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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AHS	Allgemeinbildende Höhere Schule
CF	Corrective feedback
BHS	Berufsbildende Höhere Schule
BMS	Berufsbildende Mittlere Schule
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
FL	Foreign language
FLA	First language acquisition
HAK	Handelsakademie
HLW	Höhere Lehranstalt für wirtschaftliche Berufe
LSR	Landesschulrat
NMS	Neue Mittelschule
L1	First language
L2	Second language
SLA	Second language acquisition
TL	Target language

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1. INTRODUCTION

Acquiring a foreign language (FL) is a long as well as an intense process and poses numerous challenges for the learner. During this process one will undoubtedly make a great number of errors, which is not only natural and a vital part of language learning, but could even be regarded as desirable, considering the fact that one *can* learn from making mistakes. Including the modal verb *can* in the previous phrase appears crucial in order to highlight that learning from mistakes is not guaranteed but depends on certain conditions which have to be met. On the one hand, it could be argued that motivation and willingness on the part of the learner constitute some of the basic requirements for learning to take place. However, neither of the two will help the learner to learn from their mistakes if they are not aware of the fact that they have made a mistake. Therefore, a second person, who draws attention to the error, needs to be involved in this process. As far as the FL classroom is concerned, the FL teacher assumes the role of the second person to the largest extent. This process of intentionally drawing attention to the mistake in order for the student to advance has become known as corrective feedback (CF).

Over the last decades researchers have extensively dealt with corrective feedback, be it oral or written. As far as oral CF is concerned, which forms the theoretical basis for the thesis at hand, the question of whether errors should be corrected at all dominated researchers' interest for a long time. Then, after a considerable amount of empirical evidence had shown that oral CF, in fact, plays a crucial role in L2 learning, researchers' focus shifted to determining the most effective way of providing oral CF and, amongst others, the question of whether there is a mismatch between what students and teachers believe to be effective CF was raised. In this respect, an interesting questionnaire study was conducted by Roothooft and Breeze (2016). Investigating EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF, the researchers found that there is a mismatch regarding oral CF, the different CF types as well as with respect to students' affective responses to oral CF and teachers' perceptions. Unfortunately, as aptly stated by Amrhein and Nassaji (2010: 98) such incongruity between learners' and teachers' attitudes can be problematic since "in order for feedback to be effective, there needs to be an agreement between teachers and students".

Considering the relevance of the topic as well as the fact that the number of studies focusing on students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF is rather small, the present

thesis attempts to replicate Roothooft and Breeze's study with the aim of answering the following questions:

(1) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF and how well do they correspond?
(2) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards the different types of CF?
(3) How do EFL students claim to feel when they receive oral CF and how do EFL teachers perceive their students' affective responses to oral CF?

The thesis at hand will be divided into two main sections. The first part will introduce and discuss relevant theory as well as empirical studies on oral CF. To be more precise, Chapter 2 will be concerned with defining and understanding the concept of error as well as the concept of corrective feedback, while Chapter 3 will be devoted to showing how the perception of errors has changed over the years. Chapter 4 will then focus on predominant controversies regarding oral CF. Rounding off the theoretical part of this thesis, previous studies on students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF will be presented in Chapter 5. The second part will deal with the empirical research carried out for this thesis. Chapter 6 will outline the methodological underpinnings, while Chapter 7 will present the findings obtained. Lastly, Chapter 8 will discuss the results in relation to the literature reviewed.

2. RELEVANT TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Before expounding the theoretical underpinnings pertinent for this thesis, it is crucial to define the terms *error* as well as *corrective feedback* and to elaborate how these shall be understood in the present work.

2.1. DEFINING THE CONCEPT OF *ERROR*

A suitable point of departure for the definition of *error* seems to be the etymology of the verb "to err". Deriving from the Latin word *errare*, the original definition of "to err" used to be tantamount to "to stray" (*Merriam-Webster*). Nowadays, however, this definition is perceived as rather obsolete and has lost its significance. Instead, the ubiquitous meaning today implies definitions such as "to make a mistake" (*Merriam-Webster, Cambridge Dictionary*) or "to do something wrong" (*Cambridge Dictionary*). As concerns the noun *error*, definitions such as "an act involving an unintentional deviation from truth or accuracy" (*Merriam-Webster*), "something you have done which is considered to be incorrect or wrong, or which should not have been done" (*Collins Dictionary*) or "a deviation from accuracy or correctness" (*The Random House dictionary,* Flexner 1987: 659) are to be found amongst dictionary entries. These definitions, however, since they only contribute to a general understanding of the term error, are rather unsatisfactory in the context of language learning. It is therefore pivotal to look at the significance of the term error from a linguistic perspective and put it into the educational context.

When dealing with the definition of error in second language acquisition (SLA), it becomes evident that disagreement has prevailed amongst researchers. According to Lennon (1991: 182), for instance, determining whether or not a word or utterance is erroneous should be based on the language use of native speakers, as he defined error as a "linguistic form or a combination of forms, which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native counterparts". While Pawlak (2014: 3) recognized this belief as a frequent proposition and acknowledged the logic behind this approach, he furthermore believed that "the reference to the native speaker norm also suffers from a number of weaknesses". With his first point of criticism he drew attention to the fact that a target language encompasses not only a single but several varieties. For instance, if British and American English were to be taken as an example, one would have to be aware that aside from the varieties' grammatical parallels, numerous differences existed in relation to lexis and pronunciation. Thus, something which

may be correct in British English, might be considered erroneous in American English or vice versa. Moreover, Pawlak (ibid.: 4) stressed that even within a variety speech assumes an individual role, which is affected by factors such as age, gender, education, social status, context etc. Hence, native speaker does not equal native speaker.

Due to the caveats mentioned above, Pawlak pleaded for a more suitable definition adjusted to the language classroom and expressed approval of George's (1972 referred to in Pawlak 2014: 4) remark, according to which it lies within the responsibility of teachers to decide on the accuracy of an utterance since sometimes even phrases considered as "grammatical, acceptable, correct and felicitous in naturalistic interaction" can trigger correction, as they are inappropriate in certain contexts. Thus, Pawlak supported Chaudron's (1986: 66) definition, according to which errors are "(1) linguistic forms or content that differ from native speaker norms or facts, and (2) any other behavior which is indicated by the teacher as needing improvement". Due to the fact that the EFL classroom assumes a pivotal role in this thesis, Chaudron's definition seems to be appropriate for this work and will be used henceforth.

Having defined the concept of error, it is furthermore imperative to delineate the difference between the terms *error* and *mistake* and to point out why they will be treated as synonyms in this paper. The foundation in this respect was laid by Corder (1967), who was one of the first scholars to distinguish between *systematic* and *non-systematic errors*. While the former reflects a lack of competence and is referred to as *error*, the latter type, which Corder called *mistake*, constitutes a performance error, such as a slip of the tongue (ibid.: 166). According to Corder, mistakes do not contribute to the learner's language learning process, as the learner is aware of his or her mistake and would be able to self-correct. In the context of language learning Corder, thus, suggested that solely errors need to be considered by the teacher, whereas mistakes can be disregarded. Even though Corder recommended to distinguish between errors and mistakes, within the scope of this thesis, the terms will be used synonymously on the grounds of the subsequent argumentation. The first reason speaking against the differentiation is based on Corder himself, who admitted that "determining what is a learner's mistake and what a learner's error is one of some difficulty and involves a much more sophisticated study and analysis of errors than is usually accorded them". Pawlak (2014: 5) drew attention to this matter more precisely when he argued that while differentiating between mistake and error

> may be worthy of consideration from a theoretical point of view, they are of little relevance to teachers who have to decide, often in a split second, whether, when and how to deal with an inaccurate form.

Thus, since it is unlikely for teachers to distinguish between the two terms in the EFL classroom, it would be unlikely for them to differentiate between error and mistake when completing the questionnaire. Therefore, it would be ineffective to treat them as two separate matters in the course of this thesis. Besides, distinguishing between the two terms is furthermore redundant since the present work is an attempt to replicate Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) study. The two scholars chose to use the two terms synonymously. Hence, whenever the terms error or mistake are used, they are used synonymously to refer to a student's inaccurate utterance.

2.2. DEFINING THE CONCEPT OF *CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK*

Having outlined the notion of error and how it will be understood in this paper, it is furthermore indispensable to define the concept of *corrective feedback*, for it will lay the foundations of this thesis.

The concept of corrective feedback, as defined by Sheen and Ellis (2011: 593), is broadly outlined as "feedback that learners receive on linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language (L2)" and has been a thoroughly investigated area over the years. Plenty of discussion in this respect has been triggered by the general question whether or not errors should be treated in the FL classroom. However, it is not only corrective feedback as a concept but also its terminology with which scholars have been occupied and where disagreement prevails. As a matter of fact, besides the term corrective feedback, *error correction*, *negative evidence*, *error treatment* as well as *repair* are all terms used to represent the general idea of dealing with errors in the FL classroom. While some scholars use these terminologies synonymously, some make sure to point out the disparities between the different terms. For the purpose of this thesis, it has been decided to make use solely of the term *corrective feedback*, based on the motives that will be presented below.

Defining the term *feedback* as a concept in its own right might serve as a good point of departure in order to shed some light on the terminological issue as well as to clarify why the term corrective feedback will be prioritized. One of the first definitions, as can be inferred from the *Oxford English Dictionary* (Simpson and Weiner 1989: 802), dates back to

the 1920s and delineates feedback as “the return of a fraction of the output signal from one stage of a circuit, amplifier etc., to the input of the same or a preceding stage”. Certainly, today the majority of people would in all likelihood not consider the original definition of feedback, as its context in electrical engineering seems too far removed from the situations in which the term tends to be used nowadays. Nonetheless, as noted by Cano and Ion (2017: 3), already back then the term implicated “the idea that feedback should have a direction, returning back to make a change in how something occurs”. Today, this aspect can be regarded as one of the main principles of feedback, as implied by the following ubiquitous definitions, according to which feedback is

- “information about reactions to a product, a person’s performance of a task, etc. which is used as a basis for improvement” (*Oxford Dictionaries*)
- “the transmission of evaluative or corrective information about an action, event, or process to the original or controlling source” (*Merriam-Webster*)

While these definitions reflect fairly well how the notion of feedback is commonly perceived in society, from an educational perspective, the previous definitions are too general and broad. Hence, in a more specific context, Sadler’s (1989) definition of feedback might allow for a more detailed and adequate analysis. Sadler (ibid.: 120), whose expertise lies within the field of formative and summative assessment, recognized that feedback is commonly defined as “information about how successfully something has been or is being done”, thus implying that feedback can both be positive or negative. Apart from that, Sadler also pointed out that an alternative dimension can be added to the definition of feedback with its focus being on the effect rather than the informational content. Sadler built his argumentation on a definition provided by Ramaprasad (1983: 4, quoted in Sadler 1989: 120), who described feedback as “information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way”. With respect to this definition, Sadler emphasized the importance of the latter part, namely that feedback can only work when the information is, in fact, used to alter the gap. From a more practical perspective and applied within the context of FL learning, Sadler’s argumentation suggests that the teacher’s information on a learner’s mistake is not tantamount to feedback. For the feedback to be effective the students need to be able to use the information in order to fill their gap. Consequently, adding to Ramaprasad’s definition, Sadler (1989: 121) highlighted that feedback depends not only on its provider

but also on its recipient, i.e. the learner, and concluded by outlining the subsequent conditions:

> the learner has to (a) possess a concept of *standard* (or goal, or reference level) being aimed for, (b) compare the *actual* (or current) *level of performance* with the standard, and (c) engage in appropriate *action* which leads to some closure of the gap.

Although Sadler's research did not focus on corrective feedback *per se*, his definition seems to be suitable to be applied within the FL classroom, for it does not solely regard feedback as part of the teacher's task but includes the learner in the feedback procedure. Therefore, feedback becomes more interactive and also ascribes, to a certain extent, responsibility to the learner, who needs to be able to process the feedback. In contrast to feedback, it can be argued that *correction* lacks the interactive aspect, as it implies a focus on the teacher's reaction to the error but rather disregards the student's response. The aforementioned might explain to some extent why several scholars (e.g. Ellis 1994, Majer 2003, Larsen-Freeman 2003) carefully distinguish between the term corrective feedback and its equivalents. Majer (2003: 287, quoted in Pawlak 2014: 5), for instance, drew a clear line between *corrective feedback* and *error correction* and aptly argued that

> [g]iving feedback is not tantamount to merely correcting errors. Error correction is part of language teaching, whereas feedback belongs in the domain of interaction [...] Therefore all error correction is feedback, much as its actual realization may depend on a particular pedagogic goal.

Likewise, Larsen-Freeman (2003: 123) emphasized that "[c]ompared to the traditional term *error correction,* (negative) feedback is broader in scope". Furthermore, considering error correction as the narrower concept is also in line with Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks (1977), who preferred the term *repair* to error correction, based on the argumentation that the latter is only one type of repair. According to Majer (2003), Larsen-Freeman (2003) and Schegloff *et al.* (1977) error correction, thus, can be viewed as a subsection of corrective feedback. Based on these considerations, the term corrective feedback is believed to be the most suitable and will hence be used in this thesis.

Rounding off the definition of corrective feedback, it should be added that research distinguishes between oral and written corrective feedback. Since this thesis focuses on teachers' and students' attitudes towards oral corrective feedback, written feedback will not be addressed in the present work. As concerns the concept of oral corrective feedback, this matter will be thoroughly presented and discussed in Chapter 4.

3. THE PERCEPTION OF ERRORS OVER TIME

Today, when discussing the general significance of mistakes, many people would probably recall the famous proverb "Errare humanum est", which means "To err is human" and which is often attributed to Roman philosopher Seneca. However, the assumption that mistakes are ordinary and part of learning processes has not always received widespread acceptance. On the contrary, the opposite belief, namely that errors are to be regarded as bad, was fairly common. The aim of this chapter is to outline how errors have been perceived in SLA and to show how the researchers' perceptions have changed over the past decades.

3.1. THE AVOIDANCE OF ERRORS

A suitable starting point for the discussion of the perception of errors over the years is the concept of *behaviorism*. Behaviorism, whose roots are to be found in psychology, is a learning theory, which was especially significant between the 1940s and 1950s, in particular in North America (Lightbown and Spada 2013: 15). As far as the explanation of language development is concerned, the most influential advocate to assume a connection between behaviorism and language learning was the American psychologist Skinner (1957). Skinner and other proponents of behaviorism theorized that children acquired their first language by producing specific responses to specific stimuli (Ellis 2015: 117). On the basis of language imitation and positive reinforcement, provided by their environment by means of praise or merely effective communication, children "would continue to imitate and practice these sounds and patterns until they formed 'habits' of correct language use" (Lightbown and Spada 2013: 15). Drawing from this hypothesis, as rightly noted by Lightbown and Spada (ibid.), the behaviorist theory ascribes particular emphasis to the child's environment since their language behavior depends on "the quality and quantity of the language the child hears, as well as the consistency of the reinforcement offered by others in the environment".

Initially used to explain first language acquisition (FLA), the theory of behaviorism also had a substantial impact on justifying second language acquisition between the 1940s and 1970s (ibid.: 103). From a behaviorist perspective, second language learning depends on to what extent the learner's first language (L1) interferes with their target language (TL). Thus, second language learning was believed to be successful when the original habits formed in the L1 could be overcome and hence new habits could be formed in the TL (Larsen-Freeman

and Long: 1991: 55). Accordingly, second language learning was considered to be ineffective when the initially formed habits necessary for L1 interfered with the required habits for L2 (Lightbown and Spada 2013: 104).

Based on the behaviorist view, the audio-lingual approach was developed as a teaching method in the FL classroom, with its heyday in the 1950s and 1960s (Hendrickson 1978: 387). The concept behind this method requires the learners "to spend many hours memorizing dialogs, manipulating pattern drills, and studying all sorts of grammatical generalizations" (ibid.) in order to form habits. Positive reinforcement on the part of the teacher would furthermore contribute to the learner's development of correct habits (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 43). Through this approach, which Hendrickson (1978: 387) summarized as "practice makes perfect", the students would eventually be able to accurately and fluently engage in conversations with native speakers. However, this belief turned out to be problematic, as "most students who could not or did not take the effort to transfer audiolingual training to communicative use soon forgot dialog lines, the pattern drills, and the grammatical generalizations that they had studied or practiced in school" (ibid.). With respect to errors, advocates of the behaviorist theory believed that "[l]ike sin, error is to be avoided and its influence overcome" (Brooks 1960: 58). In fact, they were convinced that if learners continued to make mistakes "inadequate teaching techniques or unsequenced instructional materials were to blame" (Hendrickson 1978: 387).

Building on the behaviorist theory, Lado's (1957) contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) emerged. According to the CAH, the differences between learners' L1 and L2 should be scrutinized in order to foresee potential structures that could pose difficulties. Lado (ibid.: 1f.) further hypothesized that the level of difficulty would be determined by the similarities and differences between the languages, as "[t]hose elements that are similar to native language will be simple […] and those elements that are different will be difficult" for the learners. However, the CAH in its original form rightly sparked criticism among researchers. Differentiating between a strong and weak form of CAH, Wardhaugh (1970) believed especially the former to be problematic. According to him (ibid.: 125), it would be fairly impossible for linguists to predict difficulty *a priori*, as it would "demand[] of linguists that they have available a set of linguistic universals formulated within a comprehensive linguistic theory which deals adequately with syntax, semantics, and phonology". The weak form, on the other hand, which analyzed difficulties *a posteriori*, was considered to be more

feasible, since it allowed linguists and teachers to analyze the learner's interference errors after they have occurred (Brown 1994: 200). The strong version of CAH was further criticized by Whitman and Jackson (1972). By means of a study administered to 2500 Japanese learners of English, Whitman and Jackson (1972) concluded that the four contrastive analyses, which were predicted *a priori* to the test, did not match the actual errors. Likewise, the strong and weak forms of CAH were also carefully examined by Oller and Ziahosseiny (1970). The two scholars carried out a study with ESL learners to investigate whether the strong form of CAH would prove right and whether learners whose native language made use of the Latin alphabet had fewer difficulties with spelling as opposed to learners, whose native language used a non-Roman script. In fact, their findings showed that the opposite was the case and that learners whose native language used a Latin script were confronted with more difficulties. Hence, Oller and Ziahosseiny concluded that patterns which are similar in L1 and L2 can pose more difficulties than patterns that are different. Supported by these findings, they (ibid.: 186) proposed to supplant the strong and weak version with a *moderate* form of CAH, which they described as

> [t]he categorization of abstract and concrete patterns according to their perceived similarities and differences is the basis for learning; therefore, wherever patterns are minimally distinct in form or meaning in one or more systems, confusion may result.

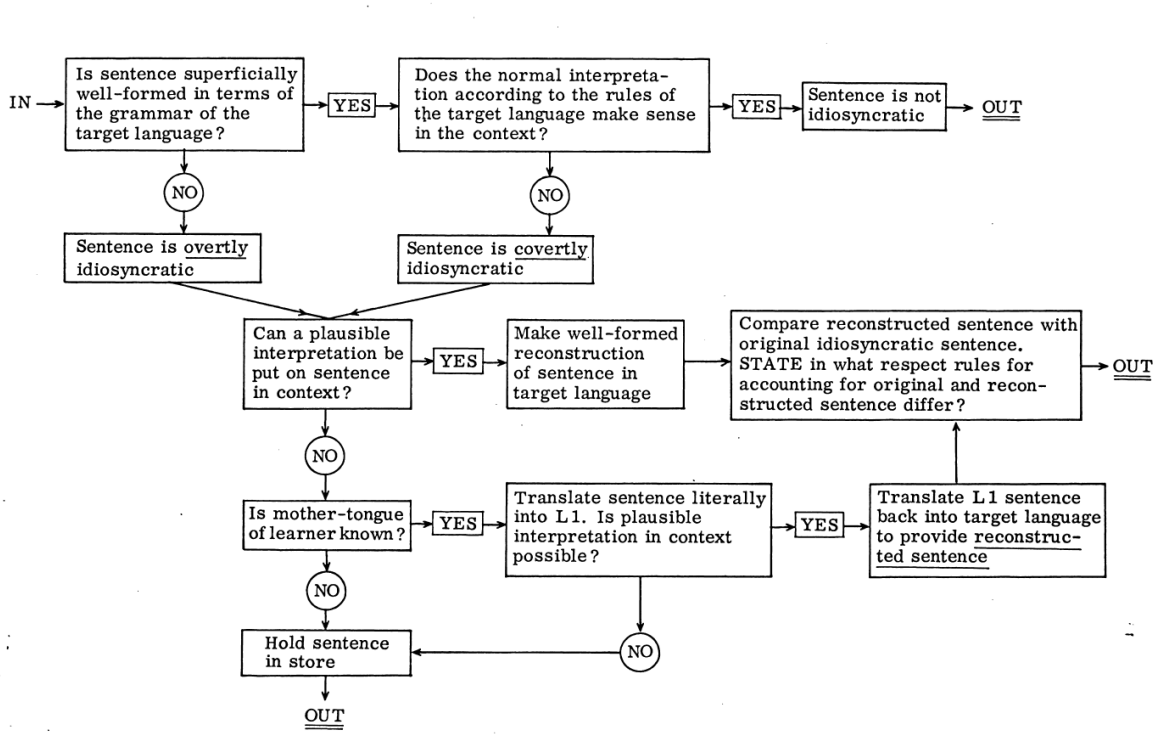
As a result of these findings, researchers did not endorse the strong form of CAH. Moreover, after noticing that the weak form of CAH only enabled to explain certain errors, they decided to reorient themselves completely.

3.2. SHIFT TOWARDS THE ACCEPTANCE OF ERRORS

Researchers, unsatisfied with the CAH, led to a gradual shift away from this approach in the late 1960s and 1970s. Based on Chomsky's (1959) assumption that language acquisition was the result of rule formation and not habit formation, SLA researchers assumed the same to be true for second language learning (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991: 57). Comparable to the developmental errors that children undergo in acquiring their L1, it was observed that second language learners make similar mistakes, which led to the belief that interference could not be the source of all errors. Hence, instead of predicting errors, as it was common in CAH, researchers tried to identify as well as describe different kinds of errors (Lightbown and Spada 2013: 42f). As a result, the so-called error analysis (EA) approach emerged. A crucial advocate who did a copious amount of research in this respect

was Corder. While errors were to be avoided and viewed negatively from a behaviorist perspective, Corder (1967: 166) ascribed, in one of his most well-known articles, relevance to learner's errors and distinguished, as briefly touched upon before, between *systematic* and *non-systematic* errors. According to him, the latter pertains to errors which are also frequent in our native language and commonly referred to as *slips* of the tongue (ibid.). This type of error, which Corder classified as *mistake*, is not the result of the speaker's lack of competence but can be caused by different factors such as fatigue, memory lapses or psychological conditions which, as a consequence, influence a speaker's linguistic performance (ibid.: 167). Corder highlighted that most of the times speakers are immediately aware of non-systematic errors and are able to correct them (ibid.: 166). Systematic errors, which Corder refers to as *errors,* on the other hand, are *errors of competence* (ibid.). In contrast to *errors of performance*, systematic errors are due to the speaker's dearth of knowledge of the language, for instance because they might have forgotten a rule or not have studied it yet. Systematic errors provide the teacher with information about the learner's actual language knowledge, also referred to as *transitional competence* (ibid.). According to Corder, thus, it can be concluded that while teachers should be attentive to learners' errors, they can disregard mistakes.

Besides differentiating between systematic and non-systematic errors, Corder (1971: 155) furthermore published a paper in which he presented a framework for the description of errors, according to which at the outset "[e]very sentence is to be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwise". He built his argumentation on the fact that "a learner's sentence may be superficially 'well-formed' and yet be idiosyncratic" (ibid.). For instance, the sentence *After an hour it was stopped* (ibid.) appears to be grammatically correct at the sentence level, however, if *it* is supposed to refer to the wind, the sentence becomes idiosyncratic. Corder called this type of mistake a *covert error*. *Overt errors*, on the contrary, are errors that are grammatically incorrect. According to Corder's model, once it is clear whether an error is overtly or covertly idiosyncratic, the interpretation of the error follows as a second stage. Then, if the interpretation is successful, the reconstruction of the sentence can occur immediately after. However, if the idiosyncratic sentence cannot be interpreted, the reconstruction stage is preceded, if possible, by translating the idiosyncratic sentence into the learner's mother tongue in order to detect possible interference of the learner's L1 and hence to explain the source of the error. The complete model is illustrated in Excerpt 1.



Excerpt 1. Identifying errors according to Corder's (1971: 156) model.

Corder's proposal to distinguish between errors and mistakes as well as his model regarding the identification of errors received criticism to a certain extent. As far as the former is concerned, Ellis (1994: 53f.) compellingly argued that, on the one hand, teachers would struggle to differentiate between error and mistake, on the other hand, "the distinction does not take account of the possibility that learners' knowledge is variable". Ellis (ibid.: 54) further criticized Corder's model as regards the identification of covert errors and stressed that for it to work one must question the learner's reliability as informant, as "retrospective accounts of intended meaning are often not reliable". Moreover, such a model requires metalinguistic knowledge on the part of the learners, as they need to be able to talk about their performance, which might prove to be difficult (ibid.).

Another scholar who contributed to the classification of different kinds of errors was Richards (1971). He distinguished between interference errors and errors which could not be ascribed to the learner's L1 but instead "reflect the learner's competence at a particular stage, and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language acquisition" (ibid.: 3). With respect to the latter type, Richards differentiated between intralingual errors and developmental errors. Intralingual errors "reflect the general characteristics of rule learning, such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules, and failure to learn conditions under which rules apply" (ibid.: 5f.), whereas developmental errors "illustrate

the learner attempting to build up hypotheses about the English language from his limited experience of it in the classroom or text-book" (ibid.: 6f.). Determining, however, whether an error is interlingual, intralingual or developmental turned out to be fairly difficult and a matter of interpretation. Duskova (1969), for instance, categorized article deletion as interlingual error, whereas Dulay and Burt (1974) referred to it as intralingual.

Methodological weaknesses, such as the ones mentioned above, explain amongst others why EA has lost popularity in the academic discourse. Nonetheless, it needs to be emphasized that EA has contributed to SLA research. On the one hand, EA showed that not all learner errors can be ascribed to language transfer. On the other hand, EA, as aptly put by Ellis (1994: 70), "helped to make errors respectable – to force recognition that errors were not something to be avoided but were an inevitable feature of the learning process". Therefore, it can be concluded that EA assumes an important role in the history of error correction in so far as it can be seen as the first step towards the acceptance of errors.

4. CONTROVERSIES REGARDING ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

> It is noteworthy that at the beginning of the sixties the word 'error' was associated with *correction*, at the end with *learning* (George 1972: 189).

George's (ibid.) words aptly recapitulate the quintessence of the previous chapter and show in how far the perspective on errors has changed from outright avoidance to acceptance, and eventually to the perception of errors as vital parts of language learning. As a result of this pedagogical shift, new relevant questions arose. First and foremost, the question as to whether errors should be corrected at all sparked researchers' interest, which consequently led to questions such as when, which and how errors should be corrected. These issues will therefore form the center of attention in this chapter.

4.1. SHOULD ERRORS BE CORRECTED?

As noted before, the fact that errors had found a place in language learning triggered new discussions among researchers with the question of whether or not errors should be corrected being paramount.

One of the first statements against the use of oral CF can be attributed to SLA researcher Krashen (1982) and his Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, according to which L2 acquisition is facilitated by the teacher who knows how to "provide input and help make it comprehensible in a low anxiety situation" (1982: 32). As this was believed to be sufficient for L2 acquisition to take place, Krashen did not ascribe relevance to oral CF but instead argued against its employment. In fact, according to Krashen (ibid.: 75), "[e]rror correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive", as the student would be inclined "to avoid mistakes, avoid difficult constructions, focus less on meaning and more on form". Krashen (ibid.: 76) therefore suggested to "eliminate error correction entirely in communicative-type activities [as] [i]mprovement will come without error correction, and may come even more rapidly, since the input will 'get in', the filter will be lower, and students will be off the defensive". Krashen's theory, however, justifiably sparked criticism among colleagues who also regarded SLA from a cognitive theoretical perspective (e.g. Long 1983, 1996; Swain 1985, 1995; Schmidt 1994, 2001). Having investigated English-speaking children learning French in a French immersion program, Swain (1985) challenged Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis on the grounds that the children observed, even though exposed to comprehensible input, frequently made

mistakes. In her view, this was based on the children's missing opportunity to produce output outside of class. Thus, Swain (ibid.: 236) came to the conclusion that comprehensible output must be as fundamental as comprehensible input "to ensure that the outcome will be native-like performance", which became known as Output Hypothesis.

Besides Swain's Output Hypothesis, Long's (1983, 1996) Interaction Hypothesis as well as Schmidt's (1994, 2001) Noticing Hypothesis can be seen as proof of the positive effect of oral CF. In order to illustrate how these theories support the employment of oral CF, Sheen and Ellis' (2011: 595) descriptions of the theories' main arguments, presented in Excerpt 2, serve as a suitable overview.

Hypothesis	**Description**
Interaction Hypothesis	This claims that the negotiation of meaning that occurs when a communication problem arises results in interactional modifications that provide learners with the input needed for L2 learning.
Output Hypothesis	This claims that learners also learn from their own output when this requires them to "stretch their interlanguage in order to meet communicative goals" (Swain 1995: 127)
Noticing Hypothesis	This claims that L2 learning is enhanced when learners pay conscious attention to specific linguistic forms in the input to which they are exposed.

Excerpt 2. Cognitive theories supporting the provision of oral CF (Sheen and Ellis 2011: 595).

For better understanding, the theories will be put into context and explained by means of the following example of a teacher-student interaction (Ellis and Sheen 2006: 581):

S1: What do you spend with your wife?
T: What?
S1: What do you spend your extra time with your wife?
T: Ah, how do you spend?
S1: How do you spend.

In this example, the student's error makes it impossible for the teacher to understand the message and results in a communication breakdown. The teacher therefore asks for clarification, which leads to the student's repetition of the same question, albeit including the same error. However, since the student adds more information, the teacher understands the student's question and can provide corrective feedback in form of a recast.[1] As a consequence, the student notices their mistake and self-corrects. Hence, from a cognitive theoretical perspective the example illustrated above allows us to draw the following conclusions: (1) through the teacher's input the student is able to recognize their

[1] A recast is a type of feedback move, which will be presented in further detail in Chapter 4.4.3.

error and can thus self-correct (Noticing Hypothesis), (2) the student is able to learn from their own output (Output Hypothesis), and (3) through negotiating meaning the teacher and student can overcome the communication breakdown (Interaction Hypothesis). It can therefore be concluded that oral CF is a major contribution to L2 learning.

The efficacy of oral CF has been furthermore debated from a pedagogical-oriented perspective. Chaudron (1988: 133), for instance, claimed that "[f]rom the learners' point of view, the use of feedback in repairing their utterances, and involvement in repairing their interlocutors' utterances, may constitute the most potent source of improvement in both target language development and other subject matter knowledge." Similarly, Larsen-Freeman (2003: 126) stated that "feedback on learners' performance in an instructional environment presents an opportunity for learning to take place. An error potentially represents a teachable moment". In turn, Truscott (1999: 441) expressed his concerns as regards oral CF and argued that "there is a serious danger that correction will produce embarrassment, anger, inhibition, feelings of inferiority, and a generally negative attitude toward the class (and possibly toward the language itself)". He (1999: 453) thus advocated the complete abandonment of oral CF as

> [o]ral correction poses overwhelming problems for teachers and for students; research evidence suggests that it is not effective; and no good reasons have been offered for continuing this practice. The natural conclusion is that oral grammar should be abandoned.

Nevertheless, as far as empirical evidence is concerned, a considerable amount of research to date has shown that both Krashen's as well as Truscott's concerns can be regarded as negligible and that oral CF can indeed promote acquisition (e.g. Li 2010, Lyster and Saito 2010, Russell and Spada 2006, Mackey and Goo 2007, Ramirez and Stromquist 1979). An early study reinforcing this assumption was conducted by Ramirez and Stromquist (1979). In an attempt to explore the relationship between ESL teaching techniques and student learning in bilingual elementary schools, Ramirez and Stromquist observed 18 ESL teachers and their respective classes. Having laid, amongst others, a focus on the teachers' use of oral CF, the researchers concluded that the correction of grammar mistakes has a positive impact on the students' learning. More recent evidence for the general efficacy of CF can furthermore be inferred from the four meta-analyses carried out by Li (2010), Lyster and Saito (2010), Mackey and Goo (2007) as well as Russell and Spada (2006). While the researchers were not able to draw the same conclusion in regard to the question concerning the best way to provide oral CF, they all concluded that oral CF is to be

considered generally effective. Russell and Spada (2006: 153) furthermore took a clear position as regards Truscott's notion in favor of the abandonment of oral CF and criticized Truscott for not considering the results of 21 studies, which had ascribed a beneficial impact to oral CF and had already been published when Truscott wrote his article.

In sum, based on both theoretical as well as empirical research conducted within the area of oral CF, it can be argued that questioning the overall effectiveness of oral CF seems redundant. Rather, it is more relevant to tackle aspects that are closely linked to the success of oral CF and that include the questions (1) when should errors be corrected, (2) which errors should be corrected, and (3) how should errors be corrected?

4.2. WHEN SHOULD ERRORS BE CORRECTED?

As far as the timing of oral CF is concerned, teachers can decide between providing *immediate* or *delayed feedback*. As implied by the terms, the former refers to the teacher's immediate response to the learner's error, whereas the latter pertains to the teacher delaying the correction until the learner has completed their utterance in order to avoid interruption (Sheen and Ellis 2011: 593). The question of whether teachers should opt for immediate or delayed feedback has occupied scholars over the years and has sparked controversy.

Allwright and Bailey (1991: 103), for instance, voiced their doubts with respect to immediate CF, when they stated that the problem

> is that it often involves interrupting the learner in mid-sentence – a practice which can certainly be disruptive and could eventually inhibit the learner's willingness to speak in class at all.

Instead of providing immediate CF, they therefore supported the idea of delaying the feedback, for instance, to the end of a learner utterance, the end of a lesson or even to a future lesson. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 103) argued that the latter practice, also referred to as *postponed feedback*, might be valuable if errors "are patterned and shared by a group of learners" and hence could form the point of departure for a subsequent teaching unit. However, even though approving of delayed/postponed feedback, Allwright and Bailey (ibid.), at the same time, also showed their reservations and admitted, following Long's (1977) argumentation, that "feedback becomes less effective as the time between the performance of the skill and the feedback increases" (Long 1977: 290, referred to in Allwright and Bailey 1991: 103). This caveat is also in line with Doughty's (2001: 253) theory

of the *window of cognitive opportunity*, according to which teachers should provide oral CF within a particular time frame, as after a certain time, the so-called window of cognitive opportunity would have been passed and it would get harder for students to make cognitive comparisons.

In light of the observations mentioned above, it is not remarkable that some researchers justifiably believed arguing in favor of one type and at the same time against the other to be counterproductive and instead posited that the choice for immediate or delayed feedback might depend on the context (e.g. Edge 1989, Harmer 2001, Hedge 2000). Harmer (2001: 104), for instance, claimed that the timing of oral CF is contingent on the aim of the activity. If the aim of the activity is *non-communicative* (also referred to as *accuracy-focused*), for example a gap-filling text on the use of past simple and past progressive, and the focus thus lies on the learner's correct use of language, the ideal feedback should be provided immediately, since, as aptly noticed by Pawlak (2014: 118), "it would make little sense to delay the correction when the learners need to know immediately whether the form they have used is correct or not". However, in so-called *communicative activities* (also referred to as *fluency-oriented activities*) where the aim is on the learner's improvement of language fluency, delaying the feedback might be more fruitful, as providing immediate feedback would only interrupt the student's communication flow and hence move the focus from fluency to accuracy (Harmer 2001: 105). As noted by Harmer (ibid.), the aim of speaking activities, however, is that students are able to "transfer 'learnt' language to the 'acquired' store'". Learners, therefore need to be able to negotiate their meaning on their own, without being interrupted by their teacher, since "[t]eacher intervention in such circumstances can raise stress levels and stop the acquisition process in its tracks" (ibid.). Harmer (ibid.), thus, concluded that if teachers take away the students' chance "to negotiate a way out of their communicative impasses", at the same time, they take away a valuable opportunity for them to learn. Consequently, unless there is a major communication breakdown, teachers should refrain from providing immediate feedback and instead delay their feedback (ibid.). In spite of these restrictions, it is noteworthy to add that, as rightly noted by Pawlak (2014: 118), there is also evidence supporting the provision of immediate feedback in fluency-oriented activities. On the one hand, this evidence is theoretical and reflected in, amongst others, the Noticing Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis and the Output Hypothesis; on the other hand, most empirical work that has proved oral CF or oral CF types to be effective stems from research investigating

teachers' immediate feedback moves (ibid.). Therefore, in some cases, for instance, if the error impedes successful communication, immediate feedback might be advisable in spite of the focus being on fluency.

Rounding off the topic of when to deliver oral CF, it can be concluded that the question should not be whether to opt for immediate or delayed feedback but rather when to use which, as both immediate as well as delayed feedback are associated with certain assets and drawbacks. As a matter of fact, it appears that immediate feedback may be more appropriate in the context of accuracy-focused activities, while delayed feedback seems to be more suitable in fluency-oriented work. However, as regards the latter, it should be noted that considering delayed feedback in fluency-oriented work as generally more appropriate does not necessarily mean that immediate feedback has no place at all. Based on these considerations it is therefore, as aptly put by Allwright and Bailey (1991: 103), up to the teachers and classroom researchers to reflect upon and choose the right timing of oral CF.

4.3. WHICH ERRORS SHOULD BE CORRECTED?

As far as oral CF is concerned, teachers are not only faced with the challenge of determining the timing of oral CF but also with deciding which errors to correct. Correcting all errors is not only rather impossible but also likely to be counterproductive, as it may, for instance, not only interrupt students' speaking flow but also frustrate or demotivate them. In the following, various approaches that have been adopted over the past few decades will be introduced and discussed.

One approach that methodologists have believed to be recommendable is *selective correction*, which requires the teacher to define the learner error and then decide, based on different theoretic underpinnings, whether or not it needs to be corrected. Corder's (1967) theory on differentiating between errors and mistakes, which advocates, as discussed in Chapter 3.2., only the correction of errors but not of mistakes, can be recognized as a form of selective correction. Further selective correction techniques can be linked to Burt and Kiparsky (1972), who theorized that teachers only need to focus on *global errors*, which are errors that hamper communication and thus lead to a communication break-down. The counterpart, *local errors*, on the other hand, is to be seen as harmless since learners, despite making a local error, can still negotiate the meaning of their utterance. In other words, local errors do not negatively affect communication. In a

later publication, Burt (1975: 58) expanded on this theory and argued "that the global/local distinction is the most pervasive criterion for determining the communicative importance of errors". She insisted that "the correction of one global error in a sentence does more to make clear the speaker's intended message than the correction of several local errors in the same sentence" (ibid.: 62). According to Burt (ibid.: 58), local errors only begin to gain in importance and can be focused on once learners have reached a nearly fluent L2 level. While Hanzeli (1975: 431) generally supported the idea that "[e]rrors interfering with meaning should be corrected more promptly and systematically than others", he also referred to problems related to it by claiming that it would be hard for teachers to draw a line between intelligible and unintelligible learner utterances, as teachers have learned to understand their students' 'Pidgin'. In response to the question as to which errors a teacher should correct, Hanzeli (ibid.) suggested to correct stigmatizing errors first, which are errors that reveal the speaker's L2 background, nevertheless adding at the same time that this might pose a problem for native speakers since they are more likely to "tolerate certain deviations [...] than others". Powell (1973) and George (1972), in turn, were convinced that non-native speakers would have greater difficulties to judge the intelligibility of their students' utterances, since, as argued by George (ibid.: 76), non-native speakers often fail to determine in how far errors hamper communication and, as a consequence, tend to over-correct. Native speakers, on the other hand, would be able to understand the majority of learners' inaccurate sentences (ibid.). In fact, Olsson (1972) was able to supply empirical evidence to support George's assumption. By analyzing which deviations in passive voice sentences produced by Swedish students would lead to misunderstandings by native speakers of English, Olsson found out that almost 70.0% of the 1000 utterances were understood.

It has to be noted that, even though selective correction seems to be advisable from a theoretical point of view, its practicability was justifiably questioned (e.g. Pawlak 2014, Sheen and Ellis 2011). As argued by Pawlak (2014: 123), distinguishing between errors and mistakes would be hard for teachers to put to practice as "decisions often have to be made in a split second and there is no time to ask the learner to self-correct". Moreover, Pawlak (ibid.: 123f.) linked the time issue to the global/local error debate "since how an error is categorized may depend on the situation and […] teachers often have insufficient time to determine the intentions of the learner". Therefore, neither differentiating between errors

and mistakes nor between global and local errors could easily be put into practice (Sheen and Ellis 2011: 599).

Considering the difficulties presented above, Sheen's (2007) idea of *focused corrective feedback*, which is both applicable to oral as well as written texts, has gained considerable popularity. According to Sheen (ibid.), focusing on a certain category of error, for instance, on past tense errors in one lesson and on the correct use of articles in another, is more advisable than providing unfocused correction. Teachers could, for instance, concentrate on past tense errors in one lesson and on the correct use of articles in another. Sheen's proposal, as aptly put by Pawlak (2014: 124),

> is commendable mainly because it helps to channel learners' limited attentional resources to a specific rule or a limited set of items, with the effect that the form-meaning connections become more relevant to them, and they are much more likely to make internal comparisons and detect mismatches between their current capacities and the target language norm.

However, Pawlak (ibid.) also rightly noted that there are certain aspects which have to be considered. First, the research to date within this area is sparse, as apart from Sheen, Wright and Moldawa's (2009) study on focused and unfocused written CF, in which the researchers found the former to be more effective than the latter, most of the studies have only been able to illustrate the efficacy of CF in general but not the effectiveness as concerns focused CF or unfocused CF (e.g. Russell and Spada 2006, Mackey and Goo 2007). Secondly, Pawlak (2014: 124) further mentioned that in certain circumstances unfocused CF might still be more advisable than focused CF. For instance, as expounded by Pawlak (2014: 125), while focused CF might be practicable in accuracy-based activities, unfocused CF may be more appropriate in fluency-oriented tasks, since

> the correction will in all likelihood be less frequent, but also more incidental and extensive, and the teacher may choose to react to a wide range of errors which he or she views as egregious, recurrent or simply important from a pedagogical point of view.

Furthermore, Pawlak (ibid.) added that apart from the type of error and the context in which it occurred, the teacher's decision as to whether or not an error requires CF might be influenced by the individual learner's learning style, personality or developmental stage. Therefore, as it has been the case with the timing of oral CF, it is again up to the teacher to decide carefully which errors to correct.

4.4. How should errors be corrected?

Besides determining when and which errors to correct, one of the most crucial questions teachers need to consider with respect to oral CF concerns the question of how learner errors should be treated, as there are different strategies available. Teachers can be either *explicit* and "directly correct[] the learner and/or provide some kind of metalinguistic feedback" (Sheen and Ellis 2011: 593), for instance, by saying "No, that's wrong. You need to use the past tense", or they can be *implicit* and "simply request[] clarification in response to the learner's erroneous utterance" (ibid.). Furthermore, teachers can either provide the correct version themselves, which would be *input-providing*, or elicit self-correction on the part of the students, which is referred to as *output-prompting* (ibid.). However, even though much has been published on oral CF and different feedback strategies have been introduced over the years, researchers still have not managed to agree on the best way to provide oral CF. In an attempt to shed light onto this matter, different perspectives and feedback types will be discussed in the following.

4.4.1. Review

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, when the first studies on oral CF emerged, researchers claimed that teachers would provide explicit corrective feedback too frequently and tend to overcorrect (e.g. Corder 1967, Holley and King 1971, Gorbet 1974, Valdman 1975). Holley and King (1971: 494), for instance, stated that "overt correction is unnecessary, and indeed, inadvisable". The two scholars based their assumption on an empirical study which they had conducted with German as a FL learners and teachers. Having filmed and analyzed learner errors and teachers' corrective feedback moves, Holley and King came to the conclusion that teachers often interrupted inaccurate student utterances in order to provide the correct answer. Besides, Holley and King observed that teachers were generally inclined to overcorrect their students, which often led to frustration on the part of the learners. As a result of their observations, Holley and King came up with certain guidelines for teachers as regards oral CF, which should make language learning more fruitful. First, they suggested that teachers should refrain from interrupting students and should instead give learners the opportunity to finish their utterance, albeit being ill-formed. Furthermore, Holley and King (ibid.: 497) argued that while "the teacher is asked to model any incorrect response, substituting grammatically correct forms where necessary […] he is not to call attention to correction in any other way". Finally, Holley and King emphasized that teachers

should praise students in spite of utterances involving grammatical inaccuracies, so learners know that the idea behind their utterance was solid. This aspect is crucial in so far as learners need to be aware of the difference between "the accuracy of communication and the inaccuracy of grammar production" (ibid.).

Holley and King's argumentation against explicit corrective feedback was also supported by Gorbet (1974: 34), who doubted that explicit correction would be helpful and instead reinforced the idea of the teacher "hint[ing] at the correct form or suppl[ying] it indirectly (as parents often do)", as this would lead to "much better results, especially if he is able to relate his correction to the learner's strategy". Gorbet (ibid.) concluded that, irrespective of how corrective feedback is provided, it is imperative that "the student must be put in the position where he can make inferences, formulate concepts and alter his hypotheses and he must be given the time and encouragement to do this".

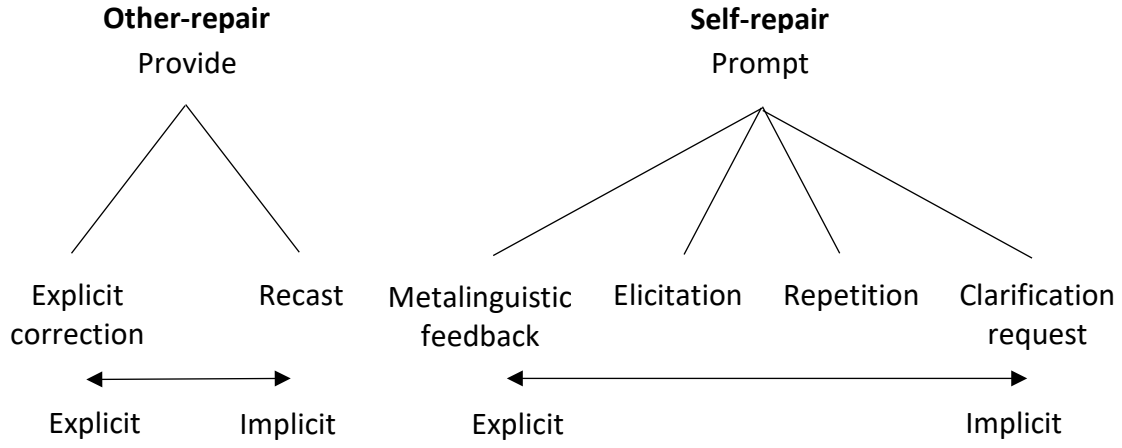
Furthermore, having concluded that teachers would provide the correct answer most of the times that, Fanselow (1977) came up with alternative options as regards oral CF that aim for a more active participation on the part of the students. Amongst others, Fanselow (ibid.: 589) used the following examples to demonstrate how these alternative corrections could look like:

(1) S: I holding a white woolen hat.
T: I holding, I'm holding. Are these the same?
(2) T: (pointing to I'm and I am on the blackboard) Which one of these is the full form?
(3) T: I holding, I'm holding. Which is incorrect?
(4) T: I holding, correct or incorrect?

According to Fanselow (ibid.: 588), involving the learner in the corrective feedback process through distinct exercises related to the mistake, such as the ones above, would "help students establish categories, alter their deep rules for generating utterances, and help move patterns into long-term memory." Even though this procedure may be more time consuming than providing explicit correction, its advantage is that teachers would "teach rather than just correct" (ibid.).

4.4.2. LYSTER AND RANTA'S (1997) TYPOLOGY

As a result of questioning teachers' too explicit approach to correcting errors and considering that the question as regards the best way to provide oral CF gained more and more importance, models introducing alternative feedback moves were developed. One of the first models in this respect can be ascribed to Chaudron (1977). As part of his research on corrective discourse in French immersion classrooms, Chaudron classified teachers' corrective feedback moves into more than thirty categories. Two decades later, having analyzed classroom interaction in French immersion classes, Lyster and Ranta (1997) developed a new CF model, which has become a prevalent and often used framework. Instead of differentiating between more than 30 feedback strategies, Lyster and Ranta grouped teachers' corrective techniques into the following six categories: *explicit corrections*, *recasts*, *clarification requests metalinguistic feedback*, *elicitations* and *repetitions*. For illustration, Lyster and Ranta's framework, as exemplified in Excerpt 3, provides an overview of oral CF types being divided into explicit and implicit as well as input-providing and output providing types.



Excerpt 3. Overview of feedback types (Loewen and Nabei 2007: 326).

Based on the fact that the examples used both in the present as well as original questionnaires by Roothooft and Breeze (2016) correspond to Lyster and Ranta's feedback types, it is vital to present their taxonomy of corrective feedback in further detail in the subsequent section. Their theoretic framework will be supported with examples taken over from the works by Ellis (2009), Li (2014), Lyster and Ranta (1997) as well as Panova and Lyster (2002), in the subsequent section.

1. Explicit correction

As seen in the following example, *explicit correction* refers to the teacher explicitly pointing out the error to the learner and subsequently delivering the correct form. It is therefore an input-providing and explicit CF type.

S: On May.
T: Not on May, In [sic] May. We say, "It will start in May." (Ellis 2009: 9)

2. Recasts

Recasts generally refer to a reformulation of the learner's error and are fairly versatile, for they can be realized in different ways. In the following example a partial reformulation, followed by a complete reformulation becomes apparent.

S: I went there two times.
T: You've been. You've been there twice as a group? (Ellis 2009: 9)

Interestingly, recasts can both be explicit as well as implicit. Sheen and Ellis (2011), for instance, distinguish between *conversational* and *didactic recasts*. The former type refers to "a reformulation of a student utterance in the attempt to resolve a communication problem" (ibid.: 594) and often involves confirmation checks such as "Oh, so you were sick, were you?" (ibid.). Didactic recasts, in turn, constitute "a reformulation of a student utterance even though no communication problem has arisen" (ibid.).

Due to the fact that recasts assume an important role in the field of oral CF, they will be presented and discussed in further detail in the subsequent chapter.

3. Clarification requests

Clarification requests are used to signal the student that their or her utterance was either ill-formed or that the meaning of the utterance was not understood. This feedback type is accompanied by clarification phrases such as, "I'm sorry?", "Pardon?" or "What?", with which the teacher seeks self-repair on the part of the student through repetition or reformulation. Clarification requests are output-prompting and implicit.

S: I want practice today, today.
T: I'm sorry? (Panova and Lyster 2002: 583)

4. Metalinguistic feedback

Metalinguistic feedback suggests that a mistake has occurred and attempts to raise metalinguistic awareness without explicitly referring to the erroneous part. This can be

provided in the form of comments ("There is an error"), questions ("Can you find your error?") or metalinguistic information. The latter typically includes grammatical metalanguage to define the mistake, as seen in the following example.

S: I go to a movie yesterday.
T: You need to use the past tense.
S: I went. (Li 2014: 196)

Furthermore, if the error occurred on the grounds of lexical failure, metalinguistic information can also involve a word definition. Metalinguistic feedback constitutes an output-prompting and explicit feedback type.

5. Elicitations

Elicitations expect the student to supply the correct form. This can be achieved in different ways. By repeating parts of the original utterance as well as pausing and rising their intonation towards the end, teachers attempt to elicit completion, as demonstrated in the following example.

S: I'll come if it will not rain.
T: I'll come if it …? (Ellis 2009: 9)

Furthermore, teachers can ask elicitative questions, for instance, "How do we say X in English?" or use reformulation requests, such as "Can you say it another way?" to elicit the correct form. Elicitations are output-promoting and rather implicit.

6. Repetitions

As exemplified in the following, by repeating and stressing the error, for instance, through rising intonation, a teacher signals the learner that the original word or phrase is erroneous. Repetitions are output-prompting and rather implicit.

S: I will showed you.
T: I will SHOWED you.
S: I'll show you. (Ellis 2009: 9)

Turning back to Lyster and Ranta's study, the observation revealed an excessive use of recasts on the part of the teachers. They (ibid.: 57) criticized this high frequency of recasts by referring to the ambiguity that recasts can cause on the part of the learners, as teachers often seemed to use them as a strategy to provide positive evidence. Calling into question the effectiveness of recasts, Lyster and Ranta (ibid.: 56) therefore proposed that "teachers might want to consider the whole range of techniques they have at their disposal rather

than relying so extensively on recasts" and added (ibid.: 57) that feedback types such as clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitations or repetitions "eliminate [the] ambiguity [of recasts] by allowing students to either self-correct or to correct their peers".

More than twenty years later, it is not only Lyster and Ranta's typology that remains relevant but also the question of whether some feedback types are more effective than others. As the research conducted regarding this matter is extensive, the subsequent chapter will scrutinize this aspect in further detail.

4.4.3. THE EFFICACY OF RECASTS AND PROMPTS

Today, when investigating the superiority of one feedback type over the other, researchers primarily distinguish between two groups, namely recasts and so-called prompts (referred to as *negotiation of form* by Lyster and Ranta 1997). While recasts, as already mentioned, refer to "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus the error" (Lyster and Ranta 1997: 46), prompts "withhold correct forms and instead provide clues to prompt students to retrieve these correct forms from their existing knowledge" (Lyster and Saito 2010: 268). In an attempt to clarify whether one CF type is indeed superior to the other, recasts and prompts will be examined in the following.

Advocators of recasts often relate their argumentation to first language acquisition studies and claim that the advantage of recasts is, on the one hand, that they provide positive as well as negative evidence and, on the other hand, that teachers can make their students aware of their mistakes but at the same time preserve the focus on meaning (e.g. Doughty and Varela 1998, Doughty 2001, Farrar 1992). Doughty and Varela (1998: 114), for instance, considered recasts to be "potentially effective, since the aim is to *add* attention to form to a primarily communicative task rather than to *depart* from an already communicative goal in order to discuss a linguistic feature". However, as briefly mentioned in the previous chapter, the question as to whether recasts, in fact, provide negative evidence has rightly sparked criticism. According to researchers such as Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998a), Ellis and Sheen (2006), Lyster and Saito (2010), the success of recasts depends on the individual learner, as conveying positive as well as negative evidence is only possible "if learners perceive the teacher's corrective intention" (Lyster and Saito 2010: 270). In turn, if learners fail to perceive the teachers' corrective intention, recasts are to be regarded as positive evidence only (ibid.). The assumption that recasts are rather ambiguous was reinforced by a study conducted by Lyster (1998a). By analyzing transcripts of more than

18 hours of interaction recorded in four French immersion classrooms, Lyster found recasts to be frequently used as a means of noncorrective repetition. Based on these findings, questioning whether learners are able to perceive the teacher's use of recasts as corrective feedback appears to be legitimate.

In contrast to the researchers opting for recasts on the basis of first language acquisition studies, other scholars claim that L2 learning is similar to skill acquisition and that learners need to "develop automaticity in target language use" (Lyster and Saito 2010: 270). Those researchers, therefore, favor the use of prompts, as they "provide learners with instances of negative evidence combined with cues leading to the retrieval of alternative forms, thus allowing for opportunities to practice emergent target forms in contexts of interaction" (ibid.). Criticizing this psycholinguistic basis for prompting, Long (2007: 102) argued that "acquisition of new knowledge is the major goal not 'automatizing' the retrieval of existing knowledge". Lyster (2007: 119), in turn, maintained his position and argued that "the ultimate goal of instruction is not to continuously present new knowledge to students, without sufficiently providing subsequent opportunities for assimilation and consolidation of that knowledge". As a matter of fact, the superiority of prompts over recasts, also becomes apparent when considering empirical investigations into this matter. For instance, Havranek's (2002) explorative classroom-based study involving 207 EFL learners of different age and proficiency levels and 1700 occurrences of CF showed that for oral CF to be of positive effect the learner needs to be able to spot the error through the teacher's guidance. As regards recasts, Havranek's study revealed a greater success rate of uptake if the learner repeated the correct form. Sheer recasts without repetition, on the other hand, were the least successful. Similarly, Yang and Lyster's (2010) quasi-experimental study with 72 Chinese EFL learners showed that the prompt receiving group generally outperformed the recast and control groups, which Yang and Lyster (ibid.: 258) ascribed, on the one hand, to the fact that prompts elicit self-correction on the part of the learners and, on the other hand, to the greater saliency of prompts during oral production activities. The argumentation in favor of prompts was furthermore reinforced by Lyster and Saito's (2010) meta-analysis, involving fifteen classroom-based studies (seven studies for recasts, seven studies for prompts and six for explicit correction). Moreover, Ammar and Spada (2006) scrutinized in a quasi-experimental study conducted with sixty-four ESL learners in Montreal the effectiveness of recasts and prompts. Even though their results ascribed a greater effectiveness to prompts, the researchers (ibid.: 566) interestingly claimed that

"one size does not fit all". They explained their point by arguing that differences between high-proficiency and low-proficiency learners as regards efficacy of feedback types were observable. Generally, prompts turned out to be more effective than recasts with respect to the low-proficiency learners. However, as a matter of fact, both prompts and recasts showed similar results as far as the high-proficiency participants were concerned. Ammar and Spada (ibid.) thus concluded that "the effectiveness of any CF technique needs to be evaluated in relation to learners' proficiency levels".

While some researchers believe that different language levels determine the effectiveness of CF types, others are concerned with the effectiveness of feedback moves for different types of mistake. In a study involving more than 18 hours of audio-recordings of four French immersion classrooms, Lyster (1998b), for instance, aimed at not only investigating the relationship between teachers' use of feedback types and learner uptake but also at determining which feedback moves teachers tended to use depending on the type of error. Errors were grouped into the following categories: (1) grammatical, (2) phonological (3) lexical errors as well as (4) the unsolicited use of L1. The study revealed that teachers opted for prompts after lexical errors and for recasts after grammatical and phonological mistakes. While the recasting of phonological errors as well as the use of prompts for lexical errors turned out to be effective as regards student repair, the study illustrated that prompts were more successful than recasts in the case of grammatical errors. Lyster's inference (1998b) was reinforced by Tsang (2004), who carried out a study under similar conditions. Transcribing and analyzing 18 EFL lessons (945 minutes) at secondary schools in Hong Kong, Tsang (2004) deduced that corrective feedback was most often provided by means of recasts. However, as far as learner uptake was concerned, recasts were the least successful feedback type. The most effective feedback strategy, on the other hand, turned out to result from repetitions. In most cases recasts only led to successful repair after phonological errors.

While the studies above fundamentally came to the same conclusion, namely that prompt-receiving learners generally outperformed recast-receiving learners, it still has to be noted that there are also studies supporting the use of recasts. Mackey and Philp (1998), for instance, studied ESL learners interacting with native speakers and concluded that recasts had a positive impact on the learners' development of English question formation. Another study in favor of recasts was conducted by Han (2002), who studied the impact of recasts

on tense consistency by investigating eight EFL learners of upper intermediate level participating in a one semester intensive English course. Han concluded that recasts were effective, as they increased the learners' L2 awareness. Furthermore, recasts helped the learners to improve their tense consistency during oral and written production activities. Nevertheless, Han (ibid.: 568) also emphasized that there are certain conditions such as "(a) individualized attention, (b) consistent focus, (c) developmental readiness, and (d) intensity" that have to be met for recasts to be effective.

In general, even though there is empirical evidence suggesting the efficacy of recasts, research work on oral CF has shown that prompts usually yield better results than recasts, which points to the assumption that prompts can be considered as more effective. Nonetheless, there are certainly a few aspects one has to bear in mind. First, as rightly noted by Goo and Mackey (2013: 150), "recasts have been compared to another treatment condition that often involves more than one type of feedback, which in essence, compares one variable with multiple variables". Indeed, they (ibid.) revealed this as problematic, as "learners receiving multiple types of feedback have more opportunities to benefit from contextually appropriate feedback than those exposed to only one type of feedback during the entire task". Furthermore, the two scholars justly criticized that prompts frequently comprise a "double feedback move", as seen in a study conducted by Lyster and Izquierdo (2009), in which errors were corrected by means of clarification requests. However, if needed, repeating the learner error was also allowed, which hence resulted in a double feedback move. Second, it should be mentioned that the fact that prompts have received better results might be linked to the fact that recasts are often defined differently. In spite of having been an extensively researched field, studies on recasts have often shown significantly different results. As identified by Nicholas, Lightbown and Spada (2001: 752), "[o]ne factor that has led to apparently different findings is that the operational definition of recasts has varied considerably". Ellis and Sheen (2006: 5) called this "the most obvious problem because it makes it very difficult to compare the results obtained by different L2 studies of recasts, given that often enough these studies were not looking at the same thing". Doughty and Varela (1998), for instance, referred in an experimental study to the term *corrective recasting*, which involved two feedback moves, namely the teacher's repetition of a learner's inaccurate utterance as well as the recasting of the full phrase. Farrar (1992), on the other hand, differentiated between *corrective recasts* and *non-corrective recasts*. While the former implies "a recast that corrects a target error" (ibid.:

92), the latter constitutes “a recast that does not correct a target but models a target” (ibid.). While these are only two examples (see Ellis and Sheen 2006 for an overview of definitions) that show how differently recasts have been defined, they aptly illustrate how “chameleonlike” (Ellis and Sheen 2006: 579) recasts are and show fairly well why a comparison of results proves to be difficult. In order to come to more fruitful conclusions, it might therefore be helpful to solve the definition problem in advance.

To conclude, it seems that from a pedagogical view both recasts and prompts are welcome in the EFL classroom. Nonetheless, teachers should bear in mind that, as aptly summarized by Lyster and Saito (2010: 290), while theoretically

> classroom learners appear to benefit from the positive evidence available in recasts as well as from the opportunities they provide to infer negative evidence, […] these learners seem to benefit even more from the negative evidence available in prompts and from the greater demand they impose for producing modified output.

Therefore, if teachers want to be on the safe side and ensure that the learners recognize oral CF, prompts might be the more appropriate choice.

5. PREVIOUS FINDINGS ON STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ORAL CF

SLA research has revealed that investigating students' and teachers' attitudes and comparing them to one another seems to be vital, considering the fact that a mismatch might negatively affect language learning (e.g. Amrhein and Nassaji 2010, Brown 2009, Lyster, Saito and Sato 2013). Hence, after having thoroughly discussed the concept of oral CF and its efficacy, this chapter will be concerned with previous findings on students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF. While the first part of this chapter will focus on students' and teachers' general attitudes towards oral CF as well as their attitudes towards different oral CF types, the second part will be concerned with students' affective responses to oral CF and how teachers perceive their students' emotional reactions.

5.1. STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ORAL CF

One of the earliest studies showing that learners welcome frequent oral CF, as opposed to their teachers' beliefs, leads back to Cathcart and Olsen (1976). To begin with, the two researchers asked a total of 21 teachers working at three community colleges and one university to record a class session with the aim of receiving relevant information as to what kind of errors students make and how those errors are treated by their teachers. Based on the teachers' corrections, Cathcart and Olsen then classified twelve different feedback moves. As a next step, the researchers administered a questionnaire to 188 ESL students and 38 teachers. The questionnaires revealed that there was a mismatch between the students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF. While the majority of the students expressed their wish of being corrected all the time, many teachers stated that they would correct oral grammar mistakes most of the time in drills but not very often in conversation. The assumption that students are positively inclined to oral CF was reinforced by Chenoweth, Day, Chun and Luppescu (1983). Questioning 418 ESL learners studying at three different institutions in Hawaii, Chenoweth *et al.* attempted to investigate learners' attitudes towards corrective feedback provided by native speaker friends. The study revealed that, independent of program level and nationality, the students generally displayed positive attitudes towards oral CF and welcomed the idea of receiving a larger amount of oral CF. Another earlier study identifying a striking discrepancy between students' and teachers' attitudes as regards the correction of oral mistakes was provided by Schulz (1996). In an exploratory study Schulz questioned 824 language students and 92 teachers about their attitudes on error correction and the role of grammar. The results

showed that, while 90.0% of the students supported the idea of oral CF, only 30.0% of the teachers believed it generally to be necessary. In order to investigate whether cultural differences influence students' and teachers' attitudes on error correction and the role of grammar, Schulz (2001) replicated her original study (Schulz 1996) with 607 FL learners from Colombia and 824 FL learners from the United States as well as their teachers working in Colombia and the United States (122 teachers and 92 teachers respectively). The findings indicated almost no discrepancies between American and Colombian learners and neither between the two teacher groups. Nonetheless, when student and teacher responses were compared, a mismatch became evident, as 90.0% of the American students and 97.0% of the Colombian students stated that they wanted to receive correction on their oral mistakes, whereas only 30.0% of American teachers and 39.0% of Colombian teachers ascribed importance to oral corrective feedback. Schulz therefore concluded that there are no cultural differences regarding students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF.

Assuming a mismatch between teachers' and students' attitudes towards oral CF has been furthermore illustrated in more recent research (e.g. Han and Jung 2007, Lee 2013, Roothooft and Breeze 2016, Saeb 2017). Investigating the attitudes towards oral CF of 60 advanced-level ESL students and four teachers, Lee (2013) concluded that while the students preferred frequent immediate correction in conversations and teacher-student interactions, the teachers were clearly against correcting all errors immediately. Likewise, Saeb (2017) administered a questionnaire study with EFL learners and EFL teachers regarding their perceptions and preferences on oral CF and concluded that the majority of learners was in favor of receiving correction for all their errors. The teachers, on the contrary, were less inclined to correct all mistakes and in favor of providing oral CF when the mistake makes the message difficult to understand, as "the main aim of language learning is communication and hence correcting every single error is pointless" (ibid.: 40). The students, however, argued that "correcting all errors makes them aware of their problems and prevents them from repeating errors" (ibid.).

Although the studies presented above show students' clear preference for frequent oral CF, an important aspect has to be considered. As a matter of fact, the question as to what extent students' beliefs reflect reality remains debatable and the question as to how satisfied learners would indeed be if all their mistakes were corrected can be raised. In this respect, Cathcart and Olsen (1976: 50) reported on a noteworthy experiment carried out

by one of the teachers taking part in their study. Interestingly, she attempted to correct every single mistake in order to show her students what this would actually mean in practice. After the experiment, the learners admitted that the ongoing interruptions made it hard for them to stay focused.

The experiment referred to in Cathcart and Olsen (1976) aptly illustrates that attitudes are not tantamount to reality and have to be regarded with certain caution. Therefore, it is not surprising that researchers have also been interested in comparing attitudes to actual practices. Katayama (2007), for instance, carried out an interesting study regarding the relationship between learners' attitudes and teachers' actual practices. Having supervised and observed EFL teaching assistants at a Japanese university, Katayama had the impression that too little oral corrective feedback was given during English lessons. Considering that "matching the expectations of teachers and learners is important for successful language learning" (ibid.: 64), Katayama investigated Japanese EFL learners' perceptions towards oral corrective feedback and found that the vast majority of learners were in favor of frequent oral corrective feedback. Indeed, most learners wanted their teachers to correct all oral errors, in particular grammatical errors. Concluding that the learners showed strong positive attitudes towards oral CF and that the teachers provided only little oral CF, Katayama's study therefore confirmed her initial concerns, namely that there is a mismatch between the students' preferences and the teachers' practices as regards oral CF.

In sum, studies throughout the past forty years have come to similar conclusions, namely that the learners' desire towards frequent oral CF is higher than both expected and provided by their teachers.

5.2. STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ORAL CF TYPES

Having elaborated on students' and teachers' general attitudes towards oral CF and how they relate to actual practices, another interesting aspect to expound on concerns the question as to whether the mismatch between teachers' and students' attitudes also prevails with respect to the different feedback types.

As already touched upon in the previous section, Cathcart and Olsen (1976) analyzed the learners' preferences as regards CF types and the teachers' use of feedback moves and observed that the students' most preferred feedback move was the teachers' use of the

correct model, followed by explicit corrections and metalinguistic feedback which are all rather explicit types of CF. The students' least preferred feedback types were besides no correction at all, vague utterances such as "Mmmmm" or "What's the second word?". The same conclusion was drawn when student responses were analyzed according to different class levels. As regards the teachers' preferences, the teachers liked elicitations best, followed by what Cathcart and Olsen (ibid.: 46) classified as "correct model with request for more information", as well as the provision of the correct model. On the other hand, much like their students, they disliked phrases such as "What's the second word?" and no correction at all. Interestingly, however, explicit corrections, while clearly favored by the students, were dismissed by the teachers. In general, though, Cathcart and Olsen's study showed that the mismatch between the students' and teachers' preferences towards the way feedback can be provided was not too significant. This observation was also supported by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005). The researchers first showed a video to eleven undergraduate students and 10 EFL teachers. Then, having watched it twice, the participants were required to recognize the oral CF moves utilized by the instructors in the video, categorize them and determine their efficacy. As a last step, they were asked to explain why they found the corrective feedback to be efficient or not. The study showed that the teachers' and students' beliefs were in accord as they agreed that oral CF is most effective when teachers take enough time to correct, provide longer explanations and make use of different feedback moves.

Nonetheless, more recent research has revealed that, as already remarked in the previous section, not only is there a mismatch as regards students' and teachers' general attitudes towards oral CF but also with respect to their attitudes towards different oral CF types (e.g. Han and Jung 2007, Lee 2013, Roothooft and Breeze 2016, Saeb 2017). The aforementioned study by Lee (2013) showed that the teachers preferred more implicit CF types such as recasts, whereas the learners were in favor of immediate and explicit CF. As a matter of fact, the learners regarded explicit corrections to be valuable, as they are quick, direct, time-saving and easy to understand. In turn, the learners did not appreciate clarification requests, for they regarded them as vague and unclear and believed that clarification requests were more likely to produce embarrassment. That there is a mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes towards CF types was furthermore shown by Saeb (2017). Saeb concluded that the students most approved of explicit feedback types, such as explicit correction with a metalinguistic explanation, based on the fact that "in order to learn

effectively and enduringly, they [students] need to see their errors specified and receive detailed explanation as well as being provided with the correct form by the teacher" (ibid.: 40). The teachers, in turn, regarded implicit feedback types to be more effective and based their argumentation on the grounds "that they were anxious to promote learner autonomy through encouraging students to locate their own errors and to find the correct form" (ibid.).

Moreover, researchers have been interested in whether learners' language level affects students' and teachers' preferences for certain CF types. Having observed 52 ESL learners of beginning and intermediate levels as well as nine teachers, Han and Jung (2007) concluded that the teachers of low-proficiency learners most frequently used explicit correction, whereas the teachers of intermediate level students most often employed recasts. Han and Jung (2007: 254) explained this observation by assuming that teachers may believe more explicit feedback to be more appropriate for beginners, as they are "relatively insensitive to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the correct target language forms". With regard to the learners' preference, both beginning as well as intermediate level students preferred immediate and explicit correction, thus indicating that the intermediate level teachers' and students' preferences were not in line. While Han and Jung's study did not show discrepancies between beginning and intermediate level learners' preferences for certain CF types, Brown (2009) found in his study on students' and teachers' perceptions of effective FL teaching that second-year students showed more positive attitudes towards indirect oral CF than first year students. This is also in accordance with Lee (2013: 228), who concluded that high-proficiency learners "can more easily recognize teachers' implicit CF, so they can notice and potentially correct their erroneous utterances without interrupting communicative flow".

Considering students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF types, one has to bear in mind that, as already mentioned in the previous chapter, attitudes do not necessarily reflect actual practices. Yoshida (2008), for instance, studying learners' preference and teachers' choice of CF types by means of classroom recordings, observations, and interviews, drew the conclusion that the teachers' most frequently applied feedback type was recasts, despite the fact that they believed feedback types which elicit self-correction to be more effective. Thus, the teachers' beliefs were not in line with their actual practices. Being questioned about their feedback choice in interviews, the teachers explained that

they try to adapt their feedback type to learners' cognitive styles and admitted that their choice for recasts was due to time constraints. Furthermore, they argued that they try to avoid feedback types which could trigger intimidation on the part of the learners.

To sum up, even though early studies have come to different results, it has been observed that there is a mismatch between what students and teachers believe to be effective feedback types.

5.3. STUDENTS' AFFECTIVE RESPONSES TO ORAL CF

Another noteworthy aspect in relation to oral CF concerns students' affective responses to oral CF and teachers' perceptions. It is unfortunate, however, that not much has been published in this respect. As a matter of fact, most empirical research to date has investigated this topic either only by referring to it briefly as part of a general study on students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF, or by focusing only on students' affective responses to oral CF but not on how teachers perceive the students' emotional reactions. Thus, besides Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) survey, the studies included in this chapter will only touch upon certain aspects that can be linked to the overall topic.

As mentioned before, despite the fact that a substantial amount of research has demonstrated the efficacy of oral CF, oral CF has also received criticism. Scholars such as Krashen (1982, 1985) or Truscott (1999) advocated against the employment of oral CF, for they regarded it as potentially detrimental with respect to L2 learning. As argued by Truscott (ibid.: 441), oral CF might "produce embarrassment, anger, inhibition, feelings of inferiority, and a generally negative attitude toward the class" on the part of the students. Bearing this assumption in mind, Martínez Agudo (2013) thus attempted to explore students' emotional responses to oral CF and in how far oral CF influences students' motivations and attitudes regarding L2 learning. Having administered a questionnaire to 208 EFL learners studying at secondary schools in Spain, Martínez Agudo found that the students did not necessarily react negatively to oral CF. Interestingly, the survey revealed that even though the majority of the students stated to resent as well as to worry about making oral mistakes, only around 4.0% agreed that they "resent being orally corrected by the teacher in the classroom" (ibid.: 270). Moreover, the survey showed that more than a third of the students felt pleased after receiving oral CF, albeit the feelings of embarrassment and anger were also amongst the most selected options (15.0% and 13.0% respectively). Thus, Martínez Agudo concluded that the students generally appreciated the

teacher's oral CF and actually found it to be helpful. Another study worth mentioning, despite its focus lying on learners' and teachers' CF preferences and learner repair, was conducted by Lee (2013). In her study, which was already mentioned above, Lee investigated whether oral CF produces embarrassment on the part of the students. Interestingly, Lee's (ibid.: 224) findings showed that neither the students nor the teachers believed that oral CF produces embarrassment. Thus, the students' attitudes were in line with the teachers'.

Furthermore, corrective feedback has also been believed to cause FL anxiety, a term that was coined by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986: 128) and defined as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process". However, research has shown that anxieties are not necessarily triggered by corrective feedback and that, contrary to the expectations of many, "feedback can help reduce anxiety levels, and in turn, increase students' confidence" (Martin and Alvarez Valdivia 2017: 1). Zhang and Rahimi (2014), for instance, were interested in exploring whether high-anxiety and low-anxiety learners held different beliefs as concerns oral CF and found that "when learners were made aware of the purpose, significance and types of CF, their anxiety did not negatively impact their CF beliefs; rather, both the high- and the low-anxiety groups strongly favoured receiving frequent CF for their errors" (ibid.: 434). Similarly, Lee (2016) aimed at examining the relationship between teachers' oral CF and ESL students' language anxiety levels. By means of classroom observations, two survey questionnaires including a pre- and post-survey as well as follow-up interviews, Lee showed that the teachers' oral CF had a positive effect on the students' emotional state and indeed lowered their anxiety as regards speaking English. Lee (ibid.: 88) thus concluded that "effective L2 pedagogy must use CF to encourage or even create positive emotional states in ESL students". Nevertheless, it should be noted that the study also revealed that oral CF can have a negative impact if the wrong feedback type is employed. In fact, the use of clarification requests resulted in increased anxiety levels and demotivated the students to speak English. This therefore, as mentioned before, proves that teachers need to carefully reflect upon the CF types they use.

As regards the question of whether there is a mismatch between students' affective responses to oral CF and teachers' perceptions, Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) study appears to be the only survey that has scrutinized this matter. Having administered a

questionnaire study to both EFL learners and teachers, Roothooft and Breeze (ibid.: 332) concluded that

> although most of the teachers in this study referred to negative feelings when asked about their students' reactions to CF, the nearly 400 students who completed our survey indicated that they rarely experience negative reactions such as embarrassment or inhibition when they are interrupted with corrections.

Roothooft and Breeze's findings thus suggest that students' affective responses to oral CF are not in line with teachers' perceptions.

Overall, it can be concluded that linking oral CF to negative feelings such as embarrassment or anger as well as to anxieties appears to be unsubstantiated, as research has demonstrated that students' affective responses to oral CF are generally rather positive. Nevertheless, one has to bear in mind that these conclusions were drawn based on limited empirical evidence. Therefore, it is indispensable for researchers to scrutinize this matter in further detail.

6. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH PROJECT – A REPLICATION STUDY

The aim of this chapter is to present the empirical research project conducted for this thesis on EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF. As a first step, the research questions and hypotheses will be outlined. Then, before delineating the methodological framework, Roothooft and Breeze's study will be briefly described.

6.1. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The research questions were taken from Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) study "A comparison of EFL teachers' and students' attitudes to oral corrective feedback" and read as follows:

(1) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF and how well do they correspond?
(2) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards the different types of CF?
(3) How do EFL students claim to feel when they receive oral CF and how do EFL teachers perceive the students' affective responses to oral CF?

Based on Roothooft and Breeze's findings and in response to the research questions above, the subsequent hypotheses were formulated:

(1) There is a mismatch between EFL students' and teachers' attitudes with respect to the question of whether or not spoken errors should be corrected.
(2) EFL students' and teachers' attitudes are not in line as regards the different feedback types.
(3) EFL students' affective responses to oral CF are not in accordance with teachers' perceptions.

6.2. THE ORIGINAL STUDY – "A COMPARISON OF EFL TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TO ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK" BY ROOTHOOFT AND BREEZE (2016)

As the present study is based on Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) survey, this section will briefly present their study. Hereby the focus will lie on their main findings, as their questionnaire design and data processing will be outlined in Chapter 6.3.

Acknowledging the fact that students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF have not received as much attention as the overall efficacy of CF, Roothooft and Breeze felt the urge to shed more light on this matter. Thus, based on few studies revealing that students prefer

to be corrected much more in contrast to their teachers' beliefs (e.g. Cathcart and Olsen 1976, Schulz 2001, 2006), Roothooft and Breeze decided to address this topic in further detail. To this end, Roothooft and Breeze administered a questionnaire study involving 395 EFL learners and 46 EFL teachers studying and teaching at various secondary schools and private language academies in Spain. In response to the research questions mentioned above, Roothooft and Breeze concluded that 99.0% of the students expressed themselves in favor of receiving oral CF. When questioned about how often they would wish for their errors to be corrected, out of those 99.0%, the vast majority (61.3%) stated that they would like to be corrected at all times. As far as the teachers' view is concerned, the results showed that the teachers were less convinced as regards the provision of oral CF, as only 37.0% showed fully positive attitudes, whereas 55.6% displayed mixed attitudes and 7.4% even fell into the fully negative category. With respect to the frequency of oral CF, the majority of the teachers believed that teachers should refrain from correcting too often. As regards the feedback types, Roothooft and Breeze concluded that, while the students were in favor of feedback types such as metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction, the teachers believed elicitation and complete recasts to be more effective. With respect to the students' emotional response to oral CF, Roothooft and Breeze observed another mismatch, as the vast majority of learners react positively to receiving oral CF, whereas the majority of the teachers thought that the students' reactions reflect a mixture of positive and negative feelings.

To sum up, Roothooft and Breeze's findings showed that there is an obvious mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes, not only towards oral CF in general but also as regards oral CF types as well as the students' affective responses to oral CF.

6.3. METHODOLOGY

After having introduced the original study, this section will focus on the methodological underpinnings in more detail. The first part will describe the replication approach, introduce the research instrument and outline the modifications undertaken as regards the original questionnaire. The second part will then be concerned with the questionnaire administration and data processing.

6.3.1. THE REPLICATION APPROACH

Deriving from the Latin word *replicare*, which means "to repeat", a replication study, as defined by Porte (2012: 2), "encourages us to return to and repeat a previous study and compare what we discover with what was found or observed originally" or, to be more precise,

> [a] replication study attempts to discover whether the same findings are obtained by another researcher in another context, and whether the outcome appears to reflect knowledge which can therefore be separated from the context in which it was originally found. (ibid.: 3)

Broadly speaking, replication studies thus aim at investigating whether previous findings are generalizable. As illustrated by Porte (2012: 8), the replication method can be applied in various ways. It can be *exact*, *conceptual* or *approximate*. As suggested by this terminology, the former reproduces a study as exactly as possible (e.g. same participants, same tasks, same setting), whereas conceptual replication takes, in fact, the research problem of the original study as the foundation but applies a new research design. The third type, approximate replication, as defined by Porte (ibid.),

> involves repeating the original study exactly in most respects, but changing nonmajor variables (in a way that allows for comparability between the original and replication studies). For example, researchers may investigate a different population (e.g., a different age or proficiency level of student), perhaps in a different setting (e.g., English as a second language [ESL] vs. English as a foreign language [EFL], or perhaps using a different task (e.g., a written one instead of an oral one). The purpose of this kind of replication "with changes" is to see if the results of the original study are generalizable, for example, to a new population, setting, or modality.

In the case of the research study conducted for this thesis, an approximate replication was employed in order to investigate whether Roothooft and Breeze's findings are valid in a different context. By carrying out the study with Austrian EFL learners and EFL teachers, the population and the setting of the study have changed. As regards the population, it was renounced to include adult students in the sample on the grounds that as a future English teacher working in Austria investigating the attitudes of secondary school students appeared to be of greater value. Consequently, the average age in my study is lower than in the original one. Likewise, by administering the study in Austria, the geographical setting has changed. Thus, it should be kept in mind that the majority of the participants were native speakers of German and not Spanish, as this might also have an impact on the findings.

6.3.2. RESEARCH INSTRUMENT: QUESTIONNAIRE

For the purpose of this study it was decided to collect data by means of a questionnaire, on the one hand, for it is the research instrument utilized by Roothooft and Breeze (2016); on the other hand, because questionnaires have become a popular research tool in L2 research (Dörnyei 2010: xiii). By courtesy of Roothooft and Breeze, the original teacher and student questionnaires were provided. In the subsequent section, these questionnaires as well as the modifications undertaken will be exemplified.

The original questionnaires

Consisting of six pages, the teacher questionnaire, which was written in English, encompassed four open-ended and seven closed-ended questions. The closed-ended questions included numeric items, four-point rating scale items as well as multiple-choice items. The four-page long student questionnaire comprised a total of eight questions, of which the majority was closed-ended (e.g. numeric, true-false, multiple-choice and four-point rating scale items), as students are usually rather taciturn with regard to open-ended questions (Roothooft and Breeze 2016: 323). In contrast to the teacher questionnaire, the student questionnaire was written in Spanish in order to guarantee the students' comprehension regardless of their English level. Despite the fact that the teacher questionnaire contained a total of eleven questions and the student questionnaire involved eight questions, Roothooft and Breeze emphasized that solely three questions would be pertinent for the purpose of their study, namely those matching the three research questions. Consequently, only those three questions were presented in further detail by Roothooft and Breeze and will therefore be outlined in the subsequent section. The complete teacher as well as student questionnaire, however, can be found in the appendix.

Based on Jean and Simard (2011), Roothooft and Breeze asked the teachers in an open-ended question "Do you think it is important to give students feedback on language mistakes when they speak? Why/why not?" in order to investigate the teachers' attitudes towards oral CF. Likewise, the students were questioned to indicate their beliefs by means of a closed-ended question, as exemplified in Excerpt 4.

If you have to speak English in class and you make a mistake, do you want your teacher to correct you, yes or no?

If your answer is yes, how often do you want to be corrected?

A. Always

B. Often

C. Only if I have problems expressing myself clearly

D. Only if I make a mistake against something we have already studied or something we are studying at that moment.

Excerpt 4. Question from the student questionnaire corresponding to the first research question (Roothooft and Breeze 2016: 323).

As far as the second research question is concerned, the teachers as well as learners were asked to rate different feedback types on a four-point rating scale, as illustrated in Excerpt 5. While the question itself used by Roothooft and Breeze can be attributed to Cathcart and Olsen (1976), the answers employed were based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) oral CF typology and thus covered examples of explicit correction, recasts (partial and complete), clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation as well as repetition.

A student makes a grammar mistake. How effective do you think the teacher's reactions are to help the student improve?
Teacher: What did you do last weekend?
Student: I watch a film with my friends.

Teacher's reaction:	**Very effective**	**Quite effective**	**It depends**	**Not effective**
1. No, not watch, watched.				
2. Oh, you watched a film. Which one?				
3. watched				
4. I'm sorry?/ Pardon?				
5. You need to use the past tense.				
6. Last weekend I …? (pausing, with rising intonation)				
7. I WATCH a film? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)				

Excerpt 5. Question from the teacher questionnaire corresponding to the second research question (Roothooft and Breeze 2016: 324).

With respect to the third research question, the teachers were asked in an open-ended question "How do you think your students feel when you give them feedback on their oral mistakes?", whereas learners were given a closed-ended question with different reactions to rate from 'never' to 'often' (see Excerpt 6). Roothooft and Breeze based the negative reactions on Truscott (1999), whereas the positive reaction can be attributed to some of the teachers' contributions in the pilot study.

You need to say something in English in class and your teacher interrupts you to correct you. Indicate with an X how often you react in the following ways:

How do you react?	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1. I am happy.				
2. I am frustrated.				
3. I am embarrassed.				
4. I am grateful.				
5. I freeze up.				
6. I feel bad because I speak English badly				
7. I think I am going to speak less English in class in the future.				

Excerpt 6. Question from the student questionnaire corresponding to the third research question (Roothooft and Breeze 2016: 325).

The modified questionnaires

In spite of the employment of the replication approach, it is imperative to review the original questionnaires and modify them where necessary. To this end, Dörnyei's (2010) manual on questionnaire construction, administration and processing, was consulted as a guideline and reference tool.

As a first step, the title of both questionnaires was rephrased, since it is advisable to refrain from title words such as 'questionnaire' or 'survey' (Aiken 1997, referred to in Dörnyei 2010: 18). Furthermore, the information box of the student and teacher questionnaire was revised. This involved deleting items which were irrelevant, for instance because they were covered by other items, as well as adjusting items in so far as they would be suitable for the target sample.

Besides, the questionnaires were analyzed and modified keeping in mind Dörnyei's (2010: 12) assumption that "the general temptation is always to cover too much ground by asking everything that might turn out to be interesting", even though it does not necessarily contribute to the research problem. In order to avoid this, Dörnyei (ibid.: 22) recommended to "focus on clarifying the research problem and identifying what critical concepts need to be addressed by the questionnaire". Regarding Roothooft and Breeze's student questionnaire, Question 2 was fully removed, since asking learners to rate different classroom activities from 'often' to 'never' did not seem to be relevant in relation to the research questions.

As regards Question 1e, the activities were adjusted, so they would be appropriate for secondary school students. Thus, the activities aimed at adult students in the original study

were deleted. Moreover, one item, which enabled the students to insert an activity or reaction, was added to Questions 1e and 8.

Another important adaptation concerns the format of Question 6, which was modified in so far as that the students could rate the importance of correcting mistakes according to the type of error on a scale from 'very important' to 'unimportant', instead of ranking the mistakes from 1 (most important) to 3 (least important). Based on Dörnyei (2010: 34), this modification can be justified as follows:

> [R]ank order items impose a more difficult task on the respondent than single-response items. Furthermore, unlike in a rating scale in which a person can assign the same value to several items […] in rank order items each sub-component must have a different value even though such a forced choice may not be natural in every case.

Furthermore, Dörnyei (ibid.: 35) added that rating scales items are easier to process statistically. Besides, the examples used in Question 6 needed to be adapted, inasmuch as native speakers of German could relate to the mistakes, since the original examples were aimed at native speakers of Spanish. Once the student questionnaire was revised, it was translated to German, so students would not find themselves confronted with possible language barriers.

Further modifications concerned the general instructions of the student questionnaire, which needed to be adjusted for the target sample. According to Dörnyei (2010: 19), the opening greeting should include features such as explaining the context of the study, mentioning the organization involved, highlighting that there are no right or wrong responses, guaranteeing confidentiality as well as thanking the participants for their cooperation. Taking these aspects into account, the general instructions were modified accordingly.

As far as the teacher questionnaire is concerned, Item 2 ("How much time do you think your students spend speaking the target language during a typical lesson?") and Item 3 ("How much time do you normally spend on pair or group work?") were eliminated, as the answers obtained would not contribute to the research topic. In turn, the items "Have you ever come across the topic of oral corrective feedback in your teacher training program/any other further education course you have taken?" and "How do you feel when you give them feedback on their oral mistakes?" were inserted. Moreover, the question "Why/why not?" was added to Question 5 "Do you think your students expect to get feedback on their oral

mistakes?", in order not to solely elicit a Yes/No answer. Furthermore, the sequencing of the questions was slightly modified. Question 11 was moved up, so it would be preceded by Question 7, as they both are concerned with feedback types and it consequently seemed logical to place them next to each other. Finally, some specific instructions were slightly rephrased.

Final adjustments pertained to the design of both questionnaires. As suggested by Sanchez (1992: 206), "the design of questionnaire layout is frequently overlooked as an important aspect of the development of field instruments". Dörnyei (2010: 13) further emphasizes that "an attractive and professional design is half the battle in eliciting reliable and valid data", as it helps to convince the participants of the seriousness of the study (ibid.: 77). Apart from the tone and content of the questionnaire, this can be achieved by an orderly layout, for example through the use of bold characters or italics (ibid.: 14). Following these suggestions, the layout of both questionnaires was revised in order to make them more professional and reader-friendly. Bold characters were used for questions, as they help "to separate the instructions from the rest of the text" (ibid.: 19). Furthermore, a white and gray color scheme was used for the tables and small boxes were inserted into each cell, so it would be obvious where to put the 'X'.

Overall, as a result of the modification process, the new questionnaires resulted to be slightly shorter than their original counterparts. Although some questions could have been further removed, as Roothooft and Breeze based their study on solely three questions, it was decided to leave the remaining questions in the questionnaire, since they might produce interesting results nonetheless.

6.3.3. THE PILOT STUDY AND FINAL MODIFICATIONS

In order "to collect feedback about how the instrument works and whether it performs the job it has been designed for" (Dörnyei 2010: 53), a pilot study was carried out as a second stage.

Concerning the student questionnaire, one male and three female pupils aged between 13 and 17, who all met the requirements of the target population, agreed to participate in the pilot study. At the outset, the pupils were provided with some general information about the study and its context. It was highlighted that their participation would be relevant for the revision of the questionnaire rather than for the study itself. Once the participants had

completed the questionnaire, feedback forms (see Appendix), which asked for comprehension of wording and vocabulary, possible difficulties with the rating scales as well as the overall layout of the questionnaire were distributed. Moreover, the feedback form gave the students the opportunity to express further suggestions and propose possible changes.

With the exception of one question, the students' feedback responses matched. They all confirmed that the questions were comprehensible as regards wording and vocabulary and that they did not encounter any problems with the rating scales. In general, they perceived the questionnaire as clear and accessible. While three students did not believe that the questionnaire needed any changing, one student proposed to rephrase Item 1a ("At what age did you start learning English?"), as she was uncertain about whether she should include her last year of primary school, in which pupils only touch upon some English basics.

Subsequent to the feedback forms, a second stage of feedback was provided through an oral feedback session, during which each item was closely examined. This stage turned out to be more instructive and enriching, which was probably due to the fact that, by going through each question, the students assumed a more reflective perspective as compared to before. During this feedback session, it was suggested that Item 1c ("Have you lived in an English-speaking country (USA, Great Britain, Canada,…)?") and Item 1d ("Have you lived in a country where you used English to communicate?") could be merged into one question, since the subsequent question ("Where and for how long?") would reveal the country in any case. Furthermore, three out of four students confessed that they first misplaced the crosses in Question 4 and consequently suggested to revise the instructions accordingly.

On the basis of this pilot study, the following modifications were carried out as regards the student questionnaire. Item 1a was deleted on the grounds that all secondary school students most likely started learning English during their first year in secondary school. In case this assumption turned out not to be true, for example, if some students were brought up with English, the researcher would most likely find out by reviewing the items concerned with the student's first language(s) or the student's experience acquired abroad. Furthermore, Item 1c and 1d, as suggested by the students, were merged into one question. As far as Question 4 is concerned, the instructions were adjusted, so it would be clear that the students should tick the corresponding boxes in the table. Besides these changes, it was also decided that the introductory paragraph of the questionnaire would

be read aloud on the day of the administration, as recommended by Dörnyei (2010: 77), since the feedback session revealed that none of the students had read the general instructions in advance.

Regarding the pilot study of the teacher questionnaire, the field testing was conducted with four female participants, of whom three represented the target population and one was an English teacher-to-be student in her final year. Attached to an email, the questionnaire was sent to the participants. The participants were requested to fill out the questionnaire and to give feedback on it. In contrast to the student pilot study, no extra feedback form was attached, as it was assumed that adults would be more forthcoming.

Two out of four participants thought that the questionnaire was clear and did not need any changing. The third participant admitted that she was briefly confused, as she initially thought that Question 7 and 10 were identical since their phrasing was almost identical and the only difference was that one asked for 'how much', while the other one asked for 'what type'. This irritation could most likely be attributed to the sequencing of the questions, which was changed in the course of the revision process, as mentioned in the preceding chapter. Even though this was only a minor aspect, it was decided to adjust the order of the questions and place the two items next to each other, as it is crucial that participants perceive the structure of the questionnaire as organized and orderly (Dörnyei 2010: 47).

The feedback of the fourth participant turned out to be particularly revealing, as it occurred on a one-to-one basis in a long conversation. As a first aspect, the participant mentioned that she was confused with respect to Question 10, as she was not sure whether 'how much' referred to the frequency or the length of the feedback. As a consequence, the phrasing was changed from 'how much' to 'how often'. Moreover, in the course of the feedback session, a close comparison of the original rating scales as regards the feedback types revealed some weaknesses. Roothooft and Breeze seemed to equate 'it depends' on the teacher questionnaire (Question 6) with 'not very good' on the student questionnaire (Question 5) in their analysis. As this appeared to be rather misleading, 'it depends' was changed into 'rather not effective' on the teacher questionnaire. In the course of renaming the categories, it was furthermore decided to change 'quite effective' into 'rather effective', so the attributes would be more uniform. This modification also affected the categories in Question 7 and 10 on the pilot teacher questionnaire. Similarly, the categories 'quite good/quite important' and 'not very good/not very important' on the pilot student

questionnaire were changed into 'rather good/rather important' and 'rather not good/rather not important' (Question 4 and 5).

As regards Question 6 on the pilot student questionnaire and Question 8 on the pilot teacher questionnaire, a five-point rating scale was introduced, with the argumentation that if the categories involve 'never', 'always' should be covered too. Furthermore, in the case of the teacher questionnaire the order was rearranged and 'it depends' was placed on the final position, as it appeared to be logical to have 'it depends' separated from the categories dealing with frequency. It might be interesting to add that using an uneven number of response options often means the risk of obtaining a lot of 'neutral' answers, as some participants may avoid the more definite categories (Dörnyei 2010: 28). In the case explained above, however, this risk was considered as rather small since the categories represent frequency and the middle category thus is tantamount to 'sometimes'.

The final versions of both questionnaires can be found in the Appendix.

6.3.4. PARTICIPANTS AND CONTEXT

After the revision of the questionnaire was completed, the target sample needed to be selected. As already mentioned, in contrast to the original study, the sample was restricted to secondary school students, since as a future English teacher working in the field of secondary education investigating at secondary schools seemed to be more pertinent. In order to cover different Austrian secondary school types, it was decided to collect data at three schools, namely an AHS, NMS as well as a BHS on the grounds that attitudes may vary depending on the type of school. For the purpose of the present study convenience sampling was used, which is, as referred to by Dörnyei (2010: 61), "the most common non-probability sampling type in L2 research". The following section will elaborate on the data sampling and present the context of the study as well as the participants involved.

At the outset, the Landesschulrat (LSR) Vorarlberg (Vorarlberg Board of Education) was asked for permission as regards the carrying out of the study. On condition that the participation was voluntary for both students and teachers, the LSR expressed their approval. Furthermore, the LSR confirmed that the approval of the students' parents did not need to be sought as long as the study was declared to be anonymous.

With the help of personal contacts and the leader of the Arbeitsgemeinschaft for the subject English, an AHS, NMS and a HAK, all located in Vorarlberg, were selected. Originally,

it was intended to conduct the study at three schools, each of which representing one school type. However, since only two teachers with one class each agreed to volunteer at the HAK, a second BHS needed to be found. Eventually, through personal contacts, a HLW, also located in Vorarlberg, was found.

With regard to the student participants, a total of 360 secondary school students completed the questionnaire, of which 252 participants were females (70.0%) and 103 were males (28.6%), whereas 5 learners (1.4%) did not indicate their gender. The pupils were aged between 10 and 20 years (M = 14.76, SD = 2.57). In regard to the total hours of English classes per week, the students' responses varied between 3 and 4 hours (M = 3.42, SD = 0.53). As far as the evaluation of questionnaires is concerned, the learners will be mostly treated as one group. Nonetheless, when there appear to be significant differences between students of different school types, it will be explicitly stated.[2] Thus, it seems to be suitable to furthermore describe the sample according to type of school. Table 1 serves as an overview of the data obtained. 102 learners were NMS students, of which 54 were males, 46 were females and 2 did not specify their gender. The NMS students were aged between 10 and 15 years (M = 12.80, SD = 1.31). With respect to the AHS students, a total of 119 learners took part in the empirical study, of which 43 were males and 75 were females. One student did not indicate their gender. The learners' age varied between 11 and 18 years (M = 13.51, SD = 1.99). In relation to the BHS students, 139 participants completed the questionnaire, of which 6 were males and 131 were females. 2 learners did not disclose their gender. The BHS students were aged between 14 and 20 years.

[2] HAK and HLW will not be treated separately, as they both are representative of the BHS.

Schools	Number of students	Age	Year	English hours per week
NMS	102 (28.3%) 54 males (52.9%) 46 females (45.1%) 2 not given (2.0%)	10 – 15 years (M = 12.80, SD = 1.31)	Year 1, 3, 4	4
AHS	119 (33.1%) 43 males (36.1%) 75 females (63.0) 1 not given (0.8%)	11 – 18 years (M = 13.51, SD = 1.99)	Year 2, 3, 5, 6, 7	3 – 4 (M = 3.37, SD = 0.49)
BHS	139 (38.6%) 6 males (4.3%) 131 females (94.2%) 2 not given (1.4%)	14 – 20 years (M = 17.22, SD = 1.49)	Year 5, 6, 7, 9	3 – 4 (M = 3.03, SD = 0.35)

Table 1. Description of student sample according to type of school.

Regarding the teachers, 20 participants, of which 3 were males and 17 were females, volunteered to participate in the survey. The teachers' age varied between 29 and 61 years (M = 47.80, SD = 9.55). Interestingly, only 7 teachers (35.0%) stated that they had heard of oral CF before. In contrast to the students, teachers will not be further divided according to type of school. Nonetheless, for the purpose of general interest, Table 2 demonstrates the teacher distribution within the different types of school. Furthermore, the exact description of the teacher sample can be found in the Appendix.

Schools	Number of teachers	Age	Teachers have heard of oral CF
NMS	7 (35.0%) 1 male (14.3%) 6 females (85.7%)	32 – 55 years (M = 45.43, SD = 8.14)	1 (14.3%)
AHS	7 (35.0%) 1 male (14.3%) 6 females (85.7%)	50 – 61 years (M = 52.71, SD = 3.82)	3 (42.9%)
BHS	6 (30.0%) 1 male (16.7%) 5 females (83.3%)	29 – 61 years (M = 44.83, SD = 14.05)	3 (50.0%)

Table 2. Sample description of teachers according to type of school.

6.3.5. DATA COLLECTION

As already touched upon in the preceding chapter, communication with the schools was established through personal contacts between one and two months prior to the administration of the study, except for the contact with the HLW, which was established on short notice. In the case of the AHS and NMS, emails were sent out to the headmasters to inform them of the purpose of the study and ask for permission to administer the questionnaire at the corresponding school. After the headmasters had given their approval, the day of the administration was organized with the help of two teachers, each of whom represented one school. In the case of the HAK and HLW, the contact was made directly

with one English teacher respectively, who volunteered to seek the headmaster's approval and to help organize the questionnaire administration.

With respect to the administration procedure, group administration was used for the student questionnaire due to the following reasons. On the one hand, Roothooft and Breeze (2016) collected their questionnaire data through group administration, therefore it seemed to be self-explanatory to follow the original methods as much as possible. On the other hand, group administration belongs to the most frequently used methods for questionnaire surveys when "language learners studying within institutional contexts" are involved, as it enables the researcher to obtain large data samples, for example when conducted as part of the students' lesson (Dörnyei 2010: 65). Prior to the administration the general introductions were read aloud to the students, as "[i]t is a general experience in educational psychology that people do not tend to read written directions" (Dörnyei 2010: 77). In this way, students were informed about the fact that the participation was voluntary, anonymous and confidential. Concerning the administration procedure for the teacher questionnaire, mixed methods were used. This will become apparent in the subsequent passage, which will elaborate on the research procedure in more detail.

As far as the procedure at the NMS is concerned, the contact person suggested to conduct the study herself due to administrative reasons. Consequently, the researcher was not present on the days of administration but only for handing over the questionnaires. After two weeks 102 (out of 125) student questionnaires and 7 (out of 8) teacher questionnaires were returned.

Regarding data collection at the AHS, the contact person informed the researcher on the day of the procedure that seven English teachers with one class respectively had agreed to participate in the study. However, since the questionnaire would be administered during the learners' English lesson, not all classes and teachers could be covered on the same day. Thus, the survey was carried out on two successive days. As regards the first day, the student questionnaire was distributed in five classes, of which two classes were rather small, as the learners were split up into different English groups. As far as the teachers are concerned, some teachers decided to fill out the questionnaire while the students were completing theirs. The majority, however, wanted to take their time and requested to complete the questionnaire either between lessons or after school. In this instance, the questionnaires were returned after school or the subsequent day. The remaining two

classes participated during their normal class hours on the following day. In contrast to the previous day, the researcher could not be present, as the study at the HAK was carried out on that same day. Therefore, a friend of the researcher, who had been instructed accordingly, agreed to administer the questionnaire. Again, the teachers were given the possibility to return the questionnaire at a later time.

As pertains to the procedure at the HAK, both teachers requested to receive the questionnaire attached by email. In this way, they could complete the questionnaire at home. On the day of the administration, the questionnaires were handed over to the teacher. The student questionnaires were distributed and completed during the learners' English lesson.

In regard to the HLW, two teachers completed the questionnaire at the school, either during the lesson or after school. The remaining three teachers suggested to fill out the questionnaire at home and send it to the researcher once they had completed the questionnaires. In the end, however, only two questionnaires were returned to the researcher.

6.3.6. DATA PROCESSING

Turning now to the data processing, the responses to open-ended questions were color coded and compared with the help of content analysis (Glaser and Strauss 1967), whereas the results of closed-ended questions were analyzed quantitatively with the statistics software SPSS. As pertains to the quantitative analysis, chi-square tests of independence with the significance level set at $\alpha = 0.05$ were used to determine "whether there is a relationship between two categorical variables" (Field 2009: 688). As regards the findings, for reasons of comparability, invalid or missing data was not considered in the evaluation, which means that only valid percentages were taken into account. Therefore, not each item refers to a sample of 360 students and 20 teachers. The raw data can be found in the Appendix.

7. FINDINGS

Divided into four sections, this chapter aims to outline the findings of the empirical research project. First, the students' and the teachers' general attitudes towards oral CF will be presented. The subsequent part will then illustrate the results as regards the students' and the teachers' attitudes towards oral CF types. Next, the findings dealing with the students' affective responses to oral CF and the teachers' perceptions will be demonstrated. Lastly, the results obtained will be compared to Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) findings.

7.1. STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ORAL CF

Students' attitudes

To begin with, the learners were questioned about their attitudes towards speaking English in class. The predominant part of the students displayed positive reactions in this matter, as 79.0% (*n* = 353) agreed that they like speaking English in class. When compared according to school types, the participants' answers did not show any considerable differences (NMS 85.9%, AHS 73.3% and BHS 79.0%). Hence, it can be concluded that the students generally showed positive attitudes towards speaking English in class, regardless of school type.

When asked whether or not they want their mistakes to be corrected, the vast majority of the students (96.1%) was clearly in favor of correction. Out of 360 respondents, only 3.9% disapproved of corrective feedback. However, as illustrated in Table 3 below, disagreement arose among the participants with respect to the frequency of oral CF.[3]

[3] The percentages used pertain to only 340 instead of the original 360 learners. This is due to the fact that only those students who provided an affirmative response to Item 3 "If you speak English in class and you make a mistake, would you like your teacher to correct you?" were asked to specify their answer in Item 3a. Since eight learners answered Item 3a despite their negative response to Item 3, those responses had to be eliminated. Moreover, twelve positive responses could not be taken into consideration, as those participants had not specified their answer in Item 3a.

	Never	Yes, always	Yes, often	Yes, but only if I have a problem expressing myself clearly	Yes, but only if I make a mistake with regard to something we are studying at the moment
All students (*n* = 340)	1.5%	40.3%	17.6%	30.9%	9.7%
School type					
NMS (*n* = 91)	1.1%	33.0%	11.7 %	39.4%	14.9%
AHS (*n* = 112)	2.6%	40.5%	12.1%	32.8%	12.1%
BHS (*n* = 137)	0.7%	42.8%	25.4%	25.4%	5.8%

Table 3. Students' attitudes towards oral CF.

Table 3 reveals that while more than half of the students (57.9%) showed positive attitudes towards frequent oral CF (40.3% 'always'), the remaining respondents declared to require CF only if they either have a problem expressing themselves clearly (30.9%) or if they make a mistake with regard to something they are studying at the moment (9.7%). Overall, however, there seems to be a clear preference towards frequent oral CF on the part of the students. Furthermore, Table 3 enables a deeper insight into the students' attitudes according to school type. In order to investigate whether the variable type of school is linked to the students' attitudes towards the frequency of oral CF, a chi-square test of independence was performed. Interestingly, the test result revealed a significant relation between school type and frequency of CF, χ^2 (8, *n* = 340) = 18.62, *p* = 0.013 (Monte-Carlo). As a matter of fact, the wish towards frequent correction appears to be more dominant among the AHS and BHS students, as the majority of both school types (AHS 52.6%, BHS 68.2%) expressed positive attitudes towards frequent oral CF. In contrast, frequent error correction turned out to be less popular among the NMS students, since more than half of the learners (54.3%) approved of oral CF only if the mistake inhibits expressing themselves clearly (39.4%) or if the mistake pertains to something they are studying at the moment (14.9%).

Apart from the frequency of oral CF, the students were also asked to rate the importance of CF in relation to type of mistake. For illustration, Figure 1 reveals the learners' preferences towards oral CF with regard to grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary errors.

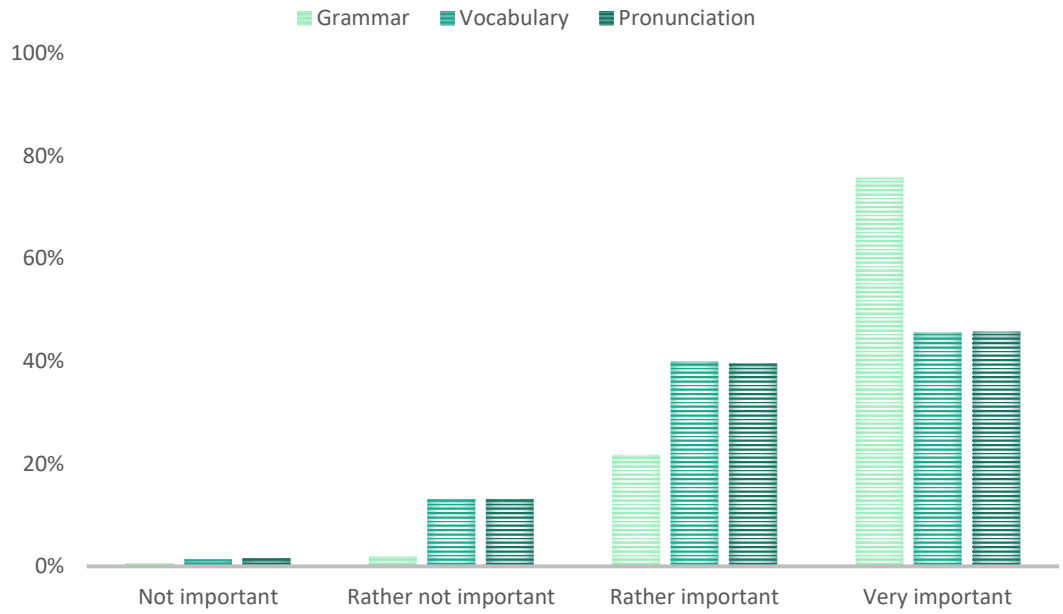


Figure 1. Students‘ attitudes towards oral CF according to type of error.

As indicated in Figure 1, grammar mistakes seem to assume the most significant role since the predominant part of the learners (75.7%) believed the correction of grammar mistakes to be ‘very important’, whereas not even half of the students rated the correction of vocabulary and pronunciation mistakes as ‘very important’ (45.5% and 45.7% respectively). Nevertheless, the students generally also believed the correction of vocabulary and pronunciation errors to be of importance, as becomes evident when considering that not even 15.0% of the participants ascribed no or almost no importance to the correction of vocabulary and pronunciation errors. In the case of grammar mistakes, the number is significantly smaller (2.6%). Thus, in sum, the students want their teacher to correct their mistakes irrespective of the type of error they make.

For the purpose of identifying noteworthy variations among students of different school types regarding oral CF according to type of error, a chi-square test was carried out. The results obtained (*p* value according to Fisher’s exact test) suggest a significant relation between type of school and type of error as concerns vocabulary (χ^2 (6, *n* = 356) = 15.73, *p* = 0.011)) and pronunciation mistakes (χ^2 (6, *n* = 357) = 31.77, *p* = < 0.001)), but not with respect to grammar mistakes (χ^2 (6, *n* = 354) = 8.88, *p* = 0.105)). Consequently, Table 4 only examines the results concerning vocabulary and pronunciation mistakes.

	Not important	Rather not important	Rather important	Very important
Vocabulary mistake				
NMS	3.0%	11.0%	40.0%	46.0%
AHS	0.9%	16.2%	49.6%	33.3%
BHS	0.7%	12.2%	31.7%	55.4%
Pronunciation mistake				
NMS	2.0%	8.0%	37.0%	53.0%
AHS	0.0%	16.1%	55.9%	28.0%
BHS	2.9%	14.4%	27.3%	55.4%

Table 4. Students' attitudes towards the correction of vocabulary and pronunciation errors according to school type.

As pertains to vocabulary mistakes, 86.0% of the NMS, 82.9% of the AHS students and 87.1% of the BHS students showed positive attitudes towards the correction of vocabulary mistakes. When treating both categories representing the positive attitudes separately, it becomes clear that the NMS and BHS students, namely 46.0% and 55.4% respectively, ascribed a greater importance to the correction of vocabulary mistakes, as compared to the AHS students (33.3%). Similarly, the results reveal that the correction of pronunciation errors was considered as 'very important' by more than half of the NMS (53.0%) and BHS students (55.4%), whereas not even a third of the AHS students (28.0%) opted for this option. Interestingly, when adding the 'rather important' responses, a slight change of order becomes evident, indicating that the NMS students (90.0%) were generally more positive than the AHS (83.9%) and BHS (82.7%) students.

Teachers' attitudes

In contrast to the students, the teachers were asked in an open-ended question to state whether they think it is important to give students oral CF. As in Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) study, it was originally intended to categorize the answers obtained into three groups: a fully positive attitude, a mixed attitude and a fully negative attitude. However, since no single teacher voiced their complete disapproval of oral CF, the last category was eliminated.

Overall, the teachers viewed oral CF as valuable since twelve teachers (63.2%) emphasized the necessity of providing oral CF, whereas seven (36.8%) displayed mixed attitudes.[4] As regards the teachers with fully positive attitudes, a frequently repeated argument in favor of oral CF was concerned with the belief that students need to know when they have made a mistake in order to be able to improve their speaking skills, as implied by T1 and T6 in

[4] One teacher had to be excluded, as their response did not answer the question asked.

response to the question “Do you think it is important to give students feedback on language mistakes when they speak?”

T1: Yes, so they can do it better the next time.

T6: Yes, that they have the chance to improve their spoken English.

Based on this belief, some teachers further elaborated that mistakes are even welcome in the classroom, as they should be regarded as an integral part of the student’s learning process:

T4: Learning is a process, so mistakes are part of that… not negative… more like training when you do sports.

T11: Yes. Students must make mistakes, focus on them, understand what is wrong and improve.

Moreover, some teachers stressed that correction is in the interest of the students and expected by them, as reflected in the following two examples:

T10: They want to know if they did it right.

T13: Yes, because either they want to be corrected themselves, or I don’t want them to keep on making the same mistakes.”

As touched upon by T13, another argument in favor of oral CF was concerned with the issue of fossilization. According to the teachers with a fully positive attitude towards oral CF, correcting errors might help students to avoid repeating the same mistakes, as it becomes obvious from these teacher statements:

T5: Yes, I think it is important because otherwise they wouldn’t be aware of mistakes they make and repeat them automatically.

T8: It is important to sensitize students to problem areas and to avoid any consolidation of inappropriate linguistic behavior.

T10: If you don’t give feedback, certain mistakes might become habits (fossilized). Repeating a mistake is like “learning” it.

Turning to the teachers who viewed oral CF with a mixed attitude, it can be observed that their reservations seem to be of the same origin. Almost exclusively, five out of seven teachers argued that whether or not they provide oral CF depends on the aim of the activity, as illustrated by the following two teacher statements:

T2: It depends on the aim of a teaching unit. If I want to practice a new phrase or tense, I do correct language mistakes immediately. If the is task is to express opinions, to tell a story, etc., then I tend to let pupils speak without interrupting them.

T17: It depends. Yes, when structure is important. No, when fluency is important.

Moreover, T9, who also acknowledged the importance of not interrupting the student's flow, emphasized that correction is important "if the mistakes change the meaning of what they want to say". In other words, corrective feedback is necessary if the mistake impedes successful communication.

Similar to the students, the teachers were asked what type of mistakes they tend to correct and how frequently they would do so. In contrast to the students, who were only required to rate the importance of the correction of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary mistakes, the teachers were offered three more categories from which to choose, namely 'only when they make a mistake with a structure they have just studied', 'only when they make a mistake with something I think they should know' and 'only when the mistake makes the student's message difficult to understand'. The results are summarized in Table 5.

	Always	**Usually**	**Sometimes**	**Never**	**It depends**
Teachers (*n* = 20)					
When they make a grammar mistake	25.0%	35.0%	40.0%	0.0%	0.0%
When they make a pronunciation mistake	15.0%	40.0%	40.0%	0.0%	0.0%
When they make a vocabulary mistake	25.0%	45.0%	30.0%	0.0%	0.0%
When they make mistakes with a structure we have just studied	75.0%	20.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%
When they make mistakes with something	5.0%	70.0%	20.0%	0.0%	5.0%
I think they should know	70.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%
When the mistake makes the student's message difficult to understand					

Table 5. Teachers' attitudes towards the frequency of oral CF according to type of error.

As indicated in Table 5, it is striking that the predominant part of the teachers stated to 'always' correct mistakes regarding recently studied structures (75.0%) and mistakes that make the student's message difficult to understand (70.0%). Furthermore, 20.0% and 25.0% of the teachers selected the option 'usually'. In contrast, only a fourth of the teachers claimed to 'always' correct grammar and vocabulary errors. Nevertheless, according to their beliefs, the teachers generally provide frequent CF also with respect to grammar and vocabulary mistakes, as 35.0% and 45.0% respectively opted for 'usually'. As regards the correction of pronunciation errors and mistakes in relation to something students should already know, only 15.0% and 5.0% respectively believed to 'always' employ oral CF.

Nonetheless, 70.0% of the teachers admitted that they 'usually' correct errors that pertain to something that the students should already know.

Comparison of students' and teachers' attitudes

If compared to the students' results, it becomes apparent that the vast majority of both the students as well as the teachers displayed positive attitudes towards oral CF, as both groups were clearly in favor of oral CF. However, there appears to be a mismatch between the students and the teachers' attitudes, as the students are inclined to want more feedback than the teachers believe to be necessary. While the students are advocates of frequent CF irrespective of the type of error, the teachers' results suggest that the decision to provide oral CF is less concerned with the type of error and more with the context in which the error occurs. The teachers particularly showed positive attitudes towards frequently employed CF after mistakes that pertain to structures that students have just studied or mistakes that make the student's message hard to understand. With regard to the teachers who showed mixed attitudes, it can be concluded that CF is desirable if the focus of a teaching unit is concerned with accuracy. However, if the learner's fluency is the center of attention, the teachers' tendency is to refrain from oral CF. Overall, there is a mismatch with respect to oral CF, as students are inclined to want more feedback than their teacher believed to be necessary.

7.2. STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ORAL CF TYPES

Students' attitudes

With regard to the learners' attitudes towards oral CF types, the results are illustrated in Figure 2.

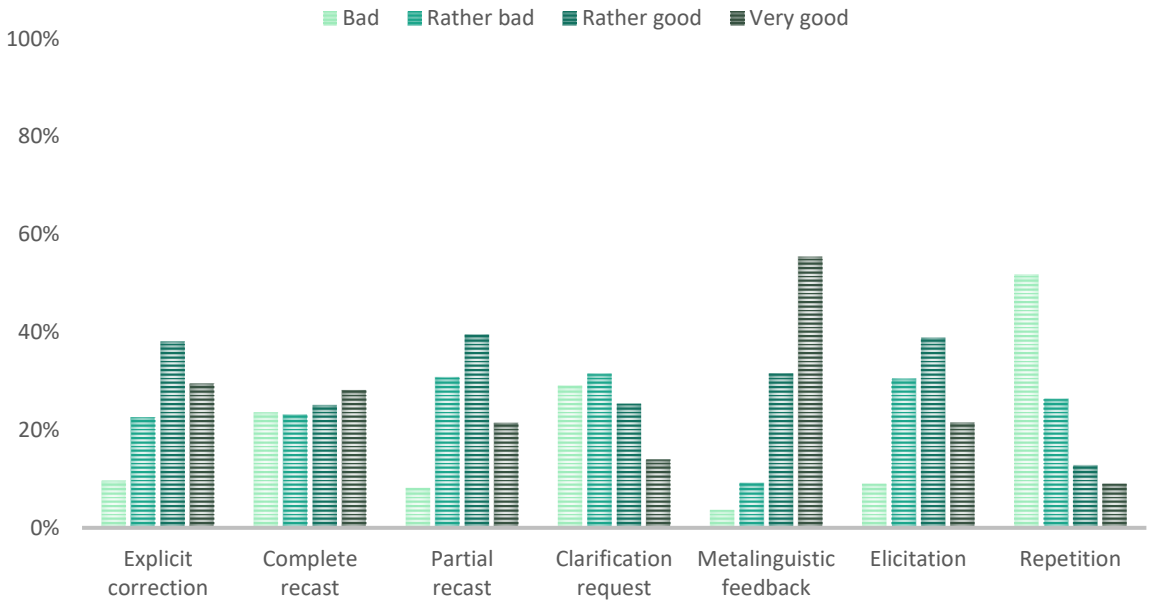


Figure 2. Students' attitudes towards oral CF types.

Notably, metalinguistic feedback turned out to be the most popular feedback, as more than half of the learners rated it as 'very good' (55.4%) and almost a third as 'rather good' (31.6%). Furthermore, the majority of the students displayed positive attitudes towards elicitation, partial recasts, explicit correction (varying between 60.5% and 67.6%) as well as complete recasts (53.3%). In contrast, students showed negative attitudes with respect to repetitions and clarification requests. Interestingly, the vast majority believed the former to be ineffective, as more than half of the students rated repetitions as 'bad' (51.7%) and more than a fourth as 'rather bad' (26.3%). As concerns clarification requests, 29.1% of the learners opted for 'bad' and 31.4% for 'rather bad'.

In an attempt to determine whether students' attitudes towards oral CF types vary according to type of school, chi-square tests of independence were conducted. For illustration, Table 6 displays the results.

	χ2	**p Value**
Explicit correction	15.27	**0.018**
Complete recast	3.62	0.728
Partial recast	7.17	0.305
Clarification request	16.56	**0.011**
Metalinguistic feedback	13.90	**0.037** (Fisher's exact test)
Elicitation	7.15	0.308
Repetition	58.46	**<0.001**

Table 6. Chi-square statistics of students' attitudes towards oral CF types according to school type.

While the students, independently of their school types, appear to agree as regards both recast types and elicitations, the chi-square tests disclosed significant differences with respect to explicit corrections, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and repetitions (indicated in bold in Table 6). Therefore, these latter feedback types shall be examined in further detail, as seen in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Students‘ attitudes towards oral CF types according to type of school.

Overall, explicit corrections seem to be more popular among the AHS students. As opposed to not even two third of the NMS and BHS students (64.2% and 63.5% respectively), 75.2% of the AHS students displayed positive attitudes towards explicit corrections. In regard to metalinguistic feedback, the AHS and BHS students’ attitudes (89.1% and 90.6% respectively) were significantly more positive than the NMS students’ attitudes (79.1%). Turning to the feedback types which were generally rated poorly, it becomes evident that both clarification requests and repetitions received the least recognition by the BHS students. As regards the former, 68.1% of the BHS students displayed negative attitudes. In contrast, the percentages pertaining to the NMS and AHS students’ negative attitudes were under 60.0% (NMS 53.8%, AHS 57.2%). The most significant difference according to

type of school was found to be as regards repetitions. A mere 8.0% of the BHS students believed this CF type to be valuable, whereas almost half of the NMS students (45.2%) uttered a positive view on repetitions. As far as the AHS students are concerned, attitudes were also clearly negative, as only 20.3% of the learners were positively inclined towards repetitions.

Teachers' attitudes

Turning to the teachers' attitudes with respect to oral CF types, the results are illustrated in Figure 4.

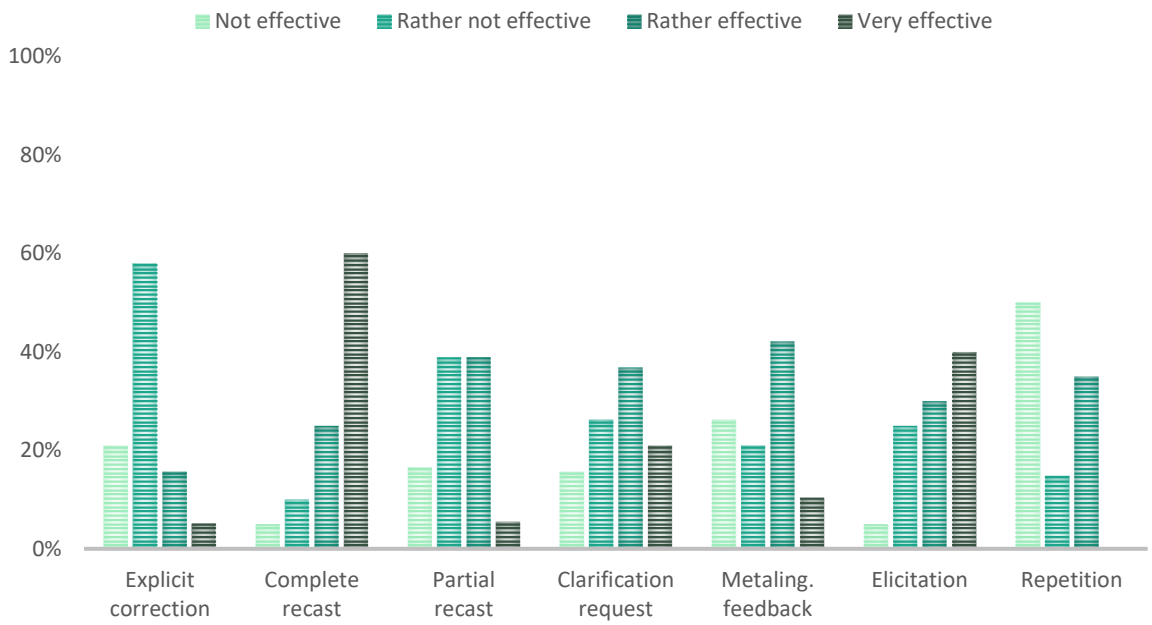


Figure 4. Teachers' attitudes towards oral CF types.

Interestingly, the teachers appear to have a clear tendency as far as oral CF types are concerned. As revealed in Figure 4, it is striking that the vast majority of the teachers (85.0%) rated complete recast as the most effective feedback type (60.0% 'very effective'), followed by elicitations, which were considered to be effective by 70.0% of the teachers (40.0% 'very effective'). Furthermore, more than half of the teachers showed positive attitudes with respect to clarification requests, as 57.9% rated them as 'effective' and 21.0% as 'very effective'. In relation to metalinguistic feedback, it can be observed that the attitudes tend to be slightly more positive than negative, as just over 52.6% of teachers believed it to be effective (10.5% 'very effective'). As regards explicit correction, it has been observed that the vast majority of the teachers (79.0%) questioned the efficacy of this CF type (21.1% 'not effective). Likewise, the teachers showed negative attitudes towards repetitions, as 65.0% opted against its efficacy (50.0% 'not effective'). Another poorly rated

CF type was partial recast, as more than half of the teachers (55.6%) expressed their doubts about its effectiveness (16.7% 'not effective').

Comparison of students' and teachers' attitudes

In order to determine statistically relevant differences between the students and the teachers, chi-square tests of independence were conducted. The results, as summarized in Table 7, show that the students' and teachers' attitudes vary significantly as far as explicit correction, complete recasts, metalinguistic feedback and repetitions are concerned.

	χ2	**p Value (Fisher's exact test)**
Explicit correction	17.57	**< 0.001**
Complete recasts	10.75	**0.017**
Partial recasts	3.85	0.221
Clarification request	2.81	0.388
Metalinguistic feedback	29.11	**< 0.001**
Elicitation	3.77	0.349
Repetition	9.38	**0.041**

Table 7. Chi-square statistics of students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF types.

For better illustration, before examining the differences, the students' and teachers' results are demonstrated in Figure 5 on the following page. The overview also includes the students' and teachers' attitudes towards partial recasts, clarification requests and elicitations, even though no statistically significant differences were found in this respect.

Figure 5. Students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF types.

As shown in Figure 5, the vast majority of the teachers, namely 79.0% showed negative attitudes towards explicit corrections. In contrast, more than two third of the students expressed themselves in favor of explicit corrections, thus suggesting a clear mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes. As far as complete recasts are concerned, both the teachers (85.0%) and the students (53.3%) showed positive attitudes. However, while the vast majority of the teachers rated it as effective (60.0% 'very effective'), the students were more indecisive, as their responses were almost equally distributed among the four categories. With respect to metalinguistic feedback, the majority of both groups displayed positive attitudes. Nevertheless, it is obvious that the students favored metalinguistic feedback more clearly than the teachers, as it was the highest rated feedback type among the students with 55.4% opting for 'very good' and 31.6% for 'rather good'. In contrast, only 10.5% of the teachers believed metalinguistic feedback to be 'very effective'. With regard to repetitions, both the teachers' as well as the students' reactions were negative. Interestingly, no single teacher and only 9.1% of the students believed repetitions to be 'very effective' or 'very good'. Generally, however, the teachers were more positively inclined towards repetitions, since more than a third (35.0%) was convinced that repetitions were 'rather effective', as opposed to a mere 12.9% of the students opting for that option.

Although the chi-square test did not find it to be statistically significant, the comparison of percentages reveals that disagreement predominates between students and teachers as pertains to partial recasts and clarification requests. Partial recasts were rated better by the students than the teachers, as 61.0% of the students showed positive attitudes, whereas not even half of the teachers believed in the efficacy of partial recasts (44.5%). In turn, more than half of the teachers (57.9%) found clarification requests to be effective, while only 39.4% of the students expressed themselves positively about this feedback type.

Summarizing the findings regarding the oral CF types, it becomes obvious that there is a mismatch between the students' and teachers' attitudes. Metalinguistic feedback was by far the most popular feedback type among students. Furthermore, the students displayed positive attitudes towards explicit corrections, partial recasts and elicitations (in order of preference). The teachers, in turn, clearly believed complete recasts to be the most effective feedback, followed by elicitations and clarification requests.

7.3. STUDENTS' AFFECTIVE RESPONSES TO ORAL CF

Students' attitudes

Figure 6 serves to share the data of the students' affective responses to oral CF.

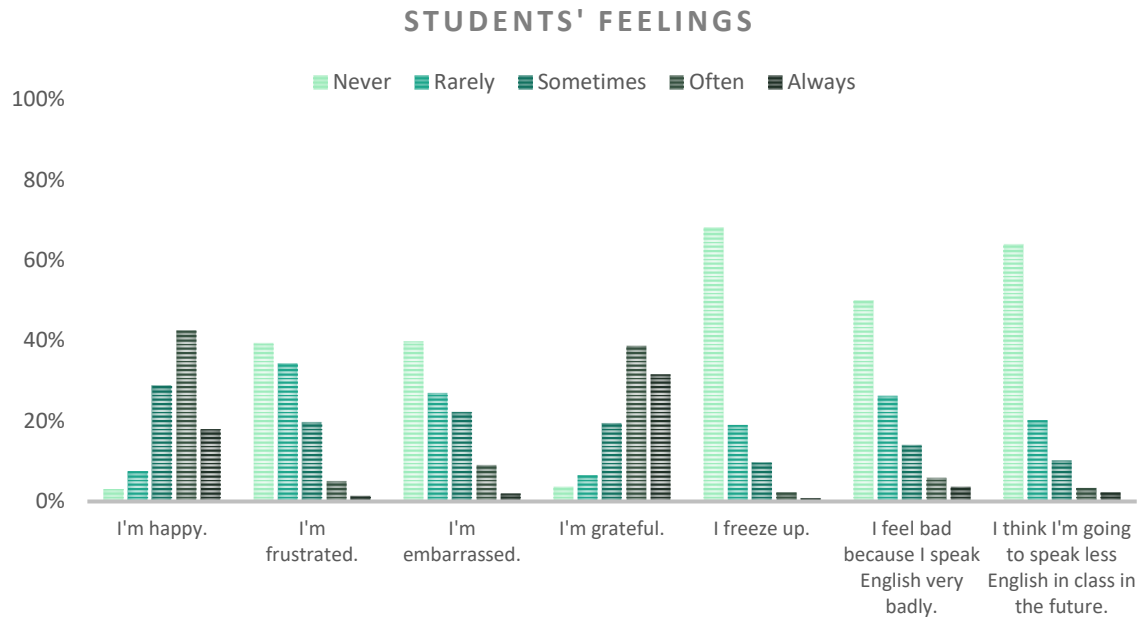


Figure 6. Students' affective responses to oral CF.

The results obtained showed that the students' affective responses to CF were mostly positive, as 60.5% of the students stated to feel happy (18.0% 'always', 42.5% 'often') and 70.3% to feel grateful (31.6% 'always', 38.7% 'often') most of the time. As far as the more negative feelings are concerned, only 11.1% of the students expressed to be frequently embarrassed (2.0% 'always') and 9.6% of the students admitted to frequently feel bad, as they believe their English-speaking skills to be bad (3.7% 'always'). Only a small number of the students mentioned to feel frustrated (6.5%) or to freeze up (3.2%) on a regular basis. A mere 5.7% of the students believed that oral CF makes them want to speak less English in class in the future.

In order to determine statistically significant differences among the students according to type of school, a chi-square test of independence was carried out. The results are summarized in Table 8 and show that five options seem to be significant, namely 'I'm happy', 'I'm frustrated', 'I'm embarrassed', 'I'm grateful' and 'I think I'm going to speak less English in class in the future' (indicated in bold in Table 8). Furthermore, for visualization, the significant items regarding students' feelings towards oral CF are displayed in Figure 7.

	χ2	p Value	
I'm happy.	17.88	**0.022**	(Monte Carlo)
I'm frustrated.	15.72	**0.037**	(Monte Carlo)
I'm embarrassed.	26.93	**0.001**	(Monte Carlo)
I'm grateful.	16.37	**0.03**	(Monte Carlo)
I freeze up.	9.72	0.2	(Fisher's exact test)
I feel bad because I speak English very badly.	7.66	0.392	(Fisher's exact test)
I think I'm going to speak less English in class in the future.	15.78	**0.032**	(Monte Carlo)

Table 8. Chi-square statistics of students' affective responses to oral CF according to type of school.

Figure 7. Students' affective responses to oral CF according to type of school.

As far as the item 'I'm happy' is concerned, almost two third of the BHS students and NMS students (65.4% and 63.7% respectively) as well as almost half of the AHS students (52.1%) claimed to feel happy most of the times after receiving oral CF, thus showing that the AHS students perceive the feeling of happiness after oral CF the least often. Interestingly, however, even though the number of the BHS students is the largest amongst the three groups, it should be noted that with a proportion of only 12.9%, the BHS students opted the least often for 'always', as opposed to 26.3% of the NMS students and 17.1% of the AHS students. Similarly, the findings in regard to feeling grateful can be explained. About 75.0% of the NMS and BHS students (74.3% and 75.0% respectively) as well as 61.9% of the AHS students stated to feel grateful on a frequent basis. Notably, especially the NMS students seem to appreciate frequent oral CF, as 42.3% opted for 'always', as opposed to 33.1% of the BHS and 21.2% of the AHS students.

With respect to the more negative feelings, 81.4% of the NMS students, 71.0% of the AHS students as well as 70.6% of the BHS students denied feeling frequently frustrated, thus showing that the NMS students' affective responses towards oral CF were clearly the least negative. Furthermore, it is noteworthy to mention that 50.5% of the NMS students agreed to 'never' feel frustrated. With regard to the AHS and BHS students, the numbers are considerably smaller, based on the fact that only around a third of the AHS and BHS students (34.2% and 36.0% respectively) opted for this category. As concerns the feeling of embarrassment, the percentages show similar findings. 74.5% of the NMS students, 60.7% of the AHS students and 66.5% of the BHS students stated that they hardly feel embarrassed. Again, the NMS students' emotional response to oral CF was the least negative, as exactly half of the students selected 'never'. In contrast, only 27.4% of the AHS and 43.1% of the BHS students chose this option.

Turning to the last item that showed significant differences, namely 'I think I'm going to speak less English in class in the future', the vast majority of the students of all three school types (NMS 83.4%, AHS 85.5%, BHS 83.3%) believed that the employment of oral CF hardly makes them want to speak less English in class in the future. Interestingly, even though the AHS students make up the largest proportion, the number of NMS students (71.1%) opting for 'never' is significantly bigger than the number of the AHS and BHS students (64.1% and 58.7% respectively).

Before concluding this section, it is worth mentioning an interesting observation. As far as the five items showing significant statistical differences among the three school types are concerned, the proportion of the NMS students was always the largest with regard to the categories 'always' and 'never'. However, when combining 'always' and 'often' as well as 'never' and 'rarely' to a group, in most of the cases the number of the AHS students and/or BHS students was bigger. This suggests that the NMS students were more inclined to opt for the stronger categories ('always' and 'never') than the AHS and BHS students. In turn, the AHS students were the most reserved, which can be ascribed to the fact that the proportion of the AHS students was always the largest as pertains to the categories 'sometimes' and most of the times with respect to 'rarely'. As far as the BHS students are concerned, it is noteworthy to mention that 0.0% opted for 'always' with regard to the more negative feelings.

Teachers' perceptions

Having presented the data concerning the students' feelings, the teachers' perspectives will be displayed in the following. In an open-ended question the teachers were asked to elaborate on how they think the students feel when they receive oral CF. Similar to the proceedings of the findings in relation to the first research question, it was attempted to categorize the students' affective responses according to the teachers' perceptions as fully positive, fully negative and mixed. Answers which implied that the students' emotional response might, for instance, depend on the way oral CF is provided, were also categorized as fully positive, given that most of these teachers highlighted their careful employment of oral CF.[5] With respect to the sample size, four teacher answers were not taken into account, as they could not be clearly grouped based on different reasons.[6] Thus, only 16 teacher answers will be considered in the following.

Remarkably, no single teacher fell into the fully negative category. As concerns the fully positive emotions, nine out of sixteen teachers (56.3%) believed that the students show positive reactions after oral CF. More precisely, four out of sixteen teachers (25.0%) believed that the students feel okay or even good after the employment of oral CF.

[5] Roothooft and Breeze (2016) grouped such answers as 'it depends'.

[6] T7 only wrote a question mark sign and T5 stated to have never thought about the students' feelings with regard to oral CF. T17 did not further elaborate on affective responses but only stated that students "might refrain from future oral contribution if feedback has to be given too often". Also, the response provided by T15 was not taken into consideration, as the answer was rather off-topic.

Furthermore, five teachers (31.3%) stressed that the students' feelings depend on the context in which feedback occurs or on the way it is given. As implied by the following statements, teachers do not have to worry about negative feelings, as long as they are careful when providing CF:

T8: I think they accept it, provided it is done after a presentation, individual long turn or after they have made their parts. Interrupting them is counter-productive and humiliating.

T9: I normally do not correct them by telling them "You've made a mistake". I'd rather repeat the sentence correctly. I hope they feel grateful and not intimidated.

T10: That depends on the situation (in front of the whole class, individually, nicely, scornfully). The student should of course not feel ashamed.

T11: It depends on the way I give feedback. Repeating the sentences and setting them right is something they are used to experiencing. Telling them "You've made a mistake" is worse.

T13: Nothing much as I'm careful when I correct them.

As regards the mixed perceptions, it was observed that many teachers (43.8%) did not want to generalize their students and stressed that the following aspects, namely the student's (1) personality, (2) competence or (3) motivation can have an impact on the students' affective responses. An example for each factor is provided below.

T12: As I said, some get nervous, others like it when they get told how to improve their language. (1)

T3: I think it's no problem for good students. Maybe weaker ones feel ashamed. (2)

T16: It depends on the student and his/her motivation. In most cases they appreciate my intervention – as long as they feel safe and valued. A minority of students does not care. (3)

Furthermore, T18 also referred to the frequency of oral CF and stated that some students might be irritated, "especially when it happens too frequently".

Comparison of students' attitudes and teachers' perceptions

Comparing the teachers' and students' results, it can be summarized that there is a mismatch between the students' affective responses to oral CF and the teachers' perceptions. Indeed, the vast majority of the students related oral CF to positive feelings such as happiness and gratefulness. Similarly, the majority of the teachers believed that the students feel okay or even good after receiving oral CF, most of them also stressing,

though, that oral CF should be provided carefully, as the way feedback is given can have an impact on the students' feelings. Even though more than half of the teachers referred to solely positive reactions on the part of the students, a mismatch could be observed, as the students were considerably more positive than the teachers.

7.4. Comparison to Roothooft and Breeze's findings

As the study at hand attempted to replicate Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) study, it is essential to link the results to the original findings. Therefore, this section will summarize and compare the results of both the present and the original study. The results will not be interpreted, as this will be part of the discussion, which follows in Chapter 8.

Research question 1

This study showed that there is a mismatch between the students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF, which mainly concerns the frequency of error correction. 96.1.% of the students stated that they want their oral errors to be corrected. Interestingly, 40.3% of the students want to be corrected all the time and regardless of the type of error. The teachers also displayed positive attitudes, as 63.2% of the teachers expressed themselves in favor of oral CF. The remaining teachers, on the other hand, had mixed attitudes and acknowledged, amongst others, that the employment of oral CF depends on the aim of the activity or the type of error. When compared to the original study, it becomes apparent that the results are in line as far as the students' attitudes are concerned, since 99.0% of the Spanish students believed oral CF to be important. As pertains to the teachers, the findings of the present study do not confirm Roothooft and Breeze's results, as the majority of the Spanish teachers', namely 55.6%, displayed mixed attitudes, whereas only 37.0% could be categorized as fully positive. Therefore, Austrian teachers' attitudes towards oral CF were generally more positive than the Spanish teachers' attitudes. Nonetheless, a general mismatch became apparent in both studies, as Austrian as well as Spanish teachers did not think that student should receive oral CF for every single error they make.

Research question 2

The study at hand revealed that there are discrepancies between what students and teachers believe to be effective CF types. As a matter of fact, the students preferred metalinguistic feedback (87.0%), explicit corrections (67.6%), partial recasts (61.0%) and elicitations (60.5%), while the teachers were in favor of complete recasts (85.0%),

elicitations (70.0%) and clarification requests (57.9%). Notably, these results substantiate Roothooft and Breeze's findings and show, as illustrated in Figure 8 and Figure 9, that both the Austrian and Spanish participants have similar ideas about the way oral CF should be conveyed.

Figure 8. Austrian and Spanish students‘ attitudes towards oral CF types.

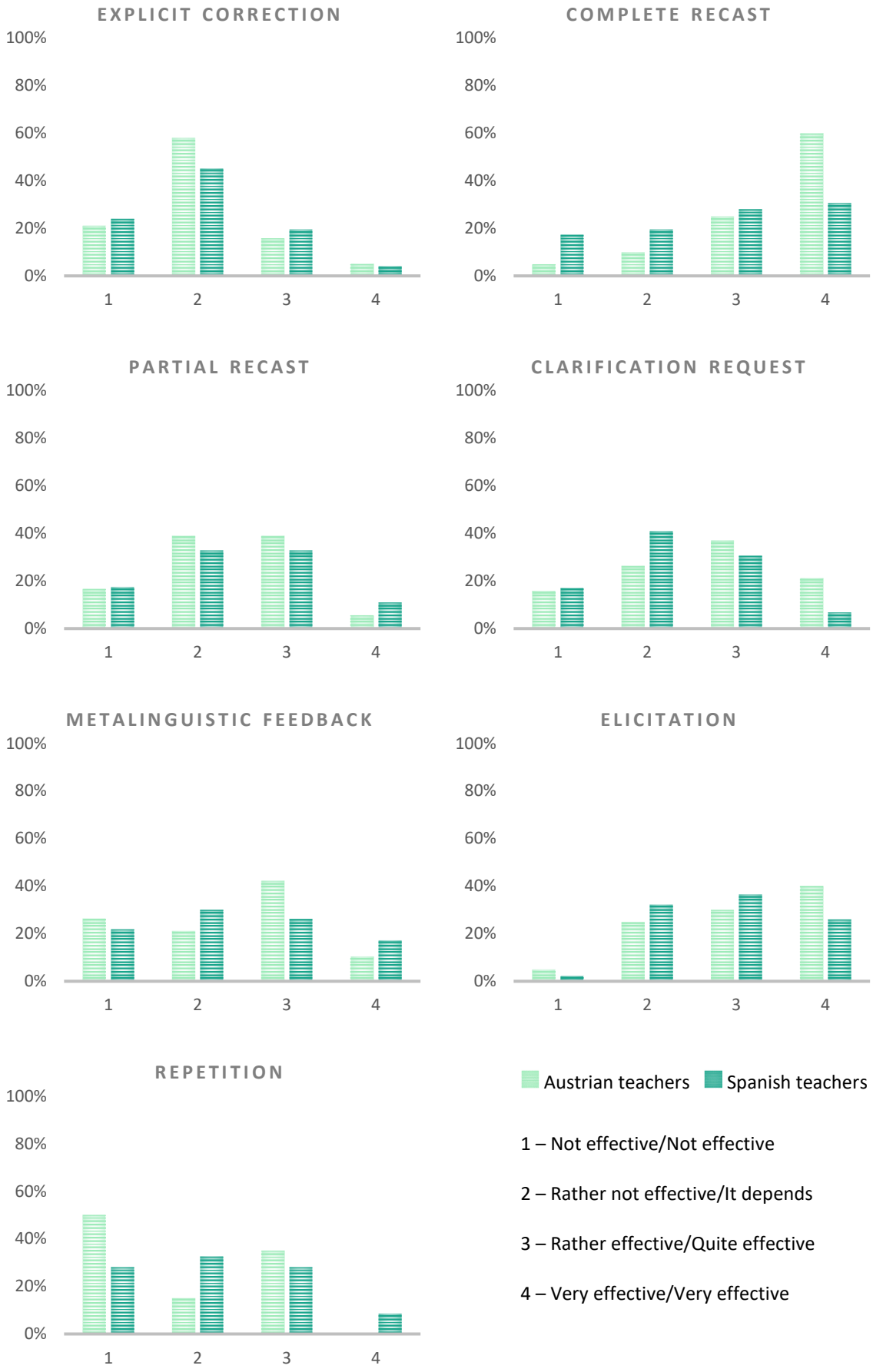


Figure 9. Austrian and Spanish teachers‘ attitudes towards oral CF types.

Comparing the Austrian students to the Spanish students, as illustrated in Figure 8, it is interesting to note a similar distribution as regards almost all feedback types.[7] The figures reveal that metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction were the most popular feedback moves among the Austrian as well as Spanish students. Furthermore, it is of particular interest that the results are almost identical as far as partial and complete recasts are concerned. In the case of the latter, a noteworthy aspect concerns the fact that both the Austrian and Spanish students were almost equally divided among the four categories. When looking at the differences between Austrian and Spanish learners, the only striking observation pertains to the feedback type repetition. Although, both the Austrian and Spanish students generally showed negative attitudes, a closer look reveals that the Austrian students rated repetitions considerably worse than the Spanish students, as 51.7% of the Austrian students believed repetitions to be 'bad' and 26.3% to be 'rather bad'. In turn, only around a third of the Spanish students opted for 'bad' and another third for 'not very good'.

Turning to the teachers' attitudes towards oral CF types, Figure 9 on the previous page displays the corresponding percentages. Since Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) original answer category labelled as 'it depends' was changed to 'rather not effective' for this thesis, a close comparison between the Austrian and Spanish teachers turned out to be rather difficult. As far as the most effective feedback types are concerned, complete recasts and elicitations were rated best by both Austrian and Spanish teachers. It is worth mentioning though, that the Austrian teachers perceived both feedback types to be noticeably more efficient than the Spanish teachers. With respect to elicitations, 40.0% of the Austrian teachers, as opposed to around 25.0% of the Spanish teachers, opted for 'very effective'. The number was even larger with regard to complete recasts, as 60.0% of the Austrian teachers, as opposed to around 30.0% of the Spanish teachers, selected 'very effective'. As pertains to the teachers' negative attitudes, both the Austrian and Spanish teachers believed explicit corrections to be the least effective, as 21.1% of the Austrian teachers and around 25.0% of the Spanish teachers rated regarded them as efficient. Lastly, it is interesting to note that the Austrian teachers rated metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests better than the Spanish teachers. In relation to clarification requests, 57.9% of the Austrian teachers, as opposed to around a third of the Spanish teachers,

[7] As Roothooft and Breeze (2016) did not provide any raw data, the percentages used may deviate slightly.

displayed positive attitudes. With respect to metalinguistic feedback, in contrast to around 40.0% of the Spanish teachers, 52.6% of the Austrian teachers believed it to be effective.

In consideration of the results displayed in this chapter, it can be concluded that the survey conducted for this thesis supports Roothooft and Breeze's findings, as it was able to confirm that there is a mismatch between the students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF types.

Research question 3

The findings of the present study revealed that there is a mismatch between the students' affective responses to oral CF and the teachers' perceptions. Indeed, the majority of the students stated to feel happy and grateful most of the time (60.5% and 70.3% respectively). Concerning the teachers, it was found that more than half of the teachers (56.3%) perceived positive emotions on the part of the students. Even though the majority of the teachers therefore referred to positive reactions, a general mismatch was revealed as students' emotional reactions were noticeably more positive than the teachers' perceptions. Comparing the results to Roothooft and Breeze's findings, as outlined below, it becomes evident that the outcomes are in accordance as the researchers also observed a mismatch between students' affective responses and teachers' perceptions.

Looking at the Austrian and Spanish students' affective responses to oral CF in further detail, a similar distribution becomes obvious, as displayed in Figure 10.[8] It should be remarked that the categories 'always' and 'often' were put together as far as the Austrian students' are concerned since Roothooft and Breeze (2016) did not use the category 'always' in their survey.

[8] As Roothooft and Breeze (2016) did not provide any raw data, the percentages used may deviate slightly from the original ones.

Figure 10. Austrian and Spanish students' affective responses to oral CF.

As illustrated in Figure 10, both the Austrian and the Spanish students believed that they generally feel happy or grateful when they receive oral CF, albeit it is noteworthy that the Austrian students were considerably more positive than the Spanish students. As pertains to the items 'I'm embarrassed', 'I'm frustrated' 'I feel bad because I speak English very badly' and 'I think I'm going to speak less English in the future', it can be observed that the distribution is fairly similar and that the vast majority of Austrian as well as Spanish students denied to display these reactions. Interestingly, the most striking difference concerns the item 'I freeze up', as the Austrian students (68.1%) were significantly more determined to 'never' react in such way than the Spanish students (approximately 25.0%).

Turning to the teachers, it was found that, as already mentioned, more than half of the teachers (56.3%) believed to perceive positive affective responses on the part of the students. The remaining teachers referred to a mixture of positive and negative feelings, as they believed that some students react positively while others react negatively. Interestingly, no single teacher referred to solely negative reactions. As the majority of the Spanish teachers, namely 51.0%, referred to both positive and negative affective responses and only 32.1% to fully positive reactions on the part of the students, it can be concluded that the Austrian teachers' perceptions are not in line with the Spanish teachers' perceptions.

Overall, based on the fact that the Austrian students' affective responses are in accordance with the teachers' perceptions, it can be summarized that there is no mismatch and that thus the results at hand do not confirm Roothooft and Breeze's outcomes.

8. DISCUSSION

In light of Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) findings that there is a mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF, the thesis at hand attempted to replicate the researchers' original study in an Austrian EFL classroom setting. Having presented the methodological underpinnings and the results, the focus of this chapter will be on interpreting the findings from both the student and the teacher questionnaire. With the aim of answering the research questions displayed below, the results will be discussed in connection to the theory on oral CF as well as to previous studies reviewed in this thesis.

(1) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF and how well do they correspond?
(2) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards the different types of CF?
(3) How do EFL students claim to feel when they receive oral CF and how do EFL teachers perceive their students' affective responses to oral CF?

8.1. RESEARCH QUESTION 1

As alluded to above, research has suggested that students and teachers hold different views with respect to oral CF (e.g. Cathcart and Olsen 1976, Lee 2013, Roothooft and Breeze 2016, Schulz 1996, 2001). As a matter of fact, the present study was able to confirm these observations. While both the students and teachers generally showed positive attitudes towards oral CF, it was observed that the students demand more oral CF than the teachers consider appropriate.

Interestingly, 96.1% of the students regarded oral CF as a crucial procedure and even 40.3% of the learners stated that they would like to be corrected all the time. As already mentioned, these results substantiate Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) outcomes, which showed that out of the 99.0% of the learners who preferred frequent oral CF 61.3% opted for 'always'. Moreover, the findings are in line with Cathcart and Olsen (1976), Lee (2013) as well as Schulz (1996, 2001). Explaining the students' attitudes, it has to be borne in mind that to what extent the students' beliefs reflect reality is debatable and the question as to how pleased learners would be if all their mistakes were corrected can be raised. This aspect, as already stated, was also remarked by Cathcart and Olsen (1976), who referred to a noteworthy experiment carried out by one of the teacher participants in their study. The teacher attempted to correct every single mistake that occurred in an attempt to show

her students what constant oral CF would mean. In fact, even though the students first stated that they would like to receive oral CF on all errors, they eventually agreed that the constant oral CF was disturbing (ibid.: 50). This therefore proves that students' responses, as also remarked by Roothooft and Breeze (2016: 332), are stated beliefs which "do not always coincide with actual practice".

With respect to the question of whether the importance of CF is contingent on the type of error, it was observed that the students generally believed oral CF to be vital, regardless of the type of error, albeit they considered the correction of grammar errors to be particularly important. Remarkably, this observation, amongst others, was also made by Saeb (2017: 41), who argued that

> the students' strong positive opinion about correcting grammatical errors might be the predominance of the traditional views about the nature of language and language learning and the grammar-based curriculum currently prevalent in Iranian foreign language teaching contexts, especially high-school contexts from which the student participants of this study were extracted.

Especially the assumption that learners might be influenced by the grammar-based curriculum, which can also be found amongst Schulz's (1996, 2001) explanations, appears to be relevant as far as the Austrian EFL classroom is concerned. As a matter of fact, it is firmly anchored in the Austrian curriculum, as seen below, that grammatical subsystems must not become the actual focus of the FL classroom but that successful communication belongs to one of the main learning objectives in the FL classroom:

> Grammatische Teilsysteme dürfen sich keineswegs verselbstständigen und wegen ihrer leichteren Überprüfbarkeit indirekt zum eigentlichen Lernziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts werden. (BMBWF 2000: 2)
>
> Als übergeordnetes Lernziel in allen Fertigkeitsbereichen ist stets die Fähigkeit zur erfolgreichen Kommunikation – die nicht mit fehlerfreier Kommunikation zu verwechseln ist – anzustreben. Somit sind die jeweiligen kommunikativen Anliegen beim Üben von Teilfertigkeiten in den Vordergrund zu stellen. (ibid.)

However, be it intentional or unintentional, not all teachers might follow these regulations, and still focus too much on form. As a result, this might affect the way students perceive FL learning and may explain why they believe the correction of grammar errors to be of specific relevance. In defense of the teachers, it should also be noted that the Austrian school system might not always allow for putting such requirements into practice, as the curriculum is extensive but the time available only limited.

Turning to the teachers, the present study showed that the teachers' attitudes were generally positive, albeit not as positive as the students' attitudes. While 63.2% of the teachers believed that providing oral CF is important, the remaining 36.8% displayed mixed attitudes and argued that the employment of oral CF depends on different factors, such as the aim of the activity or the type of error. Therefore, these results do not appear to be in line with the findings obtained by Roothooft and Breeze (2016) or Schulz (1996, 2001). As far as the studies conducted by Schulz (1996, 2001) are concerned, the teachers' attitudes towards oral CF were clearly negative, as only 30.0% of the American teachers and 39.0% of the Colombian teachers believed oral CF to be necessary. With regard to Roothooft and Breeze's survey, the researchers found that only 37.0% of the teachers' attitudes could be grouped as fully positive. Indeed, the majority of the teachers, namely 55.6%, displayed mixed attitudes. Roothooft and Breeze (2016: 326) concluded that the "belief in the importance of promoting fluency and, on the other, the possible damage to students' self-confidence caused by CF" were amongst the most frequently provided explanation for this mixed attitude. As a matter of fact, the notion that learners should not be interrupted in fluency-oriented activities has also been supported by methodologists (e.g. Harmer 2001, Hedge 2000). Turning back to the study at hand, the observation that only 36.8% of the Austrian teachers expressed their reservations on oral CF, for reasons such as the aim of the activity, raises the question of what motives the remaining teachers had to display fully positive attitudes towards oral CF. On the one hand, a possible explanation might be that the teachers did not feel the need to view oral CF critically, as most of them stated to be careful when they provide oral CF. On the other hand, the teachers' inexperience in the field of oral CF could have contributed to utterly positive views, considering the fact that many might not have ever dealt with the topic of oral CF, as only 7 teachers (35.0%) stated to have heard of oral CF prior to the study.

Furthermore, it has to be added that, even though the results of the study at hand do not confirm neither Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) nor Schulz's (1996, 2001) findings, the fact that the majority of the Austrian teachers displayed positive attitudes towards oral CF does not necessarily imply that they believe that students' errors should be corrected all the time. Based on the results obtained for Question 9 "When do you give individual students corrective feedback on their oral mistakes?", it can be concluded that Austrian teachers most frequently provide oral CF when the mistake concerns a recently studied structure or when the mistake makes the student's message difficult to understand (75.0% and 70.0%

respectively opted for 'always'). As regards the latter, the teacher participants in Saeb's (2017: 40) held the same beliefs, justifying that "the main aim of language learning is communication and hence correcting every single error is pointless". These observations, thus, support Burt and Kiparsky's (1972) idea of distinguishing between global and local errors and focusing only on the former, namely errors that impede communication.

In consideration of these findings, it can be concluded that, overall, there are discrepancies between students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF. Even though the majority of both students and teachers were positively inclined to oral CF, there is a mismatch which is mainly concerned with the fact that students would like to be corrected more than the teachers believe to be necessary. Thus, the first hypothesis, namely that there is a mismatch between EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF, has been confirmed.

8.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 2

Turning to the research question focusing on students' and teachers' attitudes towards the way oral CF is conveyed, the present study showed that there is a mismatch between what the students and teachers regarded to be effective CF types.

As far as the students are concerned, metalinguistic feedback (87.0%) was rated best. Furthermore, explicit corrections (67.6%), partial recasts (61.0%) and elicitations (60.5%) were amongst the most popular CF types, while complete recasts (53.3%), clarification requests (39.4%) and repetitions (22.0%) belonged to the students' least favorite CF types. In light of these findings, it can be concluded that the students' results are in line with Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) findings. As a matter of fact, the Spanish students also preferred metalinguistic feedback, explicit corrections, elicitations and partial recasts to complete recasts, repetitions and clarification requests.

Attempting to explain students' preferences for metalinguistic feedback and explicit corrections and their aversion to clarification requests and repetitions, Lee's (2013) and Saeb's (2017) analyses might allow for a suitable explanation. Concluding that the students' most favorite CF type were explicit corrections with metalinguistic explanations, Saeb (ibid.: 40) argued that students, "in order to learn effectively and enduringly, […] need to see their errors specified and receive detailed explanation as well as being provided with the correct form by the teacher". Interestingly, Lee (2013) drew a similar conclusion. She

(ibid.: 229) believed that the learners favored explicit and immediate feedback because it helped them to "understand what errors and mistakes they made, where they went wrong, and how they had to correct their errors". In turn, the students participating in Lee's (ibid.: 227) study showed their disapproval of clarification requests, for they believed that they

> were vague and unobvious corrections, that it was difficult to notice the teachers' intentions and purposes, that they felt embarrassed because of the teachers' inattentive listening to their conversation, and because they feared revealing their lack of oral English proficiency in front of their classmates.

Even though the comment above solely reflects students' opinion on clarification requests, it could be argued that the same explanation might be valid for repetitions. As already mentioned, by means of repetitions, the teacher repeats and stresses the learner error in an attempt to make the student aware of their mistake without drawing too much attention to the error. Unfortunately, however, students might have difficulties perceiving the teachers' oral CF. Like clarification requests, repetitions therefore might not fulfill their actual role of serving as CF but instead raise more questions, such as the ones cited above.

Based on these observations, it certainly appears reasonable that both the Austrian and the Spanish students believed metalinguistic feedback and explicit corrections to be most effective, whereas they found clarification requests and repetitions to be ineffective. Bearing in mind that CF types, as discussed earlier, can be categorized as either implicit or explicit, it can therefore be observed that students display positive attitudes to explicit CF types, such as metalinguistic feedback and explicit corrections, while they show negative attitudes to implicit CF types, such as clarification requests and repetitions.

Interestingly, the fact that students seem to prefer explicit CF types raises a vital question, namely in how far students' preferences for explicit CF types are in line with their positive attitudes towards elicitations and partial recasts. In order to answer this, recalling Loewen and Nabei's (2007: 326) overview of CF types presented in Excerpt 3 in Chapter 4.4.2. as well as providing some examples might be helpful.

As far as elicitations are concerned, it is interesting to note that, while elicitations might, at first sight, not be the most explicit CF type, they belong, in fact, besides explicit corrections and metalinguistic feedback to the more explicit CF types (see Excerpt 3, p. 24). To illustrate this more precisely, analyzing the following examples might help.

Explicit correction	**Metalinguistic feedback**	**Elicitation**	**Clarification request**	**Repetition**
T: What did you do last weekend? S: I watch a film with my friends. T: No, not watch, watched.	T: What did you do last weekend? S: I watch a film with my friends. T: You need to use the past tense.	T: What did you do last weekend? S: I watch a film with my friends. T: Last weekend I …? (pausing, with rising intonation).	T: What did you do last weekend? S: I watch a film with my friends. T: I'm sorry?	T: What did you do last weekend? S: I watch a film with my friends. T: I WATCH a film? (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)

Indeed, a close comparison of the examples reveals that while elicitations might not be as explicit as metalinguistic feedback and explicit corrections, they are undeniably more explicit than clarification requests and repetitions, which thus would explain why elicitations were among the better rated CF types.

As regards recasts, Excerpt 3 (p. 24) shows that the researchers categorized recasts as an implicit and input-providing CF type. However, considering the fact that recasts, as mentioned earlier, are fairly versatile, it appears to be more suitable to distinguish between different types of recasts, for instance, between partial and complete recasts. As a result of this differentiation, it becomes evident that the former reflects a more explicit CF type, whereas the latter constitutes an implicit CF type. The following examples will illustrate the difference more precisely.

Partial recast	**Complete recast**
T: What did you do last weekend? S: I watch a film with my friends. T: Watched.	T: What did you do last weekend? S: I watch a film with my friends. T: Oh, you watched a film.

Comparing the examples above, it becomes apparent that the teacher, by only repeating the correct form of the learner error in the first example, more explicitly points out to the student that an error has been made. The correction in the second example, on the other hand, equals a repetition of the learner utterance minus the error and thus is more implicit than the first example. Bearing this difference in mind, the students' preference for explicit CF types therefore also explains why partial recasts were perceived more positively than complete recasts. Based on these considerations, it appears suitable to modify Loewen and Nabei's (2007: 326) overview insofar as to treat partial and complete recasts differently, as illustrated in Figure 11.

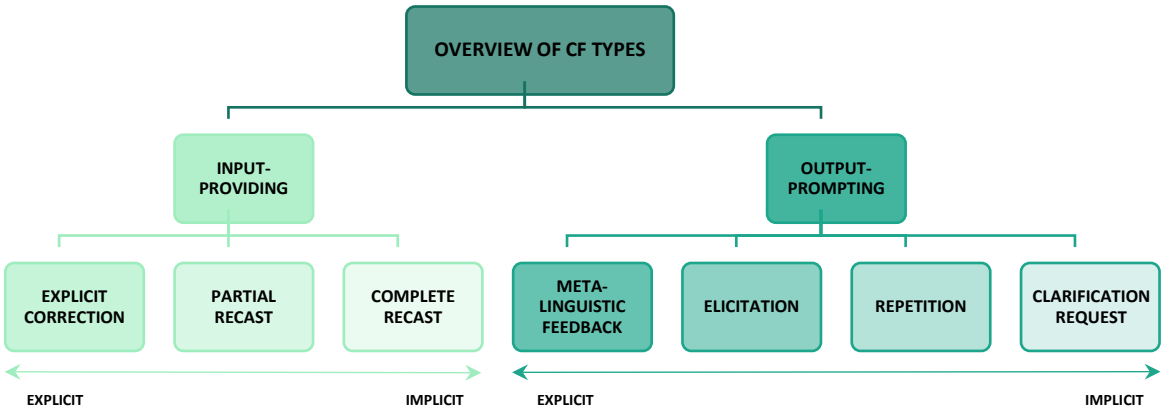


Figure 11. Modified version of Loewen and Nabei's (2007: 326) overview.

Hence, since elicitations and partial recasts both reflect more explicit than implicit feedback, it can therefore be explained why students show more positive attitudes towards these CF types.

Turning to the teachers' attitudes, complete recasts turned out to be the most popular CF type by far (85.0%). Moreover, elicitations (70.0%), clarifications requests (57.9%) and metalinguistic feedback (52.6%) were among the teachers' most favorite CF types. In turn, explicit corrections (21.1%), repetitions (35.0%) and partial recasts (44.5%) were considered to be the least effective CF types. In consideration of these findings, it can be observed that the Austrian teachers' attitudes towards the different CF types are in accordance with Roothooft and Breeze's results, as the Spanish teachers also regarded complete recasts as well as elicitations to be most and explicit corrections to be least effective.

In an attempt to explain these findings and drawing on the modified overview of CF types displayed in Figure 11. above, it becomes evident that the teachers, as opposed to the students, preferred implicit to explicit CF types, considering the fact that they rated complete recasts best and explicit corrections worst. The teachers' preference for implicit rather than explicit CF types, which was also concluded by Lee (2013) and Saeb (2017), could be explained insofar as that teachers might appreciate the fact that by repeating the learner utterance without the error, they can refer to and correct the error indirectly without having to stress that a mistake occurred and can thus provide oral CF in an unobtrusive way, while keeping the focus on meaning rather than on accuracy (e.g. Doughty and Varela 1998, Doughty 2001, Farrar 1992).

However, the assumption that the teachers favor implicit CF types does not explain their positive attitudes towards elicitations, which is, as mentioned before, a rather explicit CF type. Therefore, the question of in how far the teachers' positive attitudes towards elicitations correlate with their preference for implicit CF types can be raised. In order to explain this, drawing on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) observations appears suitable. As a matter of fact, the two researchers criticized teachers' excessive use of recasts and emphasized that they can be fairly ambiguous, as they provide both positive and negative evidence at the same time. So, if students cannot recognize the negative evidence, recasts might result in confusion on the part of the students. Thus, Lyster and Ranta (ibid.: 56) suggested that teachers make use of other CF types, such as clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitations or repetitions, which allow for self-correction on the part of the students. In light of these remarks, it could be argued that the teachers participating in the present study might be aware of the fact that recasts can assume an ambiguous role and that they are therefore not suitable for all students. As observed by Lee (2013: 228), they might be more appropriate for students with a high proficiency level in the TL, who have fewer difficulties to understand teachers' implicit CF, than for beginner students. Keeping this in mind, teachers therefore might also appreciate elicitations based on the fact that they are not as explicit as metalinguistic feedback and explicit corrections but still explicit enough to make sure that the students recognize the error.

Furthermore, it has to be considered that metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests were besides complete recasts and elicitations also among the better rated CF types. Attempting to justify this, it could be argued that teachers might value output-prompting CF types. This was also remarked by Saeb (2017: 40), who explained that teachers "were anxious to promote learner autonomy through encouraging students to locate their own errors and to find the correct form". Moreover, Yoshida's (2008) study showed that teachers acknowledged the positive impact of self-eliciting CF types, albeit their actual classroom practices had revealed an excessive use of recasts. Taking these aspects into account, it only seems reasonable that the teachers displayed negative attitudes towards explicit corrections and partial recasts, as these CF types neither represent the implicitness of complete recasts nor the output-prompting effect of elicitations, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback or repetitions.

Lastly, as far as clarifications requests and metalinguistic feedback are concerned, providing a possible explanation for why these two CF types were much better rated by the Austrian teachers than the Spanish teachers appears to be necessary. Indeed, the majority of the Austrian teachers, displayed positive attitudes towards clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback (57.9% and 52.6% respectively), while Roothooft and Breeze (2016) concluded that more than half of the Spanish teachers reacted negatively to clarification requests and metalinguistic feedback. In an attempt to explain this mismatch, it can be argued that, unfortunately, a comparison of results proves to be difficult, as around 40.0% of the Spanish teachers opted for the 'it depends' questionnaire choice in the case of clarification requests and around 30.0% in the case of metalinguistic feedback. As a matter of fact, as stated in Chapter 6.3.3., the label 'it depends' was eliminated and replaced by 'rather not effective' in the modification process of the questionnaire. Therefore, it can be argued that while 'rather not effective' can be clearly interpreted as negative, 'it depends' *per se* does not necessarily have to represent teachers' negative attitudes. Instead, the label simply implies that approximately 40.0% of the Spanish teachers believed the efficacy of clarification requests to be dependent on certain variables. Since teachers were not required to specify on this matter, teachers' attitudes can therefore not be categorized as clearly negative. Interestingly, by only considering the category 'not effective', it becomes evident that the Austrian and Spanish teachers' attitudes resemble each other.

Overall, it was observed that students displayed positive attitudes towards explicit CF types while teachers preferred more implicit and output-prompting CF types. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes towards different CF types, which confirms the second hypothesis.

8.3. RESEARCH QUESTION 3

With respect to the third research question, which was concerned with how students feel after oral CF and how teachers perceive these emotional reactions, the present study revealed that there is a mismatch between the students' affective responses and the teachers' perceptions.

As regards the students, in fact, most of the learners expressed that they generally feel happy and grateful when the teacher corrects their errors (60.5% and 70.3% respectively). As far as the negative affective responses are concerned, a mere 11.1 % of the students

referred to feeling frequently embarrassed after oral CF. Furthermore, under 10.0% of the learners believed that they feel bad because of their lack of oral competences, that they are frustrated or that they freeze up on a regular basis. Considering these results, it appears that the Austrian and Spanish students' affective responses are in line, as the majority of the students who participated in Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) survey also referred to positive feelings after CF. Moreover, the findings are in accordance with Martínez Agudo's (2013) study, in which it was also concluded that the students generally reacted positively to oral CF.

Trying to explain the students' positive reactions to oral CF, it could be argued that students, on the one hand, as also emphasized by some of the teacher participants, are used to receiving CF. As a matter of fact, this regards not only the FL classroom but most of the subjects taught at school. Therefore, students know what to expect and can deal with CF appropriately, provided that it is employed cautiously. The latter aspect thus again highlights that there is a relevant relationship between students' affective responses to oral CF and different oral CF types, as it was also noted by Lee (2016: 86), who showed that oral CF may negatively affect students if the wrong feedback types is used. Linking this to the study at hand, it could be argued that the students did not seem to have any reasons to feel bad after oral CF, considering the fact that the teachers claimed to provide oral CF carefully. Lastly, it should be borne in mind that students want to improve, which indicates that they are also contingent on receiving CF.

As far as the teachers are concerned, the majority, namely 56.3%, believed that the students react positively to oral CF, whereas the remaining 43.7% of the teachers referred to both positive and negative feelings on the part of the students. In light of these findings, Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) outcomes could not be substantiated, since they concluded that most of the teachers (51.0%) indicated that they perceive positive as well as negative feelings on the part of the students. Interestingly, only around a third of the Spanish teachers believed that students' affective responses are fully positive.

Before attempting to expound on the differences among the teachers, it should be remarked that linking the results to previous studies was rather impossible, as besides Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) survey, no further study focusing on teachers' perceptions towards students' affective responses to oral CF could be found. As pertains to discussing the results in relation to Roothooft and Breeze's study, it has to be kept in mind that the

teachers' data concerning students' affective responses in both the original and the present survey was solely gained qualitatively by means of an open-ended question. Thus, the data, as aptly noted by Dörnyei (2010: 85), is solely based on the researchers' interpretation, which makes a thorough comparison rather problematic.

One assumption that could explain why Austrian and Spanish teachers' perceptions were not in line could be related to the fact that the teachers came from different educational backgrounds. Whereas all Austrian teachers either held a degree from a teacher training college (Pädagogische Hochschule) or university, some of the Spanish teachers did not receive education-related degrees. Nine Spanish teachers, for instance, neither held a degree in philology nor language teaching. Thus, they might not have covered pedagogical and methodological aspects, which may affect the way they perceive oral CF. Nevertheless, it has to be remarked that, considering the fact that only 35.0% of the Austrian teachers had come across the topic of oral CF previous to the study, it is hard to draw any conclusions in this respect. Unfortunately, Roothooft and Breeze did not ask the teachers whether they had heard of oral CF, which makes it furthermore difficult to compare the teachers according to their knowledge on oral CF.

Another assumption that could explain the difference between Austrian and Spanish teachers' perceptions regards the fact that Austrian teachers exclusively taught at public secondary schools, whereas 50.0% of the Spanish teachers worked at private language academies, where they taught adults. It could be argued that adults have more difficulties to accept oral CF, since they might not be as open to criticism as students who are part of the system *school* and are therefore used to being corrected on a frequent basis. Hence, adults' affective response to oral CF might not always be as positive, which could justify why the majority of the Spanish teachers referred to a mixture of positive and negative reactions. Again, these are purely speculations. As Roothooft and Breeze did not divide teachers' perceptions according to their work place, it is not possible to investigate whether there is a considerable difference between the attitudes of teachers working at public schools and teachers working at private language academies.

Lastly, the fact that more Austrian teachers than Spanish teachers perceived solely positive reactions might be linked to the observation that many Austrian teachers emphasized that they are careful when they provide oral CF. Therefore, as they try to avoid explicit utterances such as "You have made a mistake", they prevent negative affective responses

on the part of the students. Furthermore, it appears logical that the majority of the teachers referred to positive feelings, as, if they did not, they would be criticizing themselves. As a matter of fact, if teachers perceived negative feelings, they would have to reflect on their oral CF and, as a consequence, adapt it.

In light of these findings, the third hypothesis, which assumed discrepancies between EFL students' affective responses to oral CF and teachers' perceptions, could be confirmed. In spite of the fact that both the students and the teachers referred to positive feelings, a mismatch was observed, as the students' affective responses to oral CF were considerably more positive than the teachers' perceptions.

8.4. LIMITATIONS

As with all empirical research, it is crucial to refer to the limitations of a study. Hence, considering the construction, administration as well as evaluation of the questionnaires at hand, this chapter will report on to what extent the present study is limited.

With regard to the first limitation, it was found that the questionnaires in hindsight, even though both of them were modified and irrelevant questions were deleted, might have been too long. As remarked by Dörnyei (2010: 12), lengthy questionnaires might be counterproductive and affect the results. With respect to the present study, students, for instance, might have lost their motivation or willingness to complete the questionnaire. Therefore, making the questionnaire shorter and focusing on items which are relevant for answering the research question would have been appropriate.

With respect to the student questionnaire, items such as the ones covering whether students speak English outside of class (Item 1a) or whether they have lived in a country where they used English for communicative purposes (Item 1b) could have been eliminated, as they were not relevant in relation to the research questions. As far as Item 1b is concerned, it was furthermore observed that this item was often misinterpreted, as students also reported on their holiday destinations, which, again, provides an argument for its elimination.

A shorter questionnaire may have also led to more valuable data concerning the teachers, who would have had more time available for each item. As a result, they might have completed the questionnaire more thoroughly. Furthermore, even though open-ended questions allow participants to express themselves more clearly and freely, replacing some

of them with closed-ended items might have been useful, as it would have had the following two advantages: on the one hand, considering the time constraints, the teachers would have been able to answer the remaining open-ended items in more detail; on the other hand, it could be argued that, for comparability reasons, closed-ended items would have led to more valid findings. To be more precise, it turned out that the comparison of the results dealing with the second research question was the most unproblematic, as the same item was used for both questionnaires. As far as the first and third research questions are concerned, in turn, closed-ended items were only used for the student but not for the teacher questionnaire. However, Item 3 ("If you need to speak English in class and you make a mistake, would you like your teacher to correct you?"), Item 3a ("If you have answered yes, when would you like your teacher to correct you?") and Item 6 ("You need to say something in English in your class and your teacher interrupts you to correct you. Mark X to say how often you react in the following ways") could have been easily adapted and its equivalents used for the teacher questionnaire as well. While this modification would have provided for a better comparability, it has to be remarked, though, that the replication study would not have been as approximate, as too many items would have been changed.

A further limitation concerns what Oppenheim (1992, referred to in Dörnyei 2010: 69) regarded as "contamination" in group administration. Indeed, copying, talking or asking questions might affect the data (ibid.). Based on the grounds that some student answers were similar, it is likely that some data was contaminated. In particular, this concerns the data obtained at the NMS, which may be linked to the fact that I was not present at the NMS at the day of the administration. Due to administrative reasons my NMS contact suggested to administer the questionnaire herself. When digitalizing the data, I noticed that some students had given similar answers. Besides that, it seemed that some students did not take the questionnaire seriously, as some forms included silly or inappropriate comments. As a matter of fact, this is one of the drawbacks of group administrations and can hardly be avoided. Nonetheless, my presence might have shown students that there is an actual person behind the questionnaire, who could have also explained in more detail what their answers are used for, which might have motivated the students to provide more serious answers. As pertains to the teacher questionnaire, it was observed that the teachers who had more time for the completion of the questionnaire provided long and

detailed answers. Therefore, emailing the questionnaires to all teachers in advance and allowing them to fill in the questionnaires at home might have been a good idea.

8.5. IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the study at hand revealed a mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes with respect to oral CF, oral CF types as well as students' affective responses to oral CF. In light of the fact that, as noted before, such a mismatch might have an unfavorable impact on students' language learning, it is useful to present and discuss potential implications, which may contribute to making oral CF more fruitful in the future.

As a first step, in order to guarantee for a congruent relationship between students' and teachers' attitudes, it is vital for teachers to be aware of students' preferences and to be able to relate them to their classroom practices. Certainly, this does not imply that teachers have to put all of students' wishes into practice. As in the case of the present findings, considering students' preferences for constant oral CF would not demand from the teacher to correct each and every mistake, since this would be a rather counterproductive. Instead, teachers could involve students in the CF process and inform them, as aptly observed by Lee (2016: 88), about how oral CF works in advance. A suitable guideline in this respect, as seen in the following, was provided by Ellis (2009: 14):

> Teachers should ascertain their students' attitudes towards CF, appraise [sic] them of the value of CF, and negotiate agreed goals for CF with them. The goals are likely to vary according to the social and situational context […] Teachers should ensure that learners know they are being corrected (i.e., they should not attempt to hide the corrective force of their CF moves from the learners). Whereas it will generally be clear to learners that they are being corrected in the case of written CF, it may not always be clear in the case of oral CF.

Surely, including students in the decision process will give them the feeling that they are part of it and that their opinion matters, which furthermore underlines the fact that feedback, as mentioned at the beginning of this thesis, is an interactive process. If students come up with useless ideas, teachers might have to make use of more alternative methods to win students over to their side. For instance, if students insist on constant oral CF, an experiment such as the one carried out by one of the teacher participants in Cathcart and Olsen's (1976) study may be helpful to show students that CF for every single error would be absurd. Based on these considerations, it can be summarized that teachers' transparent employment of oral CF, might have, to put it in the words of Zhang and Rahimi (2014: 430),

“a positive effect on learners’ CF belief, lower their anxiety level and thereby facilitate L2 learning”.

Furthermore, it should be noted though that, in order for teachers to be able to adhere to the abovementioned aspects, it is inevitable for them to have come across the concept of oral CF. In light of the fact that only 35% of the teachers had heard of oral CF prior to the study, it appears that the topic has not been covered sufficiently in the teacher training programs they attended. Thus, it might be advisable to incorporate oral CF as an obligatory part in the curriculum of the Austrian teacher education.

Rounding off this section, it has to be noted that much more research on students’ and teachers’ attitudes towards oral CF will be necessary. In particular, it might be helpful to further investigate the topic by means of classroom observations and interviews, as this would allow for establishing more accurate connections between attitudes and actual classroom practices. Moreover, based on a dearth of studies, it is indispensable to investigate students’ affective responses to oral CF and teachers’ perceptions towards these in more detail. Considering that researchers have been mostly concerned with finding the most efficient CF type over the last years, it might be advisable to shift the focus to some extent to give the topic of students’ and teachers’ attitudes towards oral CF the attention it deserves.

9. CONCLUSION

In order to contribute to a pivotal but unfortunately not extensively researched topic, the present diploma thesis scrutinized EFL Austrian students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF. Attempting to replicate Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) survey, an empirical study was conducted at four secondary schools located in Vorarlberg. Overall, a total of 360 students and 20 teachers agreed to complete a questionnaire, which aimed at answering the subsequent research questions:

(1) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF and how well do they correspond?
(2) What are EFL students' and teachers' attitudes towards the different types of CF?
(3) How do EFL students claim to feel when they receive oral CF and how do EFL teachers perceive the students' affective responses to oral CF?

The findings of the present study revealed that there is a mismatch between Austrian EFL students' and teachers' attitudes with respect to all three questions raised above. As far as the first research question is concerned, the majority of the students expressed themselves in favor of frequent oral CF regardless of the type of error. The teachers, on the other hand, even though they generally displayed positive attitudes towards oral CF as well, did not support the idea of constant oral CF but believed that the employment of oral CF should be contingent on the context in which the error occurred. In relation to the second research questions, the study showed that the students clearly preferred metalinguistic feedback, whereas the teachers specifically favored complete recasts. Therefore, it appears that students appreciate more explicit CF types, while the teachers reinforced the use of more implicit CF types. Turning to the third research question, the results indicated that the students link oral CF to positive affective responses, as the majority expressed to feel happy and grateful after oral CF. Similarly, most of the teachers referred to positive reactions on the part of the students. Nevertheless, a mismatch was concluded, as the students' affective responses to oral CF were considerably more positive than the teachers' perceptions. Overall, Roothooft and Breeze's (2016) outcomes were thus confirmed in relation to the three research questions.

In consideration of these findings, various implications for the FL classroom need to be regarded. As a matter of fact, teachers should familiarize students with the concept of oral CF. Considering the prevalent mismatch between students' and teachers' attitudes, this is

important, since students need to understand the purpose behind teachers' classroom practices. Furthermore, it is central that teachers come across the topic of oral CF in the course of their teacher education, as the aforementioned observations can only be put into practice accurately if teachers understand the concept of oral CF.

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11. APPENDIX

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE – PILOT VERSION

Deine Meinung zum Thema *Mündliche Fehlerkorrektur*

Mit diesem Fragebogen möchte ich herausfinden, was für eine Einstellung du zum Thema *Mündliche Fehlerkorrektur* hast. Deine Antworten werden vertraulich behandelt und anonym ausgewertet. Deine Lehrerinnen und Lehrer werden deine Antworten nicht sehen. Außerdem werden sich deine Antworten nicht auf deine Noten auswirken. Die Resultate werden einzig und allein im Zuge meiner Diplomarbeit verwendet.

Die Teilnahme am Fragebogen erfolgt auf freiwilliger Basis. Du kannst die Teilnahme verweigern und jederzeit abbrechen. Dies wird für dich keine Konsequenzen haben.

Für die Beantwortung der Fragen werden ungefähr 15 Minuten benötigt. Der Fragebogen besteht aus 4 Seiten.

☺ VIELEN LIEBEN DANK FÜR DEINE TEILNAHME! ☺

Bevor du dich den Fragen zuwendest, fülle bitte folgende Felder aus:

Geschlecht: □Männlich □Weiblich **Alter:** _____

Welche Sprache sprichst du hauptsächlich zu Hause? _____

Name der Schule: _____

Welche Klasse besuchst du? _____ **Englischstunden pro Woche:** _____

1. **Im Folgenden möchte ich etwas über deinen Englischgebrauch erfahren.**

   a. **Wie alt warst du, als du anfingst Englisch zu lernen?** _____

   b. **Lernst du gerade sonst noch irgendwo Englisch, abgesehen vom Englischunterricht an deiner Schule?**

      □ Ja □ Nein Wenn ja, wo und wie viele Stunden pro Woche?

      _____

   c. **Hast du jemals in einem englischsprachigen Land (USA, Großbritannien, Kanada, ...) gelebt?**

      □ Ja □ Nein Wenn ja, wo und wie lange?

      _____

   d. **Hast du jemals in einem Land gelebt, in welchem du Englisch zum Kommunizieren benutzt hast?**

      □ Ja □ Nein Wenn ja, wo und wie lange?

      _____

e. Wie viele Stunden pro Woche benutzt du Englisch außerhalb des Englischunterrichts, um…

(ein X pro Zeile)	**0**	**1-2**	**3-4**	**5-6**	**7-8**
… Hausaufgaben zu machen	□	□	□	□	□
… in der Freizeit zu lesen	□	□	□	□	□
… TV, Filme, Serien, ... zu schauen	□	□	□	□	□
… Musik zu hören	□	□	□	□	□
… mit der Familie/Freunden zu sprechen	□	□	□	□	□
… E-Mails zu lesen/schreiben	□	□	□	□	□
… Online-Games zu spielen	□	□	□	□	□
… Hier kannst du eine andere Aktivität reinschreiben:	□	□	□	□	□

2. Sprichst du gerne Englisch im Unterricht?

□ Ja □ Nein

Warum/warum nicht?

3. Wenn du im Unterricht Englisch sprichst und du einen Fehler machst, möchtest du, dass deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer dich verbessert? □Ja □Nein

Wenn ja, wann möchtest du, dass deine Lehrerin oder dein Lehrer dich verbessert? Kreuze bitte eine der vier Antwortmöglichkeiten an!

a. □ Immer

b. □ Oft

c. □ Nur wenn ich Probleme habe, mich klar auszudrücken

d. □ Nur wenn ich einen Fehler mache, der sich auf etwas bezieht, das wir bereits im Unterricht behandelt haben oder das wir im Moment gerade lernen.

4. Hier geht es um verschiedene Arten von Fehlern. Schau dir die folgenden Beispiele an und entscheide, wie wichtig dir die Korrektur wäre. Kreuze die entsprechenden Felder mit einem X an (ein X pro Zeile)!

Grammatikfehler, wie zum Beispiel:

"I like *play* football" (Das sollte „playing" heißen)

"She *don't* go to school." (Das sollte „doesn't" heißen)

Vokabelfehler, wie zum Beispiel:

"I've got a new *handy*." (Das sollte „mobile phone" heißen)

"I want to buy a dress or a *rock*." (Das sollte „skirt" heißen)

Aussprachfehler, wie zum Beispiel:

"one woman" – "two *women*" **(**Der Plural von „women" spricht sich so aus: „wi-min")

Fehlerart	Sehr wichtig	Ziemlich wichtig	Nicht sehr wichtig	Unwichtig
1. Grammatikfehler	□	□	□	□
2. Vokabelfehler	□	□	□	□
3. Aussprachfehler	□	□	□	□

5. Deine Englischlehrerin/dein Englischlehrer stellt dir eine Frage und du machst den folgenden Fehler:

Lehrerin/Lehrer: "What did you do last weekend?"

Schülerin/Schüler: "I *watch* a film with my friends."

Sind die folgenden Reaktionen der Lehrerin/des Lehrers gute Möglichkeiten zu korrigieren oder nicht? Kreuze die entsprechenden Felder mit einem X an (ein X pro Zeile)!

Lehrerin/Lehrer sagt:	Sehr gut	Ziemlich gut	Nicht sehr gut	Schlecht
1. "No, not watch, watched."	□	□	□	□
2. "Oh, you watched a film. Which one?"	□	□	□	□
3. "Watched."	□	□	□	□
4. "I'm sorry?" / "Pardon?"	□	□	□	□
5. "You need to use the past tense."	□	□	□	□
6. "Last weekend I …?"	□	□	□	□
7. "I WATCH a film?"	□	□	□	□

a. Schau dir die Reaktionen in der Tabelle noch einmal an. Welche Art von Fehlerkorrektur verwendet deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer am meisten?

Schreibe die Nummer(n) auf: _____

b. Wenn deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer andere Arten von Fehlerkorrektur verwendet, kannst du sie hier aufschreiben:

6. **Du sollst im Unterricht etwas auf Englisch sagen und deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer unterbricht dich, um dich zu korrigieren. Wie reagierst du? Kreuze die entsprechenden Felder mit einem X an (ein X pro Zeile)!**

Wie reagierst du?	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
1. Ich bin glücklich, dass er/sie mich verbessert hat.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Ich bin frustriert.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Ich bin peinlich berührt.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Ich bin dankbar.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Ich erstarre.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Ich fühle mich schlecht, weil ich sehr schlechtes Englisch spreche.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Ich glaube, dass ich von nun an weniger Englisch im Unterricht sprechen werde.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Hier kannst du eine andere Art von Reaktion reinschreiben:	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. **Wenn du irgendwelche Fragen zu diesem Fragebogen haben solltest oder ihn kommentieren möchtest, kannst du das hier machen:**

GESCHAFFT! ☺ VIELEN DANK FÜR DEINE MITHILFE!

Deine Meinung zum Thema *Mündliche Fehlerkorrektur*

Mit diesem Fragebogen möchte ich herausfinden, was für eine Einstellung du zum Thema *Mündliche Fehlerkorrektur* hast. Bitte fülle diesen Fragebogen ehrlich und gewissenhaft aus. Dies ist kein Test, somit gibt es auch keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten.

Deine Antworten werden vertraulich behandelt und anonym ausgewertet. Deine Lehrerinnen und Lehrer werden deine Antworten nicht sehen. Außerdem werden sich deine Antworten nicht auf deine Noten auswirken. Die Resultate werden einzig und allein im Zuge meiner an der Universität Wien geschriebenen Diplomarbeit verwendet.

Die Teilnahme am Fragebogen erfolgt auf freiwilliger Basis. Du kannst die Teilnahme verweigern und jederzeit abbrechen. Dies wird für dich keine Konsequenzen haben. Solltest du Fragen haben, kannst du diese jederzeit stellen.

☺ VIELEN LIEBEN DANK FÜR DEINE TEILNAHME! ☺

Geschlecht: □Männlich □Weiblich **Alter:** ___Jahre

Welche Sprache sprichst du hauptsächlich zu Hause? _____

Name der Schule: _____

Welche Klasse besuchst du? _____ **Englischstunden pro Woche:** _____

Bevor du dich den Fragen zuwendest, fülle bitte folgende Felder aus:

1. **Im Folgenden möchte ich etwas über deinen Englischgebrauch erfahren.**

   a. **Lernst du gerade sonst noch irgendwo Englisch, abgesehen vom Englischunterricht an deiner Schule?**

      □ Ja □ Nein Wenn ja, wo und wie viele Stunden pro Woche?_____

   b. **Hast du jemals in einem englischsprachigen Land (USA, Großbritannien, Kanada, ...) oder in einem Land, in welchem du Englisch zum Kommunizieren im Alltag benutzt hast, gelebt?**

      □ Ja □ Nein Wenn ja, wo und wie lange? _____

2. **Sprichst du gerne Englisch im Unterricht?**

   □ Ja □ Nein

a. Warum/warum nicht?

3. **Wenn du im Unterricht Englisch sprichst und du einen Fehler machst, möchtest du, dass deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer dich verbessert?**

   □Ja □Nein

Bitte umblättern!

a. Wenn ja, wann möchtest du, dass deine Lehrerin oder dein Lehrer dich verbessert? Kreuze bitte <u>eine</u> der vier Antwortmöglichkeiten an!

a. □ Immer

b. □ Oft

c. □ Nur wenn ich Probleme habe, mich klar auszudrücken

d. □ Nur wenn ich einen Fehler mache, der sich auf etwas bezieht, das wir bereits im Unterricht behandelt haben oder das wir im Moment gerade lernen.

4. Hier geht es um verschiedene Arten von Fehlern. Schau dir die folgenden Beispiele an und entscheide, wie wichtig dir die Korrektur wäre. Kreuze die entsprechenden Felder mit einem X in der untenstehenden Tabelle an (ein X pro Zeile)!

<u>Grammatikfehler</u>, wie zum Beispiel:

"I like *<u>play</u>* football" (Das sollte „<u>playing</u>" heißen)

"She *<u>don't</u>* go to school." (Das sollte „<u>doesn't</u>" heißen)

<u>Vokabelfehler</u>, wie zum Beispiel:

"I've got a new *<u>handy</u>*." (Das sollte „<u>mobile phone</u>" heißen)

"I want to buy a dress or a *<u>rock</u>*." (Das sollte „<u>skirt</u>" heißen)

<u>Aussprachfehler</u>, wie zum Beispiel:

"one woman" – "two *<u>women</u>*" **(**Der Plural von „<u>women</u>" spricht sich so aus: „wi-min")

Fehlerart	Sehr wichtig	Eher wichtig	Eher unwichtig	Unwichtig
1. Grammatikfehler	□	□	□	□
2. Vokabelfehler	□	□	□	□
3. Aussprachfehler	□	□	□	□

5. Deine Englischlehrerin/dein Englischlehrer stellt dir eine Frage und du machst den folgenden Fehler:

Lehrerin/Lehrer: "What did you do last weekend?"

Schülerin/Schüler: "I *<u>watch</u>* a film with my friends."

Sind die folgenden Reaktionen der Lehrerin/des Lehrers gute Möglichkeiten zu korrigieren oder nicht? Kreuze die entsprechenden Felder mit einem X an (ein X pro Zeile)!

Lehrerin/Lehrer sagt:	Sehr gut	Eher gut	Eher schlecht	Schlecht
1. "No, not watch, watched."	□	□	□	□
2. "Oh, you watched a film. Which one?"	□	□	□	□
3. "Watched."	□	□	□	□
4. "I'm sorry?" / "Pardon?"	□	□	□	□
5. "You need to use the past tense."	□	□	□	□
6. "Last weekend I …?"	□	□	□	□
7. "I WATCH a film?"	□	□	□	□

Bitte umblättern!

c. Schau dir die Reaktionen in der Tabelle noch einmal an. Welche Art von Fehlerkorrektur verwendet deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer am meisten?

Schreibe die Nummer(n) auf: _____

d. Wenn deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer andere Arten von Fehlerkorrektur verwendet, kannst du sie hier aufschreiben:

6. Du sollst im Unterricht etwas auf Englisch sagen und deine Lehrerin/dein Lehrer unterbricht dich, um dich zu korrigieren. Wie reagierst du? Kreuze die entsprechenden Felder mit einem X an (ein X pro Zeile)!

Wie reagierst du?	Immer	Oft	Manchmal	Selten	Nie
1. Ich bin glücklich, dass er/sie mich verbessert hat.	□	□	□	□	□
2. Ich bin frustriert.	□	□	□	□	□
3. Ich bin peinlich berührt.	□	□	□	□	□
4. Ich bin dankbar.	□	□	□	□	□
5. Ich erstarre.	□	□	□	□	□
6. Ich fühle mich schlecht, weil ich sehr schlechtes Englisch spreche.	□	□	□	□	□
7. Ich glaube, dass ich von nun an weniger Englisch im Unterricht sprechen werde.	□	□	□	□	□
8. Hier kannst du eine andere Art von Reaktion reinschreiben:	□	□	□	□	□

7. Wenn du irgendwelche Fragen zu diesem Fragebogen haben solltest oder ihn kommentieren möchtest, kannst du das hier machen:

GESCHAFFT! ☺ VIELEN DANK FÜR DEINE MITHILFE!

TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

This questionnaire investigates your attitudes towards oral corrective feedback. It is completely anonymous and confidential. The results will be exclusively used for a study carried out during the course of my diploma thesis.

It takes about 20 minutes to complete this questionnaire.

What do I mean by corrective feedback?

By feedback I mean: any indication you give to your students that there is something incorrect about what they have just said. It can be an explicit correction, as in the following example:

Student: "I like the music."
Teacher: "Not THE music. I like music."

But there are many other ways you can use to signal to your students that they need to rephrase what they have said, for example:

Student: "I like the music."
Teacher: "Can you say that again?"

I would like to find out how you feel about oral feedback and how you usually deal with your students' oral language mistakes.

1. First of all, I would like to know something about you and the context in which you teach. Please complete the following information.

Gender: □ Male □ Female

Age: _____

First language: _____

Language(s) you currently teach: _____

How many hours a week do you teach? _____

Years of teaching experience: _____

Where do you currently teach?

□ AHS lower secondary □ AHS upper secondary □ NMS □ BMS/BHS

Have you ever come across the topic of *oral corrective feedback* in your teacher training program/any other further education course you have taken? If yes, please elaborate:

2. **Do you think it is important to give students feedback on language mistakes when they speak? Why/why not?**

3. **Do you think your students expect to get feedback on their oral mistakes? Why/why not?**

4. **How do you think your students feel when you give them feedback on their oral mistakes?**

5. **How do you feel when you give them feedback on their oral mistakes?**

6. Look at this short T-S exchange. How effective do you think the teacher's reactions are to help the student improve?

Teacher: "What did you do last weekend?"

Student: "I watch a film with my friends."

Teacher says:	Very effective	Quite effective	It depends	Not effective
1. "No, not watch, watched."	□	□	□	□
2. "Oh, you watched a film. Which one?"	□	□	□	□
3. "Watched"	□	□	□	□
4. "I'm sorry?"/ "Pardon?"	□	□	□	□
5. "You need to use the past tense."	□	□	□	□
6. "Last weekend I …?" (pausing, with rising intonation)	□	□	□	□
7. "I WATCH a film?" (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)	□	□	□	□

a. Of these feedback types choose the two that you most often use (give the numbers): _____

b. Choose two types that you think your students prefer: _____

c. Do you use any other techniques to correct your students' spoken errors? Please explain:

7. How important are the following things when you have to decide *what type* of corrective feedback to give?

	Very important	Important	It depends	Not important
1. Students' level	□	□	□	□
1. Students' personality	□	□	□	□
2. The number of students in the group	□	□	□	□
3. The program or course book you have to follow	□	□	□	□
4. Time constraints	□	□	□	□
5. Type of activity	□	□	□	□
6. Other:	□	□	□	□

a. If you have any remarks about question 7, please write them here:

8. When do you give individual students corrective feedback on their oral mistakes?

When my students speak in class, I give them corrective feedback…	Usually	Sometimes	It depends	Never
1. When they make a grammar mistake	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. When they make a pronunciation mistake	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. When they make a vocabulary mistake	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. When they make mistakes with a structure we have just studied	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. When they make mistakes with something I think they should know	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. When the mistake makes the student's message difficult to understand	☐	☐	☐	☐

a. If you have any remarks about question 8, please write them here:

9. A student makes a language mistake while speaking. Do you provide that student with corrective feedback? Put a tick in the corresponding column.

Situations	No feedback	Only if the message is not clear	Immediate feedback	Feedback after the activity	It depends
1. A student expresses his/her opinion during a class discussion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Students are discussing a topic in pairs or small groups	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. A student asks you a question in front of the whole class	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. A student answers a question about a text you are discussing as a class	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. A student gives the answer to a grammar exercise you are correcting and makes a pronunciation mistake.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. A student reads a text aloud and makes a pronunciation mistake.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. You are playing a language game to practice the present perfect and a student makes a mistake with a different grammar item.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

a. If you have any remarks about question 9, please write them here:

10. How important are the following things when you have to decide *how much* corrective feedback you give to your students?

	Very important	Important	It depends	Not important
1. Students' level	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Students' personality	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The number of students in the group	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. The program or course book you have to follow	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Time constraints	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Type of activity	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Other:	☐	☐	☐	☐

a. If you have any remarks about question 10, please write them here:

11. Would you like to change anything about the way you currently deal with your students' speaking mistakes? If yes, what and why?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

This questionnaire investigates your attitudes towards oral corrective feedback. It is completely anonymous and confidential. The results will be exclusively used for a study carried out in the course of my diploma thesis.

It takes approximately 20-30 minutes to complete this questionnaire.

What do I mean by corrective feedback?

By corrective feedback I mean: any indication you give to your students that there is something incorrect about what they have just said. It can be an explicit correction, as in the following example:

Student: "I like the music."

Teacher: "Not THE music. I like music."

But there are many other ways to signal to your students that they need to rephrase what they have said, for example:

Student: "I like the music."

Teacher: "Can you say that again?"

I would like to find out how you feel about oral feedback and how you usually deal with your students' oral language mistakes.

1. **First of all, I would like to know something about you and the context in which you teach. Please complete the following information.**

Gender: □ Male □ Female

Age: _____

First language: _____

Language(s) you currently teach: _____

How many hours a week do you teach? _____

Years of teaching experience: _____

Where do you currently teach? (more than one answer possible)

□ AHS lower secondary □ NMS □ AHS upper secondary □ BMS/BHS

Have you ever come across the topic of *oral corrective feedback* in your teacher training program/any other further education course you have taken? If yes, please elaborate:

Please turn over!

2. **Do you think it is important to give students feedback on language mistakes when they speak? Why/why not?**

3. **Do you think your students expect to get feedback on their oral mistakes? Why/why not?**

4. **How do you think your students feel when you give them feedback on their oral mistakes?**

5. **How do you feel when you give them feedback on their oral mistakes?**

Please turn over!

6. Look at this short T-S exchange. How effective do you think the teacher's reactions are to help the student improve?

Teacher: "What did you do last weekend?"

Student: "I watch a film with my friends."

Teacher says:	Very effective	Rather effective	Rather not effective	Not effective
1. "No, not watch, watched."	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. "Oh, you watched a film. Which one?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. "Watched"	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. "I'm sorry?"/ "Pardon?"	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. "You need to use the past tense."	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. "Last weekend I …?" (pausing, with rising intonation)	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. "I WATCH a film?" (stressing the mistake, with rising intonation)	☐	☐	☐	☐

a. Of these feedback types choose the two that you most often use (give the numbers): _____

b. Choose two types that you think your students prefer: _____

c. Do you use any other techniques to correct your students' spoken errors? Please explain:

7. How important are the following things when you have to decide *what type* (see Question 6) of corrective feedback to give?

	Very important	Rather important	Rather not important	Not important
1. Students' level	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Students' personality	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The number of students in the group	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. The program or course book you have to follow	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Time constraints	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Type of activity	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Other:	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please turn over!

a. If you have any remarks about question 7, please write them here:

8. How important are the following things when you have to decide *how often* you give corrective feedback to your students?

	Very important	Rather important	Rather not important	Not important
1. Students' level	□	□	□	□
2. Students' personality	□	□	□	□
3. The number of students in the group	□	□	□	□
4. The program or course book you have to follow	□	□	□	□
5. Time constraints	□	□	□	□
6. Type of activity	□	□	□	□
7. Other:	□	□	□	□

a. If you have any remarks about question 8, please write them here:

9. When do you give individual students corrective feedback on their oral mistakes?

When my students speak in class, I give them corrective feedback…	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Never	It depends
1. when they make a grammar mistake	□	□	□	□	□
2. when they make a pronunciation mistake	□	□	□	□	□
3. when they make a vocabulary mistake	□	□	□	□	□
4. when they make mistakes with a structure we have just studied	□	□	□	□	□
5. when they make mistakes with something I think they should know	□	□	□	□	□
6. when the mistake makes the student's message difficult to understand	□	□	□	□	□

Please turn over!

a. **If you ticked 'it depends', please specify:**

10. **A student makes a language mistake while speaking. Do you provide that student with corrective feedback? Put a tick in the corresponding column.**

Situations	No feedback	Only if the message is not clear	Immediate feedback	Feedback after the activity	It depends
8. A student expresses his/her opinion during a class discussion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Students are discussing a topic in pairs or small groups	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. A student asks you a question in front of the whole class	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. A student answers a question about a text you are discussing as a class	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. A student gives the answer to a grammar exercise you are correcting and makes a pronunciation mistake.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. A student reads a text aloud and makes a pronunciation mistake.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. You are playing a language game to practice the present perfect and a student makes a mistake with a different grammar item.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

a. **If you ticked 'it depends', please specify:**

11. **Would you like to change anything about the way you currently deal with your students' speaking mistakes? If yes, what and why?**

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

Fragebogen-Feedback

Vielen Dank für deine Teilnahme! Nun bitte ich dich, den Fragebogen kritisch zu beurteilen, indem du folgende Fragen beantwortest. Deine Antworten werden mir bei der Überarbeitung des Fragebogens weiterhelfen.

1. Waren die Fragen verständlich formuliert? □ Ja □ Nein
   Wenn nein, welche Fragen waren nicht verständlich und warum?

2. Hast du alle Wörter verstanden? □ Ja □ Nein
   Wenn nein, welche Wörter hast du nicht verstanden?

3. Hattest du irgendwelche Schwierigkeiten mit den Bewertungsskalen?
   □ Ja □ Nein
   Wenn ja, mit welchen Bewertungsskalen und warum?

4. Hattest du genug Platz für deine offenen Antworten? □ Ja □ Nein
   Wenn nein, für welche Fragen hättest du mehr Platz benötigt?

5. Fandest du, dass der Fragebogen im Allgemeinen übersichtlich war? □ Ja □ Nein
   Wenn nein, was war unübersichtlich?

6. Gibt es im Allgemeinen irgendetwas, das du ändern würdest? □ Ja □ Nein
   Wenn ja, was?

7. Falls du Verbesserungsvorschläge hast, kannst du sie hier aufschreiben:

Danke für deine Mithilfe! ☺

QUANTITATIVELY OBTAINED RAW DATA – STUDENTS

Gender	Male	Female	Not given
	103 (28.6%)	252 (70.0%)	5 (1.4%)

Age	10	11	12	13	14
	4 (1.1%)	37 (10.3%)	46 (12.8%)	50 (13.9%)	37 (10.3%)

	15	16	17	18	19	20
	41 (11.4%)	39 (10.8%)	45 (12.5%)	24 (6.7%)	35 (9.7%)	2 (0.6%)

Language(s) spoken at home	Chosen	Not chosen	Not valid/not given
German	334 (92.8%)	22 (6.1%)	4 (1.1%)
Turkish	31 (8.6%)	325 (90.3%)	4 (1.1%)
English	9 (2.5%)	347 (96.4%)	4 (1.1%)
Serbian	7 (1.9%)	349 (96.9%)	4 (1.1%)
Italian	4 (1.1%)	352 (97.8%)	4 (1.1%)
French	4 (1.1%)	352 (97.8%)	4 (1.1%)
Bosnian	3 (0.8%)	353 (98.1%)	4 (1.1%)
Romanian	3 (0.8%)	353 (98.1%)	4 (1.1%)
Chechen	2 (0.6%)	354 (98.3%)	4 (1.1%)
Czech	2 (0.6%)	354 (98.3%)	4 (1.1%)
Albanian	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Aramaic	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Chinese	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Croatian	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Kurdish	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Polish	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Spanish	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Ukrainian	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)
Vietnamese	1 (0.3%)	355 (98.6%)	4 (1.1%)

Languages	1	2+
	312 (86.7%)	48 (13.3%)

Type of school	NMS	AHS	BHS
	102 (28.3%)	119 (33.1%)	139 (38.6%)

English lessons per week	3	4
	201 (55.8%)	159 (44.2%)

Item	Type of school	Yes	No	Not valid/not given
1a		73 (20.3%)	283 (78.6%)	4 (1.1%)
	NMS	23 (22.5%)	77 (75.5%)	2 (2.0%)
	AHS	25 (21.0%)	92 (77.3%)	2 (1.7%)
	BHS	25 (18.0%)	114 (82.0%)	0 (0.0%)
1b		63 (17.5%)	295 (81.9%)	2 (0.6%)
	NMS	12 (11.8%)	89 (87.3%)	1 (1.0%)
	AHS	19 (16.0%)	100 (84.0%)	0 (0.0%)
	BHS	32 (23.0%)	106 (76.3%)	1 (0.7%)
2		279 (77.5%)	74 (20.6%)	7 (1.9%)
	NMS	85 (83.3%)	14 (13.7%)	3 (2.9%)
	AHS	85 (71.4%)	31 (26.1%)	3 (2.5%)
	BHS	109 (78.4%)	29 (20.9%)	1 (0.7%)
3		346 (96.1%)	14 (3.9%)	0 (0.0%)
	NMS	98 (96.1%)	4 (3.9%)	0 (0.0%)
	AHS	112 (94.1%)	7 (5.9%)	0 (0.0%)
	BHS	136 (97.8%)	3 (2.2%)	0 (0.0%)

Item	Type of school	Never	Problem expressing myself clearly	Mistake with regard to something we are studying at the moment	Often	Always	Not valid/not given
3a		5 (1.4%)	110 (30.6%)	36 (10.0%)	60 (16.7%)	138 (38.3%)	11 (3.1%)
	NMS	1 (1.0%)	37 (36.3%)	14 (13.7%)	11 (10.8%)	31 (30.4%)	8 (7.8%)
	AHS	3 (2.5%)	38 (31.9%)	14 (11.8%)	14 (11.8%)	47 (39.5%)	3 (2.5%)
	BHS	1 (0.7%)	35 (25.2%)	8 (5.8%)	35 (25.2%)	60 (43.2%)	0 (0.0%)

Item	Type of school	Not important	Rather unimportant	Rather important	Very important	Not valid/not given
4.1.		2	7	77	268	6
		(0.6%)	(1.9%)	(21.4%)	(74.4%)	(1.7%)
	NMS	1	3	30	66	2
		(1.0%)	(2.9%)	(29.4%)	(64.7%)	(2.0%)
	AHS	1	1	23	91	3
		(0.8%)	(0.8%)	(19.3%)	(76.5%)	(2.5%)
	BHS	0	3	24	111	1
		(0.0%)	(2.2%)	(17.3%)	(79.9%)	(0.7%)
4.2.		5	47	142	162	4
		(1.4%)	(13.1%)	(39.4%)	(45.0%)	(1.1%)
	NMS	3	11	40	46	2
		(2.9%)	(10.8%)	(39.2%)	(45.1%)	(2.0%)
	AHS	1	19	58	39	2
		(0.8%)	(16.0%)	(48.7%)	(32.8%)	(1.7%)
	BHS	1	17	44	77	0
		(0.7%)	(12.2%)	(31.7%)	(55.4%)	(0.0%)
4.3.		6	47	141	163	3
		(1.7%)	(13.1%)	(39.2%)	(45.3%)	(0.8%)
	NMS	2	8	37	53	2
		(2.0%)	(7.8%)	(36.3%)	(52.0%)	(2.0%)
	AHS	0	19	66	33	1
		(0.0%)	(16.0%)	(55.5%)	(27.7%)	(0.8%)
	BHS	4	20	38	77	0
		(2.9%)	(14.4%)	(27.3%)	(55.4%)	(0.0%)

Item	Type of school	Bad	Rather bad	Rather good	Very good	Not valid/not given
5.1.		34	79	133	103	11
		(9.4%)	(21.9%)	(36.9%)	(28.6%)	(3.1%)
	NMS	16	18	28	33	7
		(15.7%)	(17.6%)	(27.5%)	(32.4%)	(6.9%)
	AHS	6	23	53	35	2
		(5.0%)	(19.3%)	(44.5%)	(29.4%)	(1.7%)
	BHS	12	38	52	35	2
		(8.6%)	(27.3%)	(37.4%)	(25.2%)	(1.4%)
5.2.		83	81	88	99	9
		(23.1%)	(22.5%)	(24.4%)	(27.5%)	(2.5%)
	NMS	22	26	25	22	7
		(21.6%)	(25.5%)	(24.5%)	(21.6%)	(6.9%)
	AHS	31	26	28	32	2
		(26.1%)	(21.8%)	(23.5%)	(26.9%)	(1.7%)
	BHS	30	29	35	45	0
		(21.6%)	(20.9%)	(25.2%)	(32.4%)	(0.0%)
5.3.		29	107	138	75	11
		(8.1%)	(29.7%)	(38.3%)	(20.8%)	(3.1%)
	NMS	8	27	35	25	7
		(7.8%)	(26.5%)	(34.3%)	(24.5%)	(6.9%
	AHS	7	32	49	29	2
		(5.9%)	(26.9%)	(41.2%)	(24.4%)	(1.7%)
	BHS	14	48	54	21	2
		(10.1%)	(34.5%)	(38.8%)	(15.1%)	(1.4%)
5.4.		102	110	89	49	10
		(28.3%)	(30.6%)	(24.7%)	(13.6%)	(2.8%)
	NMS	26	24	23	20	9
		(25.5%)	(23.5%)	(22.5%)	(19.6%)	(8.8%)
	AHS	27	41	30	21	0

		(22.7%)	(34.5%)	(25.2%)	(17.6%)	(0.0%)
	BHS	49	45	36	8	1
		(35.3%)	(32.4%)	(25.9%)	(5.8%)	(0.7%)
5.5.		13	33	112	196	6
		(3.6%)	(9.2%)	(31.1%)	(54.4%)	(1.7%)
	NMS	4	16	32	44	6
		(3.9%)	(15.7%)	(31.4%)	(43.1%)	(5.9%)
	AHS	6	7	42	64	0
		(5.0%)	(5.9%)	(35.3%)	(53.8%)	(0.0%)
	BHS	3	10	38	88	0
		(2.2%)	(7.2%)	(27.3%)	(63.3%)	(0.0%)
5.6.		32	107	137	76	8
		(8.9%)	(29.7%)	(38.1%)	(21.1%)	(2.2%)
	NMS	10	24	33	28	7
		(9.8%)	(23.5%)	(32.4%)	(27.5%)	(6.9%)
	AHS	8	38	48	25	0
		(6.7%)	(31.9%)	(40.3%)	(21.0%)	(0.0%)
	BHS	14	45	56	23	1
		(10.1%)	(32.4%)	(40.3%)	(16.5%)	(0.7%)
5.7.		181	92	45	32	10
		(50.3%)	(25.6%)	(12.5%)	(8.9%)	(2.8%)
	NMS	28	23	20	22	9
		(27.5%)	(22.5%)	(19.6%)	(21.6%)	(8.8%)
	AHS	58	36	17	7	1
		(48.7%)	(30.3%)	(14.3%)	(5.9%)	(0.8%)
	BHS	95	33	8	3	0
		(68.3%)	(23.7%)	(5.8%)	(2.2%)	(0.0%)

Item 5a: Most often used by the teacher	**Chosen**	**Not chosen**	**Not valid/not given**
Feedback type 1	106	223	31
	(29.4%)	(61.9%)	(8.6%)
Feedback type 2	80	249	31
	(22.2%)	(69.2%)	(8.6%)
Feedback type 3	112	217	31
	(31.1%)	(60.3%)	(8.6%)
Feedback type 4	49	280	31
	(13.6%)	(77.8%)	(8.6%)
Feedback type 5	165	164	31
	(45.8%)	(45.6%)	(8.6%)
Feedback type 6	59	270	31
	(16.4%)	(75.0%)	(8.6%)
Feedback type 7	47	281	32
	(13.1%)	(78.1%)	(8.9%)

Item	**Type of school**	**Never**	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Always**	**Not valid/not given**
6.1.		11	27	102	151	64	5
		(3.1%)	(7.5%)	(28.3%)	(41.9%)	(17.8%)	(1.4%)
	NMS	5	6	25	37	26	3
		(4.9%)	(5.9%)	(24.5%)	(36.3%)	(25.5%)	(2.9%)
	AHS	4	13	39	41	20	2
		(3.4%)	(10.9%)	(32.8%)	(34.5%)	(16.8%)	(1.7%)
	BHS	2	8	38	73	18	0
		(1.4%)	(5.8%)	(27.3%)	(52.5%)	(12.9%)	(0.0%)
6.2.		138	120	69	18	5	10
		(38.3%)	(33.3%)	(19.2%)	(5.0%)	(1.4%)	(2.8%)
	NMS	49	30	13	2	3	5
		(48.0%)	(29.4%)	(12.7%)	(2.0%)	(2.9%)	(4.9%)

	AHS	40 (33.6%)	43 (36.1%)	27 (22.7%)	5 (4.2%)	2 (1.7%)	2 (1.7%)
	BHS	49 (35.3%)	47 (33.8%)	29 (20.9%)	11 (7.9%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (2.2%)
6.3.		140 (38.9%)	95 (26.4%)	78 (21.7%)	32 (8.9%)	7 (1.9%)	8 (2.2%)
	NMS	49 (48.0%)	24 (23.5%)	17 (16.7%)	3 (2.9%)	5 (4.9%)	4 (3.9%)
	AHS	32 (26.9%)	39 (32.8%)	27 (22.7%)	17 (14.3%)	2 (1.7%)	2 (1.7%)
	BHS	59 (42.4%)	32 (23.0%)	34 (24.5%)	12 (8.6%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.4%)
6.4.		13 (3.6%)	23 (6.4%)	68 (18.9%)	136 (37.8%)	111 (30.8%)	9 (2.5%)
	NMS	5 (4.9%)	4 (3.9%)	16 (15.7%)	31 (30.4%)	41 (40.2%)	5 (4.9%)
	AHS	6 (5.0%	11 (9.2%)	28 (23.5%)	48 (40.3%)	25 (21.0%)	1 (0.8%)
	BHS	2 (1.4%)	8 (5.8%)	24 (17.3%)	57 (41.0%)	45 (32.4%)	3 (2.2%)
6.5.		237 (65.8%)	66 (18.3%)	34 (9.4%)	8 (2.2%)	3 (0.8%)	12 (3.3%)
	NMS	64 (62.7%)	16 (15.7%)	12 (11.8%)	4 (3.9%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (5.9%)
	AHS	76 (63.9%)	21 (17.6%)	12 (10.1%)	4 (3.4%)	2 (1.7%)	4 (3.4%)
	BHS	97 (69.8%)	29 (20.9%)	10 (7.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.4%)
6.6.		177 (49.2%)	93 (25.8%)	50 (13.9%)	21 (5.8%)	13 (3.6%)	6 (1.7%)
	NMS	50 (49.0%)	24 (23.5%)	12 (11.8%)	6 (5.9%)	6 (5.9%)	4 (3.9%)
	AHS	55 (46.2%)	31 (26.1%)	17 (14.3%)	9 (7.6%)	6 (5.0%)	1 (0.8%)
	BHS	72 (51.8%)	38 (27.3%)	21 (15.1%)	6 (4.3%)	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.7%)
6.7.		225 (62.5%)	71 (19.7%)	36 (10.0%)	12 (3.3%)	8 (2.2%)	8 (2.2%)
	NMS	69 (67.6%)	12 (11.8%)	10 (9.8%)	1 (1.0%)	5 (4.9%)	5 (4.9%)
	AHS	75 (63.0%)	25 (21.0%)	10 (8.4%)	4 (3.4%)	3 (2.5%)	2 (1.7%)
	BHS	81 (58.3%)	34 (24.5%)	16 (11.5%)	7 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.7%)
6.8.		7 (1.9%)	4 (1.1%)	9 (2.5%)	31 (8.6%)	46 (12.8%)	263 (73.1%)
	NMS	6 (5.9%)	2 (2.0%)	5 (4.9%)	5 (4.9%)	16 (15.7%)	68 (66.7%)
	AHS	1 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (2.5%)	17 (14.3%)	19 (16.0%)	79 (66.4%)
	BHS	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.4%)	1 (0.7%)	9 (6.5%)	11 (7.9%)	116 (83.5%)

QUANTITATIVELY OBTAINED RAW DATA – TEACHERS

Gender	Male	Female
	3 (15.0%)	17 (85.0%)

Age	29	32	33	36	38	43	49
	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)

	50	51	52	53	55	60	61
	4 (20.0%)	2 (10.0%)	2 (10.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	2 (10.0%)

First language(s)	Chosen	Not chosen	Not valid/not given
German	20 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
French	1 (5.0%)	19 (95.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Italian	1 (5.0%)	19 (95.0%)	0 (0.0%)

Type of school	NMS	AHS	BHS
	7 (35.0%)	7 (35.0%)	6 (30.0%)

Have you heard of oral CF before?	Yes	No
	7 (35.0%)	13 (65.0%)

Item	Not effective	Rather not effective	Rather effective	Very effective	Not valid/not given
6.1.	4 (20.0%)	11 (55.0%)	3 (15.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)
6.2.	1 (5.0%)	2 (10.0%)	5 (25.0%)	12 (60.0%)	0 (0.0%)
6.3.	3 (15.0%)	7 (35.0%)	7 (35.0%)	1 (5.0%)	2 (10.0%)
6.4.	3 (15.0%)	5 (25.0%)	7 (35.0%)	4 (20.0%)	1 (5.0%)
6.5.	5 (25.0%)	4 (20.0%)	8 (40.0%)	2 (10.0%)	1 (5.0%)
6.6.	1 (5.0%)	5 (25.0%)	6 (30.0%)	8 (40.0%)	0 (0.0%)
6.7.	10 (50.0%)	3 (15.0%)	7 (35.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)

Item 6a: Most often used by the teacher	Chosen	Not chosen	Not valid/not given
Feedback type 1	2 (10.0%)	18 (90.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Feedback type 2	13 (65.0%)	7 (35.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Feedback type 3	6 (30.0%)	14 (70.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Feedback type 4	5 (25.0%)	15 (75.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Feedback type 5	4 (20.0%)	16 (80.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Feedback type 6	11 (55.0%)	9 (45.0%)	0 (0.0%)

Feedback type 7	1 (5.0%)	18 (90.0%)	1 (5.0%)

Item 6b: Most preferred by the students	Chosen	Not chosen	Not valid/not given
Feedback type 1	0 (0.0%)	19 (95.0%)	1 (5.0%)
Feedback type 2	16 (80.0%)	3 (15.0%)	1 (5.0%)
Feedback type 3	5 (25.0%)	14 (70.0%)	1 (5.0%)
Feedback type 4	2 (10.0%)	17 (85.0%)	1 (5.0%)
Feedback type 5	5 (25.0%)	14 (70.0%)	1 (5.0%)
Feedback type 6	7 (35.0%)	12 (60.0%)	1 (5.0%)
Feedback type 7	1 (5.0%)	18 (90.0%)	1 (5.0%)

Item	Not important	Rather not important	Rather important	Very important	Not valid/not given
7.1.	1 (5.0%)	5 (25.0%)	4 (20.0%)	10 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)
7.2.	0 (0.0%)	4 (20.0%)	5 (25.0%)	11 (55.0%)	0 (0.0%)
7.3.	6 (30.0%)	3 (15.0%)	7 (35.0%)	4 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)
7.4.	12 (60.0%)	6 (30.0%)	2 (10.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
7.5.	8 (40.0%)	7 (35.0%)	5 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
7.6.	0 (0.0%)	4 (20.0%)	6 (30.0%)	10 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)
7.7.	0 (50.3%)	0 (25.6%)	0 (12.5%)	1 (5.0%)	19 (95.0%)

Item	Not important	Rather not important	Rather important	Very important	Not valid/not given
8.1.	2 (10.0%)	1 (5.0%)	10 (50.0%)	7 (35.0%)	0 (0.0%)
8.2.	1 (5.0%)	3 (15.0%)	5 (25.0%)	11 (55.0%)	0 (0.0%)
8.3.	6 (30.0%)	4 (20.0%)	7 (35.0%)	3 (15.0%)	0 (0.0%)
8.4.	9 (45.0%)	7 (35.0%)	3 (15.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.0%)
8.5.	5 (25.0%)	8 (40.0%)	4 (20.0%)	3 (15.0%)	0 (0.0%)
8.6.	1 (5.0%)	4 (20.0%)	8 (40.0%)	7 (35.0%)	0 (0.0%)
8.7.	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.0%)	19 (95.0%)

Item	Never	Sometimes	Usually	Always	It depends	Not given/not valid
9.1.	0 (0.0%)	8 (40.0%)	7 (35.0%)	5 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)

9.2.	0 (0.0%)	8 (40.0%)	8 (40.0%)	3 (15.0%)	1 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)
9.3.	0 (0.0%)	6 (30.0%)	9 (45.0%)	5 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
9.4.	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.0%)	4 (20.0%)	15 (75.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
9.5.	0 (0.0%)	4 (20.0%)	14 (70.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)
9.6.	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	5 (25.0%)	14 (70.0%)	1 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)

Item	No feedback	Only if the message is not clear	Immediate feedback	Feedback after the activity	It depends	Not given/not valid
10.1.	3 (15.0%)	13 (65.0%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (15.0%)	1 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
10.2.	7 (35.0%)	3 (15.0%)	2 (10.0%)	3 (15.0%)	5 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)
10.3.	3 (15.0%)	9 (45.0%)	4 (20.0%)	2 (10.0%)	2 (10.0%)	0 (0.0%)
10.4.	1 (5.0%)	10 (50.0%)	7 (35.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)
10.5.	5 (25.0%)	1 (5.0%)	12 (60.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)
10.6.	0 (0.0%)	2 (10.0%)	11 (55.0%)	4 (20.0%)	3 (15.0%)	0 (0.0%)
10.7.	7 (35.0%)	1 (5.0%)	4 (20.0%)	6 (30.0%)	1 (5.0%)	1 (5.0%)

ENGLISH ABSTRACT

While a substantial amount of research has dealt with the general efficacy of oral corrective feedback (CF) as well as with different oral CF types, only few studies have explored students' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF. Based on this fact, Roothooft and Breeze (2016) attempted to shed more light on this matter. Scrutinizing Spanish English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' and teachers' attitudes towards oral CF, the different oral CF types as well as students' affective responses to oral CF and the teachers' perceptions, the two researchers found that there was a mismatch in every aspect.

In order to contribute to this relevant but unfortunately insufficiently researched topic, the present thesis aimed to replicate Roothooft and Breeze's study in an Austrian secondary school setting. To this end, a questionnaire was administered to 360 EFL students and 20 teachers. Interestingly, the findings confirmed Roothooft and Breeze's results, namely that students' and teachers' attitudes are not in line. Concerning the students' and teachers' general attitudes towards oral CF, the study revealed that the students preferred frequent oral CF regardless of the type of error, while the teachers, despite generally displaying positive attitudes towards oral CF, did not support the idea of providing oral CF all the time. Furthermore, as far as the students' and teachers' attitudes towards the different oral CF types are concerned, it was observed that the students favored explicit CF types, whereas the teachers believed implicit CF types to be more efficient. Lastly, the results showed a mismatch between the students' affective responses to oral CF and the teachers' perceptions. Even though the majority of the students as well as teachers referred to positive feelings, the students' emotional reactions were considerably more positive than the teachers' perceptions.

GERMAN ABSTRACT

Während sich eine Vielzahl wissenschaftlicher Arbeiten sowohl mit der Wirksamkeit als auch mit den Formen von mündlichem *Corrective Feedback* (CF) im Fremdsprachenunterricht beschäftigt, gibt es nur wenige Studien, die sich auch mit den Meinungen der SchülerInnen und LehrerInnen in dieser Hinsicht auseinandersetzen. Eine dieser Studien geht auf Roothooft und Breeze (2016) zurück. Die beiden Forscherinnen setzten es sich auf der einen Seite zum Ziel herauszufinden, wie SchülerInnen und LehrerInnen zu mündlichem CF sowie den verschiedenen Formen davon stehen; auf der anderen Seite wollten sie feststellen, wie SchülerInnen sich nach mündlichem CF fühlen und wie die LehrerInnen diese emotionalen Reaktionen der SchülerInnen wahrnehmen. Unter Berücksichtigung dieser Gesichtspunkte konnten die Forscherinnen beobachten, dass die Meinungen der SchülerInnen in keiner Weise mit den Meinungen der LehrerInnen in Einklang standen.

Die vorliegende Arbeit versuchte Roothooft und Breezes Studie zu replizieren, um einen Beitrag zu diesem relevanten, wenn auch unzureichend erforschten, Thema zu leisten. Hierfür wurden 360 SchülerInnen und 20 LehrerInnen, die entweder eine österreichische AHS, NMS oder BHS besuchen bzw. dort unterrichten, anhand eines Fragebogens befragt. Die Ergebnisse bestätigten Roothooft und Breezes Resultate. Auch wenn die Mehrheit an SchülerInnen und LehrerInnen zu mündlichem CF im Allgemeinen positiv eingestellt war, konnte festgestellt werden, dass die SchülerInnen häufiges CF bevorzugen, während die LehrerInnen die Meinung vertraten, dass mündliches CF nicht immer notwendig sei. Auch in Bezug auf die verschiedenen Formen von mündlichem CF gingen die Meinungen auseinander. Im Gegensatz zu den Schülerinnen, welche sich für explizite Feedbackformen stark gemacht haben, glaubten die LehrerInnen, dass implizites Feedback effektiver wäre. Abschließend wurde beobachtet, dass die Schülerinnen und LehrerInnen auch nicht bezüglich der emotionalen Reaktionen seitens der Schülerinnen auf mündliches CF einer Meinung waren. Obwohl die Mehrheit der Schülerinnen und LehrerInnen im Großen und Ganzen auf positive Gefühle verwiesen, waren die Reaktionen der Schülerinnen sichtlich positiver.