverged from their stated beliefs. A second possible reason for the mismatch between the teachers' beliefs and practices can be that the teachers were constrained by contextual (Zheng, 2013) and practical factors (such as learners' emotional needs and aspects of classroom management) that prevented them from applying their beliefs to their practices (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018).

Also, with reference to CST, the gap between the teachers' professed and implicit beliefs, or their technical and practical knowledge (Basturkmen et al., 2004), can mean that they held contracting

beliefs (Zheng, 2013) simultaneously. As a result, the teachers may have not only believed that self- and peer correction is most effective but may also have perceived that teacher correction is less time-consuming and more practical because of learners' insufficient knowledge of the target language and their fear of the potential negative effects of peer correction on learners' motivation. As previously indicated, it may even be that teachers gave different priority to their held beliefs and acted according to the beliefs that they considered more important in fulfilling their pedagogical and interpersonal goals (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). This demonstrates that teachers' beliefs are indeed complex and that their OCF practices can be mediated by factors that may interact with their stated beliefs.

This finding might seem contradictory to the results of my study; however, it is notable that the differences between Alzeebaree et al.'s (2018) study and my study may stem from the teachers' held beliefs as opposed to the application of teachers' beliefs to their classroom practices. That is, the fact that most teachers in Alzeebaree et al.'s study believed in the use of teacher correction can be the main reason for the differences in the outcome of their study to mine. This is because, in both studies, the teachers used teacher correction extensively in classrooms but because six out of eight teachers in Alzeebaree et al.'s study believed in the use of teacher correction, there was also more alignment found in their study.

In sum, my study found inconsistencies in the beliefs and OCF practices of both Iranian and NZ teachers regarding the source of OCF. That is, the teachers used large proportions of teacher correction which was in strong contrast with the Iranian teachers' preferences for self-correction over teacher correction. As for the NZ teachers, there was less obvious mismatch between their beliefs and practices as they provided larger proportions of self-correction than the Iranian teachers did.

### **5.3.5 The relationship between beliefs and classroom practices of Iranian and NZ teachers about the timing of OCF**

My study revealed a considerable mismatch between both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF and when the teachers corrected errors in practice. As previously mentioned,

Iranian teachers were categorised into three groups: three teachers who believed that depending on the type of the error and the task, some errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay, one teacher who perceived that delayed OCF is most effective, and one teacher who believed that errors should be corrected immediately. However, the NZ teachers were categorised into only two groups: three teachers who believed that errors should be corrected both immediately and with delay, and the two teachers who perceived that delayed OCF is more effective. In practice, the Iranian and NZ teachers corrected large proportions of oral errors immediately, and only provided ten instances of delayed OCF (one in the Iranian EFL and nine in the NZ ESL context).

More specifically, in the Iranian context, Mina, Saber, and Shadi believed that some errors should be corrected immediately and some with delay depending of the task type and error type. In practice, the teachers only used immediate OCF, except for Saber who use delayed OCF only once. In addition, Amir believed that OCF should be delayed until the end of the task, but in practice he provided all his OCF practices immediately as the errors occurred. Also, Baran who had stated that errors should be corrected immediately, provided only immediate OCF. This may suggest that only Baran's beliefs and classroom practices regarding the timing of OCF aligned.

In the NZ context, Jim, Tom, and Rose had stated that a combination of immediate and delayed OCF can assist learners most. Nonetheless, in practice apart from Tom who provided 3 instances of delayed OCF, the three teachers corrected learners' errors immediately as they occurred. In addition, Lisa and Kylie both had expressed support for delayed OCF, yet in practice, while Lisa only provided delayed OCF six times, Kylie only corrected errors immediately.

Overall, my study found that apart from one teacher (Baran), the beliefs and practices of the other teachers diverged with regards to the timing of OCF. This observation has previously been shown in some previous studies (e.g. Alzebaree et al., 2018; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016). For instance, Ölmezer-Öztürk's (2019) investigation of Turkish EFL teachers showed inconsistencies between their stated beliefs and actual OCF practices regarding the timing

of OCF. Out of the eight participants, three had expressed preference for delayed and one preferred a combination of immediate and delayed OCF, and in practice, the four teachers were able to demonstrate their preferences in classroom practice. However, three other teachers who believed in immediate OCF and one who supported a combination of immediate and delayed OCF, in practice mainly used delayed OCF and only delayed OCF, respectively.

Ölmezer-Öztürk explained the overall divergence between the teachers' beliefs and OCF practices on the timing of OCF to the complexities of error correction in classrooms, the 'inherently unplanned' nature of OCF Basturkmen (2012), and the 'multifaceted and inherently cultural nature of language classrooms' (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 30), which may lead teachers to provide OCF which does not align with their stated beliefs. The complexity of error correction can refer to the many factors (e.g. teaching context, learners' characteristics and needs, linguistics objectives and curriculum objectives) that teachers need to consider when making decisions on ways to provide OCF (Lyster et al., 2013). These complex decisions can prevent teachers from applying their beliefs to their practices (Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2019).

It may also be that the teachers in my study were inconstant in their beliefs and practices regarding the timing of OCF because more than one belief may have underpinned their practices (Zheng, 2013, 2015). These different beliefs can come together in a specific context, and for those beliefs that are compatible with each other, they are likely to be reflected onto practices (Zheng, 2015). However, because of the complex nature of teachers' beliefs system and oral error correction, it may also be that a range of teacher, learner, and context-related factors interact simultaneously. While research on written CF has pointed to the simultaneous interaction of individual and context-related factors (e.g. Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Hyland & Hyland, 2006), it has not received attention in the field of OCF. Therefore, it is important that future longitudinal studies explore the multiple dimensions of teachers' OCF beliefs and their error correction practices. This is because teachers' CF practices can be explained by these different dimensions and the interaction between them (Bitchener & Storch, 2016).

In sum, my study found that Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and OCF practices regarding when to correct errors diverged. However, given the complex, interpretative, and 'unplanned' (Basturkmen, 2012) nature of error correction in classrooms, it may be unreasonable to expect teachers to apply all their stated beliefs into classroom practices. Therefore, the observed mismatch between the teachers' beliefs and practices in my study may be a 'natural phenomenon' (Kamiya, 2014), meaning that teachers may hold certain beliefs about OCF and perform differently in the classroom because they are in the process of development (Kamiya, 2014), and thus some level of non-alignment between beliefs and practices may be expected.

In concluding this section, drawing on my findings, two main conclusions can be made. First, reasons for the relationship between teachers' beliefs and OCF practices can be multifarious (Kartchava et al., 2018). That is, teachers may hold certain beliefs regarding the provision of OCF, and while they demonstrate some of those beliefs in practice, they may also correct some errors in ways that are different from their stated beliefs. Second, given that there may be complex and interactional reasons why teachers hold certain beliefs about OCF and correct errors the way they do, a combination of different factors (related to beliefs, practices, and contexts) may simultaneously mediate the application of their beliefs to actual classroom practices. These two points are further discussed in the Conclusion chapter.

## **Chapter 6: Conclusion**

### **6.0 Introduction**

Research on teachers' OCF beliefs and classroom practices has received limited attention (Kartchava et al., 2018), and given the importance of OCF in leading to L2 development (S. Li, 2018) and the link between teachers' beliefs in guiding their OCF-related classroom decisions (Junqueira & Kim, 2013), this was an important area to explore. My study was designed to address this issue in two instructional contexts: Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL). In this final chapter, six main sections are presented. First, I briefly review the study's aims and methodological approach (Section 6.1). Second, I briefly review the key findings of my study (Section 6.2). Third, the empirical, theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical contributions of my study are presented (Section 6.3). Fourth, the limitations of the study are identified in Section 6.4, and in Section 6.5, directions for future research are suggested. The chapter concludes with a final remark (Section 6.6).

### **6.1 Aims and methodology of my study**

The main purpose of my study was to explore teachers' OCF beliefs, their classroom error correction practices, and the link between the two, across two different instructional contexts. Through this, I also aimed to explore the role of instructional context on teachers' OCF beliefs and practices. My study further aimed to identify factors that may affect the application of OCF beliefs to error correction classroom practices.

To address these aims, I used an exploratory qualitative multiple-case study approach. The study was conducted in two countries with ten teacher participants (five from Iran and five from NZ) teaching intermediate/upper intermediate general English classes in two language schools in Iran and NZ. I chose Iran and NZ as my two cases mainly because of personal teaching experience in the two contexts and the lack of research that had explored and compared the contexts together. As two instructional contexts that provide English language teaching programmes to numerous language learners, I believed that research that could inform teachers within these contexts about



their beliefs and practices regarding an important language teaching area such as OCF, can benefit both teachers and learners in these contexts.

In doing so, I used a background information questionnaire, two classroom observations, a belief elicitation semi-structured interview, and a stimulated recall interview to collect data. To analyse the data, qualitative methods of analysis and simple statistical measurements (percentage counts) were used to analyse data from the classroom observations and the interviews. The findings of my study are now summarised according to the research questions.

## **6.2 Summary of key findings**

### **6.2.1 Teachers' beliefs about oral errors, the provision of OCF, as well as the sources of teachers' beliefs in the two contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL)**

With regards to teachers' affective attitudes towards learners' oral errors, my study found that all five NZ and three of five Iranian teachers believed that oral errors are a natural and normal part of language learning. This may explain the generally positive attitude of teachers towards learners' oral errors.

As for teachers' beliefs about OCF, my study found that while some teachers hold similar beliefs, there may be beliefs about aspects of OCF that vary from one teacher to another. Regarding beliefs about the importance of OCF and whether or not errors should be corrected, my study found that all five Iranian and five NZ teachers believed that oral errors should be corrected; however, the teachers differed noticeably in the extent to which they believed errors should be corrected. More specifically, in comparison, Iranian teachers expressed stronger beliefs about the importance of correcting oral errors. Also, the NZ teachers expressed more concerns about the negative effects of over-correction on learners' motivation. Additionally, my study found that different factors such as teaching experience and instructional context might have affected teachers' beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected.

My findings also showed that teachers' beliefs about whether or not errors should be corrected may be attributed to different reasons. First, all five Iranian and five NZ teachers believed that OCF assists L2 development. Second, most of the Iranian and NZ teachers believed that fluency is either more important than accuracy, or equally important. Third, all five Iranian teachers believed that they provide OCF because learners expect them to correct errors, while only three NZ teachers acknowledged that learners expect OCF. Despite this, the NZ teachers claimed that learners' expectations do not affect their beliefs or OCF practices. Fourth, most of the Iranian teachers believed that OCF is their main responsibility, and through OCF, they can demonstrate their attention, knowledge and responsibility to learners as they considered OCF as a proxy of teachers' conscientiousness. Fifth, most of the NZ teachers believed that focusing on motivating learners is more important than correcting oral errors.

With regards to teachers' beliefs about the explicitness of OCF, my study found that most of the Iranian and NZ teachers believed that oral errors should be corrected implicitly, and not explicitly. Also, it is likely that teaching experience may have affected teachers' beliefs about how to correct errors. As for the type(s) of errors that should be corrected, my findings showed that more teachers believed that phonological errors are more important to correct than other oral errors. Also, regarding teachers' beliefs about the sources of OCF, my findings indicated that all Iranian and most of the NZ teachers believed that self-correction, before peer correction are the best source of OCF. All teachers believed that teacher correction should be used only when self-, and peer correction fail to correct the error. However, the NZ teachers expressed doubts about the practicality of encouraging self- and peer correction. As for the timing of OCF, most of the Iranian and NZ teachers believed that immediate and delayed OCF can be equally effective, depending on the focus of the task and learners' proficiency levels. Also, my findings revealed that teaching experience may have affected teachers' beliefs about the timing of OCF.

Finally, regarding the sources of their beliefs, my study showed that Iranian teachers attributed their OCF beliefs mainly to their teaching experience and personalities, while NZ teachers considered their own language learning experience and personalities as their main sources of

beliefs. Also, Iranian teachers rejected their one-day teacher training courses as a source of their beliefs, while most of the NZ teachers claimed that their beliefs had been shaped by their teacher training courses. In addition, all ten teachers claimed that their personalities shaped their beliefs. Also, only four teachers in total pointed that their own research has formed some of their beliefs about correcting oral errors.

### **6.2.2 Teachers' error classroom practices in the two contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL)**

My study found that teachers' OCF practices can vary from one teacher to another. More specifically, as for the correction of errors, one of my most important findings was that Iranian EFL teachers corrected a considerably higher percentage of oral errors and provided noticeably more feedback moves than the NZ ESL teachers did. Regarding how oral errors should be corrected, my study showed that Iranian teachers used a total of 13 types of feedback when correcting errors; while NZ teachers used 12 types. Also, both Iranian and NZ teachers mostly used recast followed by multiple feedback. As for the explicitness of OCF, most of the Iranian and NZ teachers provided more implicit feedback moves than explicit ones. Also, in comparison, Iranian teachers provided more implicit feedback than NZ teachers did, while the NZ teachers provided more explicit feedback. As for which error(s) to correct, my study revealed that Iranian and NZ teachers corrected morpho-syntactic errors more frequently than other types of errors. However, it was found that Iranian and NZ teachers corrected the more frequent types of errors more than other error types.

As for the sources of OCF, all Iranian and most of the NZ teachers provided more teacher correction than self-correction. It was also found that Iranian and NZ teachers rarely used peer-correction, yet NZ teachers provided noticeably more opportunities for self-correction than the Iranian teachers did. Finally, regarding the timing of OCF, my findings showed that Iranian and NZ teachers rarely used delayed OCF. Another important and new finding of my study was that NZ teachers provided a much higher percentage of false positive confirmation in response to learners' oral errors than Iranian teachers did, and both Iranian and NZ teachers provided considerably more verbal than non-verbal feedback.

### **6.2.3 The relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and their error correction practices in the two contexts of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL)**

An important finding of my study was that teachers' OCF beliefs and error correction practices were mainly non-aligned. More specifically, from the five aspects of OCF, I found that both Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and practices only aligned with regards to whether or not oral errors should be corrected. As for the other four aspects (i.e. the explicitness of OCF, which errors to correct, the source of OCF, and the timing of correcting errors), the Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and practices did not align. Nonetheless, there was partial alignment observed between NZ teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the source of OCF. Overall, my study found possible factors that may have affected the application of teachers' OCF beliefs to classroom practices.

## **6.3 Contributions of my study**

This section starts with a discussion of the contribution of my work to empirical knowledge (Section 6.3.1). Then, in Sections 6.3.2.1-6.3.2.3 I explain the theoretical contributions, before presenting the pedagogical implications for teachers and teacher educators (Sections 6.3.3.1-6.3.3.2).

### **6.3.1 Contributions to empirical knowledge**

The results of this study contribute to our current knowledge of teachers' beliefs about OCF, their error correction practices, and the alignment between the two. While some of my findings support the results of earlier studies, new findings also emerged which can add to the existing literature.

As for the similar results, some of my findings aligned with earlier studies in different areas. For example, in line with earlier studies (e.g. Firwana, 2010; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015), I found that most teachers have a positive affective attitude about oral errors and support their correction. Also, my study supported previous findings (e.g. Bitchener & Storch, 2016) that EFL teachers in particular, support error correction because there may be more focus on accuracy in the EFL context than in the ESL context where focus is more on developing effective oral communication. In addition, my study revealed that teachers show concerns about negative effects of OCF on learners' motivation and self-esteem which was also found previously (e.g. Roothoof & Breeze,

2016). Similarly, my study confirmed that mediating factors such as teaching experience and instructional context can affect teachers' beliefs about the provision of OCF (Demir & Özmen, 2017).

However, in addition to these findings, my study produced a range of new observations including more detailed insights into teachers' OCF beliefs and practices. As a result, my study has two main contributions to empirical knowledge on OCF. The first contribution is that various factors can influence teachers' beliefs, practices, and the interaction between the two with regards to OCF. The second and most important contribution of my study to empirical knowledge is that context, which was one of the main identified factors, is important as an influence on teachers' OCF beliefs, their OCF practices, and the relationship between the two. The discussion of mediating factors and instructional context is not completely innovative since previous studies have indicated that factors such as context can affect teachers' beliefs, practices, and their relationship (e.g. S. Li, 2017; Rahimi & Zhang, 2015). However, my study reported new findings on both (e.g. some factors can affect all three aspects of OCF beliefs, practices, and the link between them). One reason that new findings were observed is because my study moved the fields of teachers' OCF beliefs and oral error correction further by exploring them from three new perspectives which are discussed below.

The first new perspective from which my study explored OCF was that unlike earlier studies (e.g. Kartchava et al., 2018; Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2018) that explored teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the relationship between the two with regards to a certain range of aspects of OCF, my study looked at five different aspects of OCF (i.e. Hendrickson's (1978) five questions). For example, Sepehrinia and Mehdizadeh (2018) explored the relationship between the beliefs and OCF practices of Iranian EFL teachers only with regards to the amount and type of OCF. Nonetheless, because my study explored more aspects of OCF, we know teachers' beliefs, practices, and their relationship with regards to whether or not oral errors should be corrected, the explicitness of OCF, the type(s) of oral errors to correct, the sources of OCF, and the timing of OCF (see Sections 4.1-4.3). This is an important contribution because by expanding our

understanding of teachers' beliefs and practices on more aspects of OCF, we can have a deeper understanding of areas relating to OCF that have not received sufficient attention. It also helps identify areas that require further research to enhance teachers' awareness of more aspects of their OCF beliefs, error correction practices, and potential mediating factors, and ultimately assist learners' L2 development. This is because eventually learners are the receivers of teachers' OCF practices, therefore, teachers' raised awareness of their beliefs and practices can encourage them to provide OCF more effectively to better assist learners' L2 development.

The second new perspective is that earlier studies have explored the mediating effects of factors (such as teacher, learners, and contextual factors) on one of the three areas of teachers' OCF beliefs (e.g. S. Li, 2017), practices (e.g. D. Brown, 2016), and the alignment between the two (e.g. Kartchava et al., 2018). However, my study took one step further by exploring the influence of these potential factors on all three aspects of teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the link between the two together. By looking at factors that can influence all the three aspects of OCF (i.e. beliefs, practices, the relationship between them), my study reported a more comprehensive picture of these factors and emphasised the importance of considering these mediating factors in investigating OCF. This is because my findings showed that factors such as teaching experience and context are likely to affect all three aspects of teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and their relationship (see Sections 4.1-4.3).

The third perspective is that limited studies have explored the effect of macro-context on one of the three aspects of teachers' OCF beliefs (e.g. Schulz, 2001), practices (e.g. Sheen, 2004), and the link between the two (e.g. Milla Melero, 2017). Yet, my study further explored the role of micro-context (i.e. within a single context) as well as macro-context (i.e. EFL vs. ESL) across all three aspects of teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the link between them. The advantage of exploring both micro- and macro-context was that it provided deeper insights into the interconnected of the different levels of contexts, beliefs, and practices. More specifically, my findings indicated that teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the alignment between the two can vary both within a single instructional context (because of differences in micro-context) and

across two instructional contexts (because of differences in macro-context) (see Sections 4.1-4.3)

As previously indicated, differences in macro-context refer to differences in the society in which English is being used; that is, differences in EFL where English is not the official language and it is only taught through instruction, and ESL where English is the official language. Because of this, EFL and ESL teachers are likely to not only hold varying beliefs about OCF but also, provide it differently.

As my findings revealed, the Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers differed noticeably in their beliefs about aspects of OCF (see Section 4.1) and their provision of OCF in practice OCF (see Section 4.2). For instance, in comparison to the NZ teachers, the Iranian EFL teachers expressed more support for the correction of oral errors and believed that teacher correction should only be used when self- and peer correction fail to correct the oral error. In contrast, the NZ teachers supported self- and peer correction but believed that teacher correction may be the more practical approach to oral errors. In terms of classroom practices, Iranian teachers corrected a considerable larger amount of oral errors than the NZ teachers did (see Section 4.2.1), and used more implicit OCF than the NZ teachers did (see Section 4.2.2). As for the relationship between OCF beliefs and practice, while there were many instances of non-alignment across both instructional contexts, more alignment was found in the NZ context (see Section 4.3).

Also, differences in micro-context refer to differences at the level of classrooms. Each language classroom is unique in terms of factors relating to the teacher, learners, classroom size, activity type, and classroom environment. Thus, it is expected that teachers within the same instructional context and even within the same language school differ with regards to their OCF beliefs and practices. This was evidenced in my findings. My study observed differences across the five teachers within each of the two EFL and ESL contexts with regards to aspects of their OCF beliefs, practices, and the relationship between the two. For instance, three of five Iranian teachers expressed strong support for the correction of all/most oral errors, whereas the two other Iranian teachers supported OCF but also stated that in order to not affect learners' motivation, not all oral errors should be corrected. With regards to practices, while two of three teachers corrected most

of learners' oral errors, the other three NZ teachers corrected a much smaller amount of errors. As for the relationship between beliefs and practices, again some teachers in each context were more successful in applying their beliefs to practices. Overall, my study indicated that context is important to consider in all its three levels (macro-, exo-, micro-context) when exploring the field of OCF.

In sum, compared to previous research, my study has been more focused and extensive because of the new approaches that it took with the investigation of teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, their relationship, and mediating factors that influence these three aspects both within and across instructional contexts. My findings highlighted the importance of considering various factors at different contextual levels when exploring OCF. It also pointed to the interconnectedness of teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and context. This is further explained theoretically in the next section.

Also, methodologically, the use of a multiple-case study approach benefited the aims of my study as it allowed for a more detailed comparison to be made between the two instructional contexts of Iran's EFL and NZ's ESL. This is because, by using a multiple-case study approach, as opposed to a single case study, I was able to compare different aspects of OCF across two contexts. As a result of comparing these two cases, a more comprehensive picture of the link between teachers' beliefs and OCF practices across instructional contexts was painted, which can contribute to the two strands of research on teacher belief and OCF. Thus, I would suggest further studies should incorporate a multiple-case study approach when investigating more aspects of teachers' beliefs and OCF practices.

### **6.3.2 Contributions to theoretical development**

The contributions of my findings to empirical knowledge, which were presented in the previous section, have the following theoretical contributions:

1. Deepening our understanding of teachers' complex beliefs systems (Section 6.3.2.1)



2. Presenting a more comprehensive picture of the impact of various contextual factors on teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the relationship between the two (Section 6.3.2.2)
3. Deepening our understanding of the alignment between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices (Section 6.3.2.3)

These theoretical contributions of my findings are presented as follows:

#### **6.3.2.1 Deepening our understanding of teachers' complex beliefs systems**

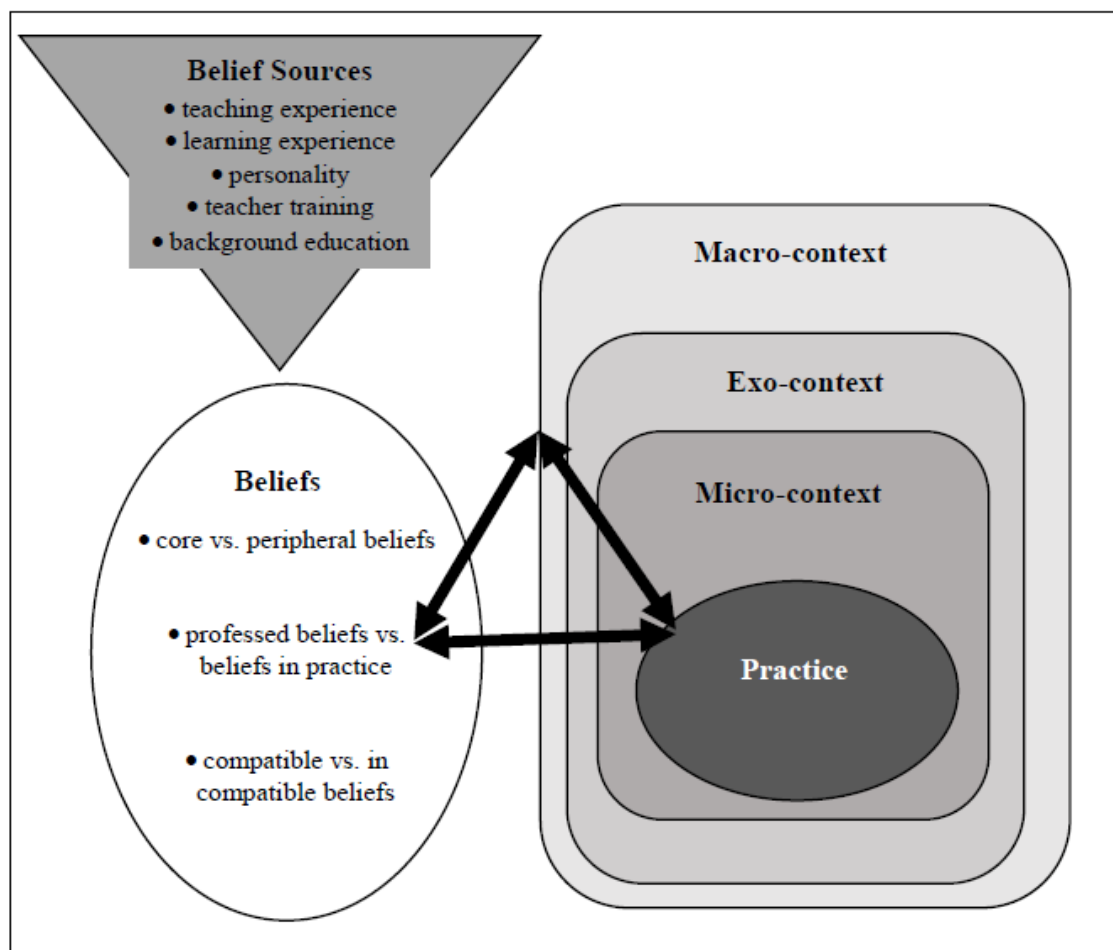
Theoretically, my study contributed to the field of teachers' beliefs by validating Zheng's (2015) model of teacher's complex beliefs system that combines CST and the interpretivist perspective as a comprehensive perspective that could better explain teachers' beliefs about classroom-related issues such as OCF. Since this proposed model has recently been developed, it requires further empirical confirmation. The contribution of my study was to test its appropriateness and applicability to the field of teachers' OCF beliefs and practices. In addition, my study showed that the model can be developed further by adding an extra layer of sources of beliefs to the model that highlights the importance of teachers' beliefs being shaped through various sources. While my study centres specifically on teachers' OCF beliefs, I now generally discuss related proposed models for teacher belief research before explaining how Zheng's model can appropriately apply to teachers' OCF beliefs' systems.

As indicated in the Literature Review chapter, our understating of the appropriate theoretical framework for the investigation of teachers' beliefs is limited to only several proposed models and theoretical frameworks; for example, Borg's (2006) Model of Teacher Cognition, Kubanyiova's (2007) Integrated Model of Language Teacher Conceptual Change. These models have attempted to capture the complexity of teachers' beliefs, and while they have each provided insights into aspects of teachers' beliefs and changes in beliefs, we need to further look at models that also capture the interconnectedness of components of the belief system. Feryok (2010) first applied CST to teacher belief research and emphasised that through a CST framework, the complexity, interconnectedness, interaction, and co-adaption of sets of teachers' beliefs can be explained. While Feryok's attempt was more of a 'metaphorical re-analysis' of her data using

CST by explaining how the theory can ‘fit’ teacher belief research, Zheng (2015) offered a new theoretical framework for teachers’ beliefs using a combination of CST and an interpretivist approach.

Zheng’s model brings together CST and interpretivism to capture not only the complexity of teachers’ belief systems, but also highlights the exploratory aspect of beliefs at an individual level. This model takes “into account both the constructive role of contexts and the interpretive role of teachers’ beliefs” (Zheng, 2015, p. 33). The CST aspect of the model regards contextual factors as input that affects teachers’ beliefs and practice, and the interpretivist aspect focuses on the interpretive process of teachers’ understanding of the context. The addition of an interpretivist perspective to CST supports the idea that understanding teachers’ beliefs and classroom practices relies heavily on an understanding of teachers’ intentions and their interpretation of the contexts in which they are involved in.

While the model of teachers’ complex belief systems successfully illustrates the complexity, dynamic interactions, co-adaption, and openness of beliefs, it does not explain how beliefs, prior to being part of an interactive system which interacts with contextual factors and classroom practices, were formed. That is, based on Zheng’s model, we know that teachers’ sets of beliefs interact with each other, as well as with their classroom practices and contextual factors. What the model does not show explicitly is how teachers’ beliefs are formed. Therefore, the model can benefit from the addition of another layer that illustrates the sources of teachers’ beliefs, which can explain why different teachers hold similar or different beliefs about OCF. In other words, in the teachers’ complex belief system, they may hold a range of different beliefs that originate from several sources which can differ from one teacher to another. Thus, compared to the original model introduced in the Literature Review chapter (see Figure 2.2), there is an added layer in Figure 6.1.



**Figure 6. 1 Teachers' complex belief systems (Adapted from Zheng, 2015)**

This added layer is referred to as 'beliefs sources' and has been positioned above teachers' set of beliefs in the figure to indicate that at any point in time, teachers hold a set of beliefs that are regularly being shaped as a result of various sources. The application of this added layer to teachers' belief system can explain why teachers within the same instructional context may hold different beliefs about aspects of OCF. That is, it illustrates that each individual teacher is unique in that the teacher holds a certain set of beliefs that have been shaped through various sources such as teaching experience, language learning experience, personality, teacher training programmes, and research education background.

The discussion of the sources of teachers' beliefs is not completely innovative since some studies (D. Freeman, 2002; Johnson, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2007; Richardson, 1996) have referred to a number of teacher belief sources. My findings aligned with findings of these studies

in that teachers' OCF beliefs can originate from their teaching experience, personalities, own language learning experience, teacher training programmes, and personal research background. Nonetheless, I argued that the degree to which each teacher's belief system is influenced by these sources can be different. That is, one teacher's beliefs about OCF may have been shaped more through teacher training courses than another teacher's beliefs who might have had extensive research on error correction, and thus formed more beliefs as a result of the research education. This was evidenced in my finding that while some Iranian teachers only acknowledged the effect of teacher training courses on their OCF beliefs, the NZ teachers attributed most of their beliefs to their teacher training course. This means that the same source of belief (i.e. teacher training course) affected Iranian and NZ teachers to different extents.

Overall, my study found evidence that Zheng's model can be applied to OCF research to capture the complexity of teachers' beliefs systems and the interconnectedness of teachers' beliefs, practices, and contexts. It also showed that the model can be further developed by the addition of a new layer that highlights the openness of teachers' beliefs system and the influence of difference sources on shaping teachers' held beliefs.

#### **6.3.2.2 Presenting a more comprehensive picture of the impact of various contextual factors on teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the relationship between the two**

As previously discussed, my findings showed that teachers' OCF beliefs, error correction practices, and the relationship between their beliefs and practices can vary from one teacher to another. The variations amongst teachers were observed on two levels; across and within a single instructional context, both of which are discussed below.

First, teachers across different instructional contexts can hold varying OCF beliefs, provide OCF differently, and differ in the extent to which their beliefs and practices align. For example, my findings revealed that in comparison to the NZ ESL teachers, the Iranian EFL teachers held stronger beliefs about OCF (see Section 4.1), provided noticeably more error correction in response to oral errors (see Section 4.2), and had less alignment between their belief and practices

(see Section 4.3). The considerable differences between teachers from the two instructional contexts signify the strong influence of contexts.

As previously mentioned, teachers' beliefs and practices are constantly interacting with factors related to three levels of context (i.e. macro-, exo-, and micro-context) (Zheng, 2015). The EFL and ESL instructional contexts in which Iranian and NZ teacher are situated in can differ considerably on these three levels of context. On the macro-context level, the educational system in these two countries, as well as the opportunity of being exposed to English in the environment (for the ESL context) or lack of exposure to English (for the EFL context), and the pressure of examinations can affect teachers' held beliefs about OCF. On the exo-context level, factors such as the schools' teaching approaches, training programmes, and schools' expectations can influence what teachers believe about OCF. Finally, on the micro-context level, Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers are likely to differ in factors relating to teachers, learners, and classroom contexts. Because of the variations in the contextual factors (at all three levels of context) of Iran (EFL) and NZ (ESL), and due to their interconnectedness with beliefs and practices, it is expected that teachers across two instructional contexts differ with regards to their OCF beliefs, practices, and the link between their beliefs and practices.

Second, teachers within each instructional context and even from the same language school can differ with regards to aspects of their OCF beliefs, practices, and the link between their beliefs and practices. As my findings showed, within each of the two instructional contexts, there were differences observed amongst the five teachers with regards to their OCF beliefs (see Section 4.1) and practices (see Section 4.2). This also highlights the influence of contexts, and given that the five teachers in each instructional context were chosen from the same language school, their exo-contexts (i.e. related to school context) were similar, and the five teachers differed only with regards to their micro-contexts (i.e. related to classroom context). As previously mentioned and illustrated in Figure 6.2, micro-context refers to the interaction of three main factors; teacher-, learners-, and classroom-related factors. This means that the micro-context in which each teacher is situated in is unique and can differ from one teacher to another. That is, as was the case in my

study, each of the five Iranian and five NZ teachers were different in factors relating to the teacher (e.g. teacher's beliefs, knowledge, workload, preparation, relationship with learners), the learners (e.g. learners' proficiency levels, needs, and expectations, learners' individual differences), and the classroom itself (e.g. class size, setting and time, text book, and task focus).

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<b>Teacher-related factors</b>
Teachers' beliefs
Teacher's knowledge
Teacher's preferences
Teacher's convenience
Teachers' workload
Teacher-student relationship

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<b>Learners-related factors</b>
Learners' response
Learners' language level
Learners' language needs
Learners' expectations
Learners' workload
Individual differences

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<b>Classroom-related factors</b>
Text books
Teaching resources
Task type
Task objective
Class size
Class time
Classroom layout

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**Figure 6. 2 Micro-context factors related to an individual teacher (Adapted from Zheng, 2015)**

Since each teacher experiences a potentially different micro-context, it is likely that the teacher also forms different OCF beliefs, and based on those beliefs, the teacher may also perform in a certain way that can differ from other teachers within the same school. This is because of the openness, co-adaption, and non-linearity of teachers' belief systems and interconnectedness of dimension of the beliefs system (beliefs, practices, and contexts). That is, any change in one of

these dimensions (i.e. beliefs practices, contexts) can lead to changes in the other two. Thus, the differences in the micro-context factors, and their simultaneous and complex interactions with each other can result in variations in each teacher's OCF beliefs, classroom practices, and the link between the two.

Overall, my study emphasises the importance of considering the role of contexts and the interactions that exist between various contextual factors with the teachers' beliefs and practices both across and within a single instructional context.

### **6.3.2.3 Deepening our understanding of the alignment between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices**

As indicated in the Literature Review chapter, teachers' beliefs and classroom practices may not always align. My findings showed that while there were limited areas of alignment between Iranian and NZ teachers' beliefs and OCF practices (e.g. the correction of oral errors), there were more areas of non-alignment (e.g. teachers' beliefs and practices regarding who should correct errors, the explicitness and timing of OCF, and which oral errors to correct). According to CST, there is connection and interaction between the different dimensions of teachers' complex belief system (Zheng, 2015). If teachers' interpretation of the different contextual factors in which they are placed in is consistent with their held beliefs, the teachers are likely to adopt practices that are in line with both the context and their beliefs. For instance, in my study, if the Iranian teachers interpreted the contexts of their schools, classes, and learners as being supportive of error correction, they were likely to adopt a more attentive approach to OCF which had been a belief that most of the Iranian teachers had expressed.

Also, teachers' belief systems are a network of different beliefs which means that more than one belief can underpin a certain classroom practice (Zheng, 2015). If these different sets of teachers' beliefs are compatible with each other and have no tension between them, they are likely to be reflected onto practices (Zheng, 2015). It may also be that teachers gave different priority to the different beliefs they held and acted based on the beliefs that they considered more important in fulfilling their pedagogical and interpersonal goals (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). For example, if the

teachers' sets of beliefs about the source of OCF is compatible with their core beliefs about error correction, they are mirrored in the teachers' practices.

In my study, I found that while all five Iranian teachers expressed support for self-correction, in practice they mainly opted for teacher correction. The stimulated recall interview with the Iranian teachers showed that while they still believed that self-correction (i.e. their peripheral belief) is very effective, they also believed that it is the teacher's responsibility to correct oral errors and that OCF is a proxy of teachers' conscientiousness (i.e. their core belief). This is evidence for the theoretical stance of CST stating that teachers may hold core and peripheral beliefs that if compatible, can result in consistent practices, and if not, can lead to non-alignment between beliefs and practices. In other words, because teachers' beliefs and practices are context bound (Borg, 2006; D. L. Freeman & Cameron, 2008; Zheng, 2015), they can be aligned, and at times non-aligned. This could also imply that because of the complex nature of teachers' beliefs and their oral error correction practices, various teacher, learner, and context-related factors interact simultaneously (e.g. Bitchener & Storch, 2016; Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

However, my study along with some previous studies (e.g. Basturkmen, 2012; Farrell, 2013), found that more experienced teachers are more likely to have more alignment between their beliefs and practices than less experienced teachers do. According to the CST, experienced teachers may have more knowledge and understanding of contextual factors that may allow them to make it part of their mental realities (Zheng, 2015) or their beliefs, and thus apply them to practice.

### **6.3.3 Contributions to pedagogy**

My study has implications for both teachers and teacher educators, both of which are explained in this section.

#### **6.3.3.1 Recommendations for language teachers**

Several recommendations for teachers' OCF practices can be drawn from my study:



### *1) Constant reflection on OCF beliefs*

Teachers would do well to constantly reflect on their OCF beliefs to increase their awareness of their implicitly held beliefs. My findings showed that teachers may hold a set of incompatible beliefs about OCF. Also, some of the teachers' beliefs may even be held implicitly which means that teachers may not be consciously aware of them. Therefore, it would seem important for teachers to constantly look back and reflect on their beliefs about OCF, and in case they hold negative beliefs or attitudes about OCF, it is important for them to consciously attempt to change their negative beliefs. This can allow them to be more supportive of error correction in classrooms and be more successful in providing effective OCF. This is important because we know that error correction is not only proven to assist L2 development (S. Li, 2018), but it is also what learners expect from teachers (S. Li, 2017).

### *2) Increase their knowledge of factors related to oral error correction*

My study found that teachers' beliefs systems are significantly complex, interconnected, and dynamic, as well as constantly open to receiving new information. This complex belief system will lead teachers to make complex and spontaneous classroom decisions that can directly affect learners' learning outcomes. For teachers to succeed in language teaching and in error correction in particular, they would do well to use a wide range of error correction techniques on different error types. As my findings showed, both Iranian and NZ teachers used a wide range of OCF types to deal with different error types in complex teaching situations. Nonetheless, because of the spontaneous nature of oral errors, the complexity of teachers' belief systems (Zheng, 2015), and the unpredictability of teachers' classroom CF practices (Bitchener & Storch, 2016), it is important for teachers to increase their knowledge of their learners' personalities, needs, and expectations, the different types of oral errors, the error correction techniques that are most effective for each type of error, as well as the contextual factors (e.g. task type and classroom size) that can influence their OCF practices. This can be done by attending professional development sessions on error correction techniques, having discussions with fellow teachers on the best ways to correct oral errors, and reading related books.

### *3) Teachers would do well to be open to experimenting with different OCF techniques*

Given the interconnectedness of teachers' beliefs, context, and practices (Zheng, 2015), it would seem important for teachers to recognise the extent to which they are able to apply their OCF beliefs into classroom practices; that is, whether or not they are able to correct oral errors the way they think they should be corrected. Therefore, teachers would do well to consciously make changes to their beliefs or practices when needed to increase the overall effectiveness of their OCF practices. To do this, teachers can experiment with different OCF techniques that might even be counter to their held beliefs to determine if other OCF types are more effective than the ones they are using.

For example, if a teacher believes that correcting oral errors at the end of the task is more effective than the immediate correction of the error, the teacher can consciously attempt to correct errors as they occur to see what outcome it can have on learners. If through immediate OCF learners can repair their erroneous utterances more effectively, the teacher can reflect on this process and consciously make attempt to change the initial held belief. It is interesting that at the end of the stimulated recall interview, most of the teachers in my study told me that they have become more aware of their beliefs and OCF practices. They also stated that they would like to consciously change their OCF practices to see how other techniques and OCF types affect learners' L2 development. This is an indication of the effectiveness of increasing teachers' awareness of their beliefs and OCF practices.

#### **6.3.3.2 Recommendations for teacher educators**

The following is a list of recommendations for teacher educators which are drawn based on my findings:

- 1) Raise teachers' awareness of their held OCF beliefs, and the interconnectedness of their beliefs to their practices and contexts*

My findings revealed that teachers held OCF beliefs can influence their error correction classroom practices. Also, because teachers may simultaneously hold contrasting beliefs that can cause tensions and thus affect teachers' classroom practices, it would seem important for teacher

educators to increase teachers' awareness of their beliefs (both similar and contrasting beliefs), and the interconnectedness of those beliefs to their practices and contexts.

One way to do this is to help teachers reflect on their held beliefs by directly eliciting beliefs from them, indirectly engaging them in tasks that may inform them of their implicit held beliefs, or encouraging them to engage in conversations with fellow teachers on how they believe oral errors should be corrected. The advantage of this is that it can help teachers become more aware of how they believe oral errors should be corrected, and thus increase their awareness in classrooms as they engage in the correction of errors, and consciously make effort to use a wider range of OCF types that can be more effective given their specific classroom contexts.

*2) Conduct regular classroom observations to provide teachers with feedback and help develop their knowledge of their OCF practices*

The benefit of this is that it helps teachers become more aware of not only how they correct oral errors in classrooms, but also allows them to pay more attention to the relationship between their OCF practices, their beliefs, and context. Once teacher educators discuss with teachers the feedback from their classroom observations, the teachers can be further encouraged to reflect on their practices to recognise if they are correcting oral errors the way they think they should, and if not, what factors may be preventing them from doing so. In addition, teacher educators need to introduce all the necessary and different OCF types, oral errors, and error correction techniques into context, and encourage teachers to experiment with different OCF types and develop their own understanding of error correction.

More specifically, the teacher educators in the Iranian EFL context could develop teachers' knowledge of the different aspects of OCF by designing more comprehensive workshops that specifically inform teachers of techniques related to both oral and written CF. As all the five Iranian teachers in my study indicated, the one-day teacher training courses that they had attended had completely fell short of covering the different teaching techniques and had completely neglected error correction practices. While there may be more comprehensive and longer-term

teacher training courses in Iran, it is likely that some teachers, like the teachers in my study, only complete short (one or two day workshops) on language teaching which may not cover all required areas and techniques for oral error correction. Thus, given the importance of OCF in leading to L2 development (S. Li, 2017, 2018), there is a strong need for teacher educators in Iran to pay extra attention to developing teacher training programmes that include all the necessary information and techniques for OCF practices.

Also, the teacher educators in the NZ ESL context could focus specifically on OCF practices and equip teachers with the necessary techniques to correct oral errors. My findings showed that all five NZ teachers had taken part in more extensive and longer-term teacher training courses than the Iranian teachers did. However, the training courses had either not covered techniques for oral error correction, or had only limitedly introduced some techniques. In addition, similar to the Iranian EFL context, it is important that teacher educators help teachers become more aware of their held beliefs, and the relationship between beliefs, context, and practices.

## **6.4 Limitations of my study**

While my study has contributed to new knowledge of the area of OCF, there are some limitations in its scope and methodology, both of which are discussed below.

### **6.4.1 Scope limitations**

The first limitation of my study was that it focused specifically on teachers' stated beliefs. However, as others (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Zheng, 2013, 2015) have shown, it is useful to consider differences between stated beliefs and beliefs in practice. This could be seen as a limitation because teachers may hold a set of beliefs that may differ from their stated beliefs. This is because teachers may express varying beliefs during interviews (i.e. stated beliefs) and stimulated recall interviews (i.e. beliefs underpinning their practices) which may not always align with each other. As professed/stated beliefs and beliefs in practices can have different effects on teachers' classroom practices (Zheng, 2015), it will be important going forward to explore both types of beliefs.

Also, as indicated by Zheng (2015), teachers' beliefs systems can consist of a set of beliefs which can be categorised into core vs. peripheral, implicit vs. explicit, and compatible vs. incompatible beliefs. Thus, when exploring teachers' beliefs about any language teaching phenomenon (like OCF), it is important to assess the different sets of teachers' beliefs and not just their stated beliefs. Informed by this, future research can specifically explore and differentiate the different sets of teachers' OCF beliefs and determine how they may relate to one another and inform different classroom practices.

A second limitation of my study was that it did not look closely into 'how' factors that may influence teachers' beliefs, their OCF practices, and the application of their held beliefs to classroom practices might interact simultaneously. The priority of my study was to focus on exploring and identifying individual factors that can affect teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and their alignment. For example, I found that teaching experience and instructional context can affect teachers' held OCF beliefs. As for error correction practices, my findings showed that factors such as beliefs, instructional context, teaching experience, NS/NNS statuses, and learners' proficiency levels may have a moderating effect. Finally, with regards to the relationship between teachers' OCF beliefs and practices, teaching experience and instructional factors were amongst the identified possible factors that may have a mediating effect. However, in interpreting my results, I argued that it is likely that a combination of individual, independent, and non-linear factors interact simultaneously and affect beliefs, practices, and the link between the two. This would be an important area to consider for future research.

Third, the scope of my study was limited specifically to teachers' OCF practices in that it only described the observations of teachers' OCF practices in terms of extent, explicitness, correction of error types, source of OCF, and the timing of OCF. Another area that could be considered for investigation is the effectiveness of teachers' OCF practices on learners' language outcomes. Previous studies (e.g. Fu & Nassaji, 2016) that have explored the effect of teachers' OCF beliefs and practices on learners' uptake have provided valuable insight. If teachers are informed about how their OCF practices are assisting or hindering learners' L2 development, it may increase their

awareness of their practices and the beliefs underpinning those practices. Consequently, it may reinforce their effective views and OCF techniques and weaken their ineffective OCF beliefs and practices. Thus, in the future, researchers can contribute to the field of OCF by looking at this aspect.

A fourth limitation relates to the fact that it was confined to specific contexts of my research - a multiple-case study - which meant it was limited to a small number of Iranian and NZ participants. These participants were chosen specifically from two language schools in two countries that promoted a communicative language teaching approach, and with teachers at only intermediate and/or upper-intermediate level classes. This was done to allow more teacher-learner interactions to occur in the classrooms. While the use of ten teacher participants allowed for a detailed comparison to be made between teachers both within a single and across instructional contexts, future research can benefit by exploring a larger group of participants which may allow for more generalised findings.

#### **6.4.2 Methodological limitations**

My study also has some methodological limitations. First, the stimulated recall only allowed for the collection of data on limited aspects of teachers' beliefs. Stimulated recall interviews have previously provided helpful insights into teachers' beliefs and classroom practices (e.g. Borg, 2006; Zheng, 2013). In my study, the stimulated recall interviews enabled the teachers to reflect on their OCF practices, elaborate on their beliefs, and limitedly identify areas of non-alignment between their beliefs and practices. However, there was limited time available to comprehensively investigate the mediating factors that prevented them from applying their beliefs into practices. In retrospect, a more comprehensive picture could have been painted of the relationship between teachers' beliefs, practices, and the interaction of the mediating factors if I had allocated more time and aimed specifically to ask teachers to further explain why some of their OCF practices did not align with their stated beliefs. Therefore, this is an area that needs to be considered by future researchers.

Second, the analysis of data from the classroom observations showed noticeable differences in OCF practices between the teachers both within and across instructional contexts. However, a limitation identified here, and as indicated in the Discussion chapter (see Section 5.2.1), is that these differences may be due to the variation in tasks given to the individual classes. While teachers in my study were selected specifically from language schools and classrooms that yielded many areas of similarities, there were still numerous contextual factors that had not been controlled and which could have greatly affected my findings. Evidence suggests that differences in tasks can lead to different OCF beliefs and practices (e.g. Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017; Roothoof & Breeze, 2016; Wang et al., 2018). Therefore, it is important that future studies overcome this limitation by ensuring that classroom tasks are controlled across the different contexts that are under investigation.

These limitations highlight a number of areas that can be considered for future research, as explained in the next section.

## **6.5 Directions for future research**

Four areas can be identified for future research. First, it is important that future research conducts similar studies in different contexts with different participants. This is because while there may be some similarities found in other EFL and ESL contexts in comparison to my findings, it is likely that because of the various contextual factors involved in each context, there may also be some notable areas of differences. Thus, future comparative and replicative studies can be designed to further explore the effect of instructional contexts with other participants.

A second direction for future research, which is in line with suggestions from other researchers (e.g. Bitchener & Storch, 2016), relates to factors that influence beliefs, practices and their application in the classroom, and how these may interact simultaneously in a complex and non-linear way. Future investigation specifically examining ‘how’ these factors interact simultaneously, and the extent to which these interactions can moderate teachers’ OCF beliefs and practices would be useful. This can help researchers better understand why teachers hold

certain OCF beliefs, the reasons for which they differ noticeably in how they correct oral errors, and the explanations for why their beliefs and practices may not always align.

A third direction for future research could be the exploration of teachers' OCF beliefs that go beyond those which are stated. It is likely that there may be differences between teachers' stated beliefs and other held beliefs (e.g. beliefs in practice, core beliefs, and implicitly held beliefs). It may also be important to explore the relationship between different sets of teachers' beliefs and the relationship between those differently held beliefs and teachers' actual OCF classroom practices. This can allow researchers to identify areas of similarities/differences between different sets of teachers' OCF beliefs, as well as to determine areas of potential tension between the beliefs.

A final direction for future research that has been identified, is to explore the role of contexts by looking at teachers within and across two instructional contexts regarding their OCF beliefs, oral error correction practices, and the link between the two. Thus, it will be important going forward that future studies investigate the extent to which different levels of contexts (macro-, exo- and micro-contexts) affect teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the relationship between them. Also, by selecting the five teachers within each instructional context from the same language school, my study only explored the effects of macro-and micro-contexts on aspects of OCF. Therefore, given the importance of context in shaping OCF beliefs and practices, it is recommended that future researchers also investigate the role of exo-context by selecting participants from different language schools within each instructional context. This can allow researchers to paint a more comprehensive picture of the role of all three levels of macro-, exo, and micro-contexts on teachers' OCF beliefs, practices, and the link between them.

## **6.6 Final remark**

I began this PhD journey because I was confused by the considerable differences in how teachers approached oral errors in classrooms. My teaching experience and many observations of different language classrooms in Iran and NZ had allowed me to see first-hand the clear differences



between Iranian EFL and NZ ESL teachers' correction of oral errors. Because of my interest, I had engaged with different teachers and had asked them about why they were correcting errors the way they were and what may be the best way to correct oral errors. Our discussions had made me realise that teachers expressed a range of different opinions about how errors should be corrected. I understood that beliefs may affect how teachers perform in classrooms, but to explore whether or not and the extent to which different teachers' beliefs affected their OCF practices, I chose to specifically explore this area. Another reason for conducting this study was that these two specific contexts had not been explored and compared before, and I believed that insights into these two contexts regarding OCF could help English teachers in both contexts become more aware of providing OCF more effectively.

Having finished this research project and having talked to different English teachers in Iran and NZ, and observed hours of their error correction practices, I now know how complex and interconnected teachers' beliefs and practices are. Looking at two different instructional contexts allowed me to better explore the interconnectedness of beliefs, practices, and contexts. I believe that my research has made a worthwhile contribution from the point of view of informing of teachers of their OCF beliefs, practices, and factors that can affect what they believe and what they do, which can ultimately increase the effectiveness of their OCF practices. I would like to see, moving forward, further researchers conduct similar studies on other aspects of teachers' OCF practices and the underlying beliefs of those practices, with the aim to help teachers increase their knowledge of OCF techniques, and teacher educators to design more comprehensive teacher training programmes to provide corrective feedback practices more effectively.

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# Appendices

## Appendix A: Ethics Approval



### AUTEC Secretariat

Auckland University of Technology  
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28 June 2016

John Bitchener  
Faculty of Culture and Society

Dear John

Re Ethics Application: **16/200 A comparison of Iran's EFL and New Zealand teachers' beliefs and classroom practices in providing interactional feedback**

Thank you for providing evidence as requested, which satisfies the points raised by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC).

Your ethics application has been approved for three years until 28 June 2019.

Please note that the letter to the language schools needs to be amended to reflect the revised recruitment protocol.

As part of the ethics approval process, you are required to submit the following to AUTEC:

- A brief annual progress report using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. When necessary this form may also be used to request an extension of the approval at least one month prior to its expiry on 28 June 2019;
- A brief report on the status of the project using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>. This report is to be submitted either when the approval expires on 28 June 2019 or on completion of the project.

It is a condition of approval that AUTEC is notified of any adverse events or if the research does not commence. AUTEC approval needs to be sought for any alteration to the research, including any alteration of or addition to any documents that are provided to participants. You are responsible for ensuring that research undertaken under this approval occurs within the parameters outlined in the approved application.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval from an institution or organisation for your research, then you will need to obtain this. If your research is undertaken within a jurisdiction outside New Zealand, you will need to make the arrangements necessary to meet the legal and ethical requirements that apply there.

To enable us to provide you with efficient service, please use the application number and study title in all correspondence with us. If you have any enquiries about this application, or anything else, please do contact us at [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz).

All the very best with your research,



Kate O'Connor  
Executive Secretary  
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: [tadayyon\\_maedeh@hotmail.com](mailto:tadayyon_maedeh@hotmail.com)

## Appendix B: Participant Information Sheet



Appendix A— Information Sheet

AUT

TE WĀNANGA ARONUI  
O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

### Participant Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:

11/05/2016

Project Title

A Comparison of Iran's EFL and New Zealand's ESL Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices in Providing Interactional Feedback

An Invitation

My name is Maedeh Tadayyon. I am a PhD Candidate at Auckland University of Technology. I am inviting you to participate in my research programme which will form the basis of a PhD thesis. I am comparing Iranian and New Zealand English language teachers' beliefs on interactional feedback (i.e. teachers' feedback on learners' oral errors) and the teachers' actual classroom practices. I am interested in knowing how similar/different English language teachers from the two countries are in terms of their beliefs and classroom behaviour. I would like to learn from you about your ideas and beliefs about interactional feedback and to see how you put those beliefs into practice. Your participation will be to share your beliefs and allow me to observe two sessions of your classroom teaching only as a non-participant observer. Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time.

What is the purpose of this research?

This research project aims to investigate how English language teachers from the two instructional settings of New Zealand and Iran (a) think about, and (b) practise interactional feedback. In particular, the purpose of this study is three-fold: (1) to investigate Iranian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) and New Zealand ESL (English as a second language) teachers' beliefs about interactional feedback and their actual classroom practices to see if there is any kind of mismatch between beliefs and practices; (2) to determine how similar/different the EFL and ESL teachers are with regard to teacher belief on interactional feedback and its practice; and (3) to understand the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices on interactional feedback and the effect of such relationship on learners' language output. The results of this project will be written up in the form of a PhD thesis and may also be presented to conferences and published in journals which discuss English language learning issues. Your identity will always be kept confidential.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?

You have been approached because you are an English language teacher in New Zealand or Iran. You have been approached by the head of your school as a potential participant, but you are in no way obligated to participate. You can withdraw from the research up to the end of data collection. If you agree to participate in this research project, please contact me through my email address which is provided in this information sheet.

What will happen in this research?

This research project will include the following stages:

- 1) General background questionnaire
- 2) Two classroom observations

### 3) Initial interview

### 4) Second interview

Your participation in the research project will start with a background information questionnaire which will ask you about your teaching experiences, beliefs about language teaching, and information about your current class which will take about 20 minutes of your time. The next stage of the project will involve two observations of your classroom teachings. This will involve two classroom session periods (i.e. about 90 minutes for each session). The classroom observations will be video recorded and transcribed by me, and then returned to you for 'member-checking'. If you are not happy with anything in the written transcriptions, it can be removed. At this stage, you can decide that you do not want to participate in the research and your interview will not be used.

The second stage of the project will involve your participation in an initial interview in a venue of your choice. This interview will ask you about your beliefs on interactional feedback. This interview will take 60 minutes of your time. The initial interview will be audio recorded and transcribed by me, and then returned to you for 'member-checking'. If you are not happy with anything in the written transcriptions, it can be removed. At this stage, you can decide that you do not want to participate in the research and your interview will not be used.

The third and final stage of the project will involve your participation in a second interview which will take place shortly after the initial interview (up to 48 hours after). During this interview, you will be shown recordings of your classroom teaching and will be asked to comment on them. The aim is to assess your thoughts on your classroom teaching. I anticipate that this will take about 60 minutes of your time. The second interview will be audio recorded and transcribed by me, and then returned to you for 'member-checking'. If you are not happy with anything in the written transcriptions, it can be removed. At this stage, you can decide that you do not want to participate in the research and your interview will not be used.

#### **What are the discomforts and risks?**

You might feel uncomfortable sharing your personal beliefs and being observed and recorded during your classroom teaching. I would like to point out that this research project is only concerned with comparing teachers of New Zealand and Iran and to present a description of how language teachers from both countries view interactional feedback, how they perform it in their classrooms and how this may affect learners' language output. I wish to focus on the patterns and trends that emerge from the interviews rather than making any personal judgements. During the observations, I will only be present in your classroom as a non-participant observer, and the recordings will be used only for the purpose of this research.

#### **How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?**

To maintain your confidentiality, there will be no mentioning of your name, students' names, your school's name and you may choose a pseudo name of your choice. I will keep all your information confidential. However, if you happen to experience any discomfort please consult the head of your school.

#### **What are the benefits?**

If you agree to take part in this research project, you will be helping me to find out more about how interactional feedback is viewed and practised by English language teachers in New Zealand and Iran. Generally, it can be significant to English teachers of both EFL and ESL contexts, as it attempts to determine how their perceptions and beliefs may affect their actual classroom practices and learners' language output. I also hope to publish the research findings of this study in language journals.

#### How will my privacy be protected?

All the data collected from you will be kept on a memory stick and the transcriptions as a hard copy will be in a locked cabinet in my office (AUT, WT1105C). You will be identified in the research by a pseudo name of your choice.

#### What are the costs of participating in this research?

The research will involve your time. In total, outside my observation of 2 of your classes, you will be asked to use approximately 140 minutes of your time, spread across a short questionnaire and 2 interviews that will take place over two weeks.

#### What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?

Please let me know if you are willing to participate in the research project within 1 week of receiving the invitation.

#### How do I agree to participate in this research?

I will send you a consent form prior to the interview.

#### Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

Yes. A summary of the research findings will be given to all participants who indicate their interest on the Consent Form. Moreover, any journal articles published will also be forwarded to you.

#### What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, Prof. John Bitchener, [jbitchen@aut.ac.nz](mailto:jbitchen@aut.ac.nz), 0064 21 474 610.

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTECH, Kate O'Connor, [ethics@aut.ac.nz](mailto:ethics@aut.ac.nz), 921 9999 ext. 6038.

#### Whom do I contact for further information about this research?

Please keep this Information Sheet and a copy of the Consent Form for your future reference. You are also able to contact the research team as follows:

#### RESEARCHER CONTACT DETAILS:

Maedeh Tadayyon

[tadayyon\\_maedeh@hotmail.com](mailto:tadayyon_maedeh@hotmail.com)

Contact number in New Zealand 00642108 796 599, in Iran 00989133087947

#### PROJECT SUPERVISOR CONTACT DETAILS:

Prof. John Bitchener,  
Faculty of Culture and Society  
AUT University  
Phone: 0064 21 474 610  
Email: [jbitchen@aut.ac.nz](mailto:jbitchen@aut.ac.nz)

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *type the date final ethics approval was granted*,  
AUTECH Reference number *type the reference number*.



## Appendix C: Consent Form for Teachers (for interviews)

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### Appendix C– Consent Form for Teachers (for interviews)

## Consent Form

*Project title:* **A Comparison of Iran's EFL and New Zealand's ESL Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices in Providing OCF**

*Project Supervisor:* **Prof. John Bitchener**

*Researcher:* **Maedeh Tadayyon**

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 11/05/2016.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that notes will be taken during the interviews and that they will also be audio-taped and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw myself at any time, and I may withdraw the information/data I have provided for this project at any time prior to the commencement of data analysis, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If I withdraw prior to the commencement of data analysis, I understand that all relevant information including tapes and transcripts, or parts thereof, will be destroyed.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.
- ☐ I wish to receive a copy of the report from the research (please tick one):      Yes ☐      No ☐

Participant's signature: .....

Participant's name: .....

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....  
.....  
.....  
.....

Date:

**Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *type the date on which the final approval was granted* AUTEK Reference number *type the AUTEK reference number***

*Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.*



## Appendix D: Consent Form for Teachers (for video recording)

Please do not  
staple your  
application

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O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

**Appendix D**– Consent Form for Teachers (for video recording)

# Consent and Release Form

*Project title:* **A Comparison of Iran's EFL and New Zealand's ESL Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices in Providing OCF**

*Project Supervisor:* **Prof. John Bitchener**

*Researcher:* **Maedeh Tadayyon**

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 11/05/2016.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw myself at any time, and I may withdraw my image, or any other information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to the commencement of data analysis, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If I withdraw prior to the commencement of data analysis, I understand that all relevant information and video recordings will be destroyed.
- ☐ I permit the researcher to use the classroom video recordings that are part of this project, either complete or in part, alone or in conjunction with any wording and/or drawings solely and exclusively for solely the purpose of the research's purposes.
- ☐ I understand that the video recordings will be used for academic purposes only and will not be used in any form outside of this project without my written permission.
- ☐ I understand that any copyright material created by the video recording sessions is deemed to be owned by the researcher and that I do not own copyright of the video recording.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.

Participant's signature: .....

.....

Participant's name: .....

.....

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....

.....

.....

.....

Date:

**Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *type the date on which the final approval was granted* AUTEK Reference number *type the AUTEK reference number***

*Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.*

## Appendix E: Consent Form for Students (for video recording)

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Appendix E- Consent Form for Students (for video recording)

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# Consent and Release Form

*Project title:* **A Comparison of Iran's EFL and New Zealand's ESL Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices in Providing OCF**

*Project Supervisor:* **Prof. John Bitchener**

*Researcher:* **Maedeh Tadayyon**

- ☐ I have read and understood the information provided about this research project in the Information Sheet dated 11/05/2016.
- ☐ I have had an opportunity to ask questions and to have them answered.
- ☐ I understand that I may withdraw myself at any time, and I may withdraw my image, or any other information that I have provided for this project at any time prior to the commencement of data analysis, without being disadvantaged in any way.
- ☐ If I withdraw prior to the commencement of data analysis, I understand that information and video recordings related to me will be destroyed.
- ☐ I understand that if I withdraw from being observed and recorded, I will be assigned to do outside of the classroom activities.
- ☐ I permit the researcher to use the classroom video recordings that are part of this project, either complete or in part, alone or in conjunction with any wording and/or drawings solely and exclusively for solely the purpose of the research's purposes.
- ☐ I understand that the video recordings will be used for academic purposes only and will not be used in any form outside of this project without my written permission.
- ☐ I understand that any copyright material created by the video recording sessions is deemed to be owned by the researcher and that I do not own copyright of the video recording.
- ☐ I understand that there will be no reference to my name and/or identity in the research project.
- ☐ I agree to take part in this research.

Participant's signature: .....

.....

Participant's name: .....

.....

Participant's Contact Details (if appropriate):

.....

.....

.....

.....

Date:

**Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on *type the date on which the final approval was granted* AUTEK Reference number *type the AUTEK reference number***

*Note: The Participant should retain a copy of this form.*

## Appendix F: Letter to Head of Language School (NZ)

Please do not  
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O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

### Appendix F- Letters to Heads of Language Schools

Dear .....,

My name is Maedeh Tadayyon and I am a PhD Candidate at Auckland University of Technology. I am conducting a PhD research project which investigates Iranian and New Zealand English language teachers' beliefs and classroom practices on OCF. I am interested in knowing how the two countries compare in terms of English language teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. In order to collect data for my research, I would need your permission to gather data from five volunteer English language teachers from your school. The study will involve the following stages:

1. Background Information Questionnaire
2. Two Classroom Observations
3. Initial Interview
4. Second Interview

The five volunteer English language teachers will initially be invited to fill in a general background information questionnaire which will take them about 20 minutes. The participants will then be observed for two classroom session periods (i.e. about 90 minutes for each session). The classroom observations will be video recorded and transcribed by me, and then returned to the participants for 'member-checking'. If the teachers are unhappy with any part of the written transcriptions, it will be removed. Then, the participants will be invited to an initial interview and will be asked about their beliefs on the effectiveness of OCF. Finally, the participants will be invited to a second interview during which they will be shown recordings of their classroom interaction and will be asked to comment on them. The aim is to assess their thoughts on their classroom teaching. The interviews which will take about 60 minutes will be audio recorded and transcribed by me and returned to the participants for checking. The participants can withdraw from the research project at any time, and given that they withdraw prior to the commencement of data analysis, their collected data will also be completely removed from the study.

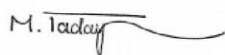
As the initial step of the study involves inviting potential participants, I would be much obliged if you could kindly suggest a contact list of English language teachers from your school.

Your valuable support would give me the opportunity to advance my research. I am most grateful for your time and support.

I look forward to your favourable reply. My contact details are: Email: [tadayyon\\_maedeh@hotmail.com](mailto:tadayyon_maedeh@hotmail.com), Mobile: 02108796599

Thank you.

Yours sincerely,



Maedeh Tadayyon

PhD Candidate AUT

## Appendix G: Letter to Head of Language School (Iran)

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O TĀMAKI MAKĀU RAU

### Appendix G- Letters to Heads of Language Schools

با سلام

اینجانب مائده تدین دانشجوی مقطع دکتری دانشگاهی صنعتی اوکلند می باشم. موضوع پژوهش اینجانب مقایسه ی تدریس زبان انگلیسی توسط دبیران زبان نیوزیلند و ایران است. در راستای جمع آوری داده ی مورد نظر برای تحقیق، از جنابعالی تقاضا نمودم اجازه نمایید از پنج نفر از دبیران آموزشگاه شما دعوت به همکاری بنمایم.

مراحل تحقیق به شرح زیر است:

یک. پرسشنامه ی اطلاعات شخصی

دو. مشاهده ی تدریس تعداد دو کلاس هر دبیر

سه. مصاحبه ی اول

چهار. مصاحبه ی دوم

پنج دبیر مدعو زبان ابتدا پرسشنامه ای را که شامل سوالاتی در مورد سابقه ی تدریس می باشد را در بیست دقیقه پر می نمایند. سپس دبیران مدعو هر کدام دو بار در طی تدریس خود در کلاس توسط محقق مشاهده می شوند. متن گفتگوی کلاس ها توسط محقق نوشته و با دبیران جهت تایید صحت آن بررسی خواهد شد. بخش هایی از متن که مورد تایید دبیران نباشد به طور کامل حذف خواهند شد.

سپس دبیران جهت پاسخگویی به سوالاتی در مورد باورهایشان بر روی فیدبک مشارکتی به مصاحبه ی اولی دعوت می شوند. در نهایت دبیران به مصاحبه ی دومی دعوت می شوند که طی آن قسمت هایی از تدریس خود را مشاهده کرده و در مورد آن نظر می دهند. متن گفتگوی کلاس ها توسط محقق نوشته و با دبیران جهت تایید صحت آن بررسی خواهد شد. بخش هایی از متن که مورد تایید دبیران نباشد به طور کامل حذف خواهند شد. هر مصاحبه یک ساعت زمان می برد. دبیران مدعو می توانند هر زمانی که تمایل دارند به طور کامل از ادامه ی تحقیق کناره گیری کنند و تمامی داده های مرتبط با آن ها نیز حذف خواهد شد.

در راستای اجرای تحقیق از جنابعالی خواستارم لیستی از دبیران مرکز زبان خود را به ایمیل بنده ارسال نمایید.

همراهی و همکاری جنابعالی تضمین کننده ی اجرای این تحقیق خواهد بود.

از محبت و حمایت جنابعالی بسیار ممنون و متشکرم

شماره ی تماس و ایمیل بنده به شرح زیر است:

[tadayyon\\_maedeh@hotmail.com](mailto:tadayyon_maedeh@hotmail.com)

(نیوزیلند) 006402108796599

(ایران) 00989133087947



## Appendix H: Heads of Language Schools Consent Form

Please do not  
staple your  
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Appendix H- Head of Language School Consent Form

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# Consent Form

Project title: **A Comparison of Iran's EFL and New Zealand's ESL Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices in Providing OCF**

Project Supervisor: **Prof. John Bitchener**

Researcher: **Maedeh Tadayyon**

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, have understood the nature of the research and why this language school has been selected. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- I agree that you may conduct your research in this language school.
- I agree that you may approach the teachers who are interested in participating in your research.
- I understand that your research will take approximately 140 minutes.
- I will provide / will not provide you with enough facilities such as a classroom, language lab, etc. to conduct your research.
- I wish / do not wish to receive the summary of findings in a way that does not identify its source.
- I understand that data will be kept for 6 years, after which they will be destroyed.
- I understand that participants are free to withdraw participation at any time.
- I confirm that language teachers' participation or non-participation will in no way influence their career status in their course nor their relationship with their colleagues or the school.

Name:

Signature:

Date:

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on  
Reference number

,AUTECH

## Appendix I: Background Information Questionnaire

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## Appendix I- Background Information Questionnaire

### Background Information Questions

This survey is part of a research project which aims to better understand the typical **beliefs** that English language teachers have about **providing feedback on learners' oral errors**. Please give your answers sincerely. Thank you very much for your help.

1. Please specify your age: (Tick one):  
 20-25 ☐      26-30 ☐      31-35 ☐      36-40 ☐      45-50 ☐      50+ ☐
2. What is your academic degree?  
 .....  
 .....
3. Do you have any TESOL/TEFOL certificates, diplomas, or teacher licenses? (Please specify)  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....
4. How long have you taught English? Please describe details, where and when?  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....  
 .....
5. How long have you been teaching at the current school?  
 .....  
 .....
6. Information about your current class:
- Level:  
 .....  
 .....
- |             |          |              |
|-------------|----------|--------------|
| Students'   | speaking | proficiency: |
| .....       |          |              |
| Number      | of       | students:    |
| .....       |          |              |
| Nationality | of       | students:    |
| .....       |          |              |
| .....       |          |              |

7. What motivated you to become an English language teacher?

.....

.....

.....

.....

8. How do you describe your style of teaching at this school?

.....

.....

.....

.....

9. What is your personal philosophy about what types of teaching are effective for learners?

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.....

10. Does the school you work for promote any particular philosophy and style of teaching? (Please specify)

.....

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Thank you for taking the time to respond

## Appendix J: Initial Interview (Elicitation Interview)

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### Appendix J- Initial Interview Protocol

These are indicative questions that will be given to participants prior to the interview to be asked

#### Interview Questions about Your Perceptions and Beliefs about Teacher Feedback

1. How do **you feel** when your students make oral errors?
2. Should learners' oral errors be **corrected**?
3. When you decide that an oral error should be corrected,
  - a. **Who** corrects it?
  - b. **When** is it corrected?
  - c. **How** is it corrected?
- d. Which type(s) of oral errors do you think need more correction?
4. How do you think **learners feel** when their errors are corrected?
5. What types of feedback do you **prefer** to use in your classrooms?
6. As a learner, how did your **school and/or university instructors** correct your and your classmates' oral errors?
7. How do you think your **schooling experience as a learner** has affected (a) your teaching style and (b) the types of feedback you provide to your learners?
8. During your **teacher training programme**, what were the most influential courses and experiences that have impacted your teaching, and how have they affected your error correction practices?
9. How have your beliefs about **language learning** influenced your feedback provision to learners?
10. How do you describe your personality? And how do you think your **personality** has affected your teaching style and how you correct errors?
11. Has your **teaching experience** throughout the years changed your beliefs on providing feedback to learners in any way? How?
12. What do you think are the main **sources of your beliefs** about error correction?
13. What is your perception of an ideal language teacher?

Do you have any questions for me?

Thank you again for your time and participation! I will send you the transcript of our today's interview for you to check the accuracy.



## Appendix K: Second Interview (Stimulated recall Interview)

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### Appendix K- Second Interview Protocol

These are indicative questions that will be asked in the second interview (i.e. stimulated recall interview), will be added to if further detail is required:

#### Second Interview Questions (Stimulated Recall Interview)

1. As you watch, think about what was happening at that time. Try to remember what you were thinking at that time and how you wanted or expected the learner(s) to react.
2. Can you tell me what you were thinking during this activity here?
3. What were you thinking when you provided this particular type of feedback to the learner?
4. What factor(s) may have caused you to provide feedback the way you did?
5. Looking at how you provided feedback at this moment, if you could go back, would you provide the same type of feedback you initially provided or would you use another type of feedback to deal with the learner's errors? Why?
6. Looking back at what happened during the classroom session which I observed, what do you think about the effectiveness of the types of feedback you provided?
7. What do you think about the effectiveness of your feedback in terms of learners' language development? How do you think learners could have benefited more from the feedback you provided?

Do you have any questions for me?

Thank you again for your time and participation. I will send you the transcript of our today's interview for you to check the accuracy.

## Appendix L: Classroom Observation Sheets

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### Appendix L- Classroom Observation Sheets

#### Classroom Observation Checklist

Type of Oral Error	Teacher's Correction Strategy	Learner's Reaction	What happened Next
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

School: \_\_\_\_\_

Time: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of Observations: /2

The objectives of the lesson:

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M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			
M P L S			

**\*M:** Morpho-syntactic, **P:** Phonological, **L:** Lexical, **S:** Semantic

tmp

This version was last edited in January 2016

**Researcher's Reflection on:**

Teacher's attitude towards learners' oral errors	
Learners' attitudes towards teacher's feedback	
The effectiveness of teacher's feedback	

## Reflections on the classroom lesson:

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## Reflection on the teachers' feedback on learners' oral errors:

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