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The role of effort and self-correction in language learning:
A case study exploring the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their oral
corrective feedback practices in the EFL classroom

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Abstract

Regardless of the common assumption that teachers' practices are guided by their beliefs, research has demonstrated that the beliefs of educators do not always align with their actual classroom behaviour. Given the potential impact of these discrepancies on student learning outcomes, this paper investigated the extent to which English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning correspond with their oral corrective feedback (OCF) actions. Based on a small-scale case study conducted in two Austrian higher-level vocational secondary schools, this thesis provides supporting evidence for prior research on the OCF practices of EFL educators and offers new insights into their language learning beliefs. The analysis of observation data from six EFL lessons revealed an error response rate of over 70%, with a predominant use of recasts and elicitations by all three participants. In questionnaires, the teachers collectively emphasised the importance of self-correction, although they had varying perceptions of its effectiveness concerning learners' language proficiency and different error types. While the overall alignment between the teachers' OCF practices and their language learning beliefs was less pronounced than expected, there were notable variations among the educators. Despite several possible explanations for these results, it is particularly striking that the beliefs of the most experienced teacher were more consistently reflected in their OCF behaviour compared to those of the less experienced educators. The findings underscore the importance of informing practising and student teachers about research outcomes of this kind and highlight the need for further studies on the relationship between educators' beliefs and their OCF actions.

Keywords: oral corrective feedback, teacher beliefs, EFL, self-correction, language learning

Abstract (German)

Trotz der weit verbreiteten Annahme, dass Lehrpersonen im Unterricht gemäß ihren Überzeugungen handeln, haben Forschungsergebnisse gezeigt, dass das Unterrichtsverhalten von Lehrer*innen nicht unbedingt ihre Einstellungen widerspiegelt. Da solche Diskrepanzen potenziell die Lernergebnisse von Schüler*innen beeinflussen können, wurde in diesem Projekt untersucht, inwieweit die Einstellungen von Lehrkräften zur Bedeutung von Einsatz und Selbstkorrektur beim Sprachenlernen mit ihrem mündlichen Feedbackverhalten im EFL (English as a foreign language) Klassenzimmer übereinstimmen. Im Zuge einer Fallstudie, die an zwei berufsbildenden höheren Schulen in Österreich durchgeführt wurde, konnten sowohl bisherige Forschungen zum Feedbackverhalten von EFL-Lehrer*innen bestätigt als auch neue Einblicke in die Einstellungen von Lehrpersonen gewonnen werden. Die Beobachtung von sechs Unterrichtsstunden ergab eine Fehlerreaktionsquote von über 70%, wobei die drei Teilnehmerinnen überwiegend *recasts*¹ und *elicitations*² einsetzten. In Fragebögen betonten die Lehrkräfte die Bedeutung der Selbstkorrektur, wenngleich die Methode abhängig von den Sprachkenntnissen der Lernenden und verschiedenen Fehlertypen als unterschiedlich wirksam eingeschätzt wurde. Die Übereinstimmung zwischen dem korrektiven Feedbackverhalten der Lehrerinnen und ihren Einstellungen zum Spracherwerb war insgesamt schwächer als erwartet, wobei Unterschiede zwischen den einzelnen Teilnehmerinnen sichtbar wurden. Besonders auffällig war, dass die Lehrerin mit der längsten Unterrichtserfahrung eine stärkere Übereinstimmung zeigte als ihre weniger erfahrenen Kolleginnen. Die Ergebnisse verdeutlichen nicht nur die Relevanz, aktive Lehrpersonen und Lehramtsstudent*innen über derartige Forschungsergebnisse zu informieren, sondern weisen auch darauf hin, dass zusätzliche Studien, die den Zusammenhang zwischen den Einstellungen von Lehrer*innen und ihrem korrektiven Feedbackverhalten erforschen, erforderlich sind.

Keywords: Feedbackverhalten, mündliche Fehlerkorrektur, Einstellungen, Englisch als Fremdsprache, Selbstkorrektur, Spracherwerb

¹ Korrekturen, die eine partielle bzw. vollständige Reformulierung der fehlerhaften Aussage darstellen.

² Korrekturen, bei denen die Lehrperson versucht, die korrekte Form zu entlocken.

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List of abbreviations

BAfEP	Bildungsanstalt für Elementarpädagogik ³
CF	corrective feedback
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ESL	English as a second language
FL	foreign language
HLW	Höhere Lehranstalt für wirtschaftliche Berufe ⁴
L1	first language
L2	second language
OCF	oral corrective feedback

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³ Bildungsanstalt für Elementarpädagogik [educational institution for early childhood education]

⁴ Höhere Lehranstalt für wirtschaftliche Berufe [higher educational institution for economic professions]

1. Introduction

Even though Chen et al. (2016: 3) emphasised that teachers' beliefs about effort and ability may shape their "affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitude towards learners", there are often discrepancies between educators' stated beliefs about corrective feedback (CF) and their actual practices (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004). A study by Roothoof (2014), for example, revealed several differences between English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback (OCF) and their classroom actions. Although educators often consider prompts, which encourage students to self-correct their errors, as more beneficial to learners' language development (Roothoof 2014), recasts, which provide students with the correct forms, have been identified as the most frequently used type of OCF in many investigations (Havranek 2002; Sheen 2004; Bao 2019). Given that discrepancies like this could potentially impact students' learning outcomes, it seems crucially important to determine the extent to which teachers' beliefs about language learning align with their approaches to providing OCF. While prior studies have examined various types of CF (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam 2006; Lyster & Saito 2010; Lyster, Saito & Sato 2013), there has been limited research on teachers' beliefs with respect to different methods of error correction. Existing studies in the context of education have primarily focused on whether errors should be corrected and the quantity of CF, thereby overlooking the specifics of how CF should be provided to learners (Roothoof 2014).

Thus, considering that educating teachers on the outcomes of CF research could motivate them to reflect on their error correction methods and enhance the effectiveness of their teaching, this project aims to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning and their OCF behaviour in the EFL classroom. To achieve this objective, the following research questions have been devised:

1. What are EFL teachers' OCF practices?
2. What are EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning?
3. To what extent are EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning congruent with their OCF practices?

Building on these questions, this thesis is divided into two main parts. While the first part provides the foundational theoretical background, the second part focuses on the empirical study, which was conducted in two higher-level vocational secondary schools in Austria. The theoretical part begins by introducing three fundamental concepts essential for understanding the subject matter. The first one is OCF in the EFL classroom, which is a key issue in language teaching. Especially the effectiveness of CF and different methods of error correction have been controversial and much disputed subjects within the field of second language (L2) acquisition. Chapter 3 of this paper delves into the concept of self-correction, highlighting its importance in an EFL context, detailing considerations concerning its practical implementation, and describing learners' attitudes towards this practice. Subsequently, the focus will shift to another pivotal aspect of this thesis: EFL teachers' beliefs. This chapter will explore common beliefs among EFL educators and examine existing research on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices. Following the literature review, the paper proceeds with a description of the empirical study, adopting a case study approach that is based on classroom observations and reflective teacher questionnaires. It explains the study's rationale and offers a comprehensive overview of the methodological considerations, with particular emphasis on the data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter 7 presents the findings from each research tool, alongside the results obtained from the comparative analyses of the two datasets. With the intention to answer the research questions, the findings are then discussed in the context of relevant literature. Finally, the study's implications and limitations are outlined, and recommendations for future research and practice are provided.

PART I: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2. Oral corrective feedback in the EFL classroom

Given that OCF in the EFL classroom is a core concept within this thesis, this chapter is dedicated to offering a comprehensive overview of the relevant literature, crucial for a thorough understanding of the subject.

2.1. Terms and definitions

2.1.1. Errors

Even though several researchers in the field of L2 acquisition have attempted to define the concept of *error*, a clear definition of the term has yet to be established. To illustrate this ongoing debate, the forthcoming section will explore the historical evolution of definitions concerning this term.

More than five decades ago, Corder (1967: 166-167) introduced an idea that continues to hold significant relevance in the realm of language learning. He not only viewed erroneous utterances as signals of the learner's existing knowledge but also emphasised that errors show a systematic nature. In the 1980s, Day et al. (1984: 20) took a similar stance, defining errors as a speaker's use of "a linguistic item or structure in a way" which shows their "faulty or incomplete learning". Within the 20th century, Liski and Puntanen (1983: 227) presented a perspective which asserted that deviating from the conventions of spoken English in English-speaking nations, particularly those associated with educated speech, can be categorised as an error within the English language. In the early 1990s, Lennon (1991: 182) considered potential drawbacks of earlier definitions which assess variations against judgments of educated English speakers and therefore opted for an approach that defines an error as "a linguistic form or combination of forms" that under similar circumstances would probably "not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts".

Moving into the 21st century, the idea that our increasingly globalised world has led to a greater variability and diversity of English has gained more prominence. Especially in studies in the field of English as a lingua franca (ELF), vital questions have been raised about the "role and nature of communication" among non-native speakers in our progressively interconnected world (Sifakis 2009: 230). In this respect, Sifakis and Bayyurt (2015: 472) introduced an approach which aims to encourage EFL educators to focus on a specific reality they might be unaware of, identify which elements of that reality can be adapted to their local context in terms of communication and instruction, and experiment with various teaching methods. In an effort to put the principles of ELF-aware teaching into practice, the researchers conducted a project involving in-service educators at various levels of public and state

education in Turkey and Greece (Sifakis & Bayyurt 2015: 472). According to the researchers, this project led to a shift in the teachers' beliefs concerning "their self-awareness as 'non-native speakers'" and their application of teaching methods, including error correction (Sifakis & Bayyurt 2015: 482). Especially in terms of pronunciation, the participants' attitudes towards their own abilities and their tolerance of their students' abilities changed drastically. The teachers realised that most educators are fixated on using English accurately, often correcting minor errors that do not impact understanding. After participating in the study, the teachers reported feeling more at ease and less concerned with sounding like a British or American native. They also decided not to correct or view students' erroneous utterances that do not hinder communication as errors (Sifakis & Bayyurt 2015: 479).

Similarly, Pawlak (2014: 3) acknowledged the reasoning behind the belief in native speaker norms, but he also addressed several weaknesses of this proposition. His first point of criticism centred on the recognition that a target language encompasses not just one but multiple varieties. For example, when considering British and American English, it is essential to understand that apart from their grammatical similarities, both varieties exhibit various differences in terms of vocabulary and pronunciation. Hence, what may be considered correct in British English might be seen as incorrect in American English, and, likewise, the opposite could also apply (Pawlak 2014: 3). Furthermore, the researcher emphasised that even within a specific variety, individual speech can vary depending on the speaker's gender, age, social status, education, or contextual factors. Therefore, being a native speaker does not equate to a singular, uniform standard (Pawlak 2014: 4). Considering these constraints, Pawlak (2014: 4) advocated for a revised definition that also aligns with the specific context of the language classroom. He endorsed George's (1972) perspective which places the responsibility on teachers to determine the accuracy of students' utterances and stressed that, at times, even expressions considered "grammatical, acceptable, correct and felicitous in naturalistic interaction" may be corrected by the teacher, since they are seen as contextually inappropriate (Pawlak 2014: 4). Consequently, Pawlak (2014: 4) expressed approval of an earlier definition by Chaudron (1986: 66), who characterised errors as "(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". Given the importance of the EFL

classroom in this thesis, Chaudron's (1986) definition of error appears suitable for this study and will be adopted going forward.

After establishing which definition of error will be used in this paper, it seems essential to point out that some scholars make a distinction between the terms *error* and *mistake*. Based on Corder's (1967: 166-167) theory, for instance, one can distinguish between systematic errors, which arise due to limited competence, and non-systematic errors, which emerge due to issues on the level of performance. The author suggested that only the former should be regarded as errors, while the latter should be called mistakes. Corder (1967: 167) further argued that only errors are significant to the student's language learning process. Therefore, assuming that learners would be able to self-correct mistakes, teachers should consider the correction of errors; however, they do not need to correct mistakes. Even though the consideration of whether self-correction is possible is relevant for this thesis, authors like Pawlak (2014: 5) previously drew attention to this matter, arguing that teachers frequently have less than a split second to decide how to deal with students' inaccurate use of the target language. Thus, it is often impossible for teachers to distinguish between errors and mistakes in a classroom context. Considering that similar conditions can be assumed for the classroom observations which are part of the empirical investigation of the present paper, it has been decided that it would be impossible to treat errors and mistakes as two distinct concepts in this thesis. Therefore, the terms will be used interchangeably henceforth.

2.1.2. *Corrective feedback*

After establishing the understanding of the term error in this paper, it is also significant to provide a definition of the concept of *CF*, which will play a fundamental role in this research project.

In practice, teachers often respond to students' errors with what is commonly known as *CF*. One of the earliest attempts to define the term was undertaken by Chaudron (1977: 39), who described "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance" as *OCF*. A more recent perspective, which appears to be widely accepted, comes from Sheen (2011: 1), who characterised *CF* as a "teacher's reactive move" that is intended to direct the learner's attention to the

“grammatical accuracy” in either oral or written communication. Even though the scholar argued that this kind of CF can be supplied during both a conventional grammar lesson and a communicative interaction, Sheen’s (2011: 1, 9) definition takes a more focused approach, concentrating mainly on the educator’s reaction to the correctness of specific grammatical features, such as the English indefinite and definite articles. Li (2014: 196), on the other hand, presented a slightly broader definition, understanding CF as encompassing all responses from both teachers and peers to a student’s “erroneous second language (L2) production”. Furthermore, according to Lightbown and Spada (2013: 216), the term CF can be used to describe various forms of implicit or explicit responses that indicate “to a learner that his or her use of the target language is incorrect”. It is worth noting though that while there is a significant body of literature dedicated to the concept of CF, other terms have also been employed to refer to the act of teachers correcting erroneous utterances. Especially within the field of L2 acquisition, varied opinions exist concerning the concept of error correction. While some researchers have proposed that the terms error correction and CF can be used as synonyms, authors like Tedick and Lyster (2020: 151) argued “that teachers can provide CF but they do not actually correct students’ errors”. Similarly, Larsen-Freeman (2003: 123) suggested that the term feedback has a wider scope in comparison to the concept of error correction. Hence, in accordance with the authors’ recommendations, this thesis will predominantly adopt the term CF. Nevertheless, given the considerable overlap of their definitions, other concepts such as error correction/treatment, correction, and feedback may also be employed in their broadest sense to address how the teachers react to learner errors.

2.2. The role of corrective feedback in language learning

The perception of CF and learner errors in the context of language learning and teaching has undergone considerable changes in the last seven decades. During the 1950s and 1960s, the audiolingual approach dominated, highlighting the teaching of grammatical structures and the prevention of errors. Nevertheless, subsequent developments in transformational-generative grammar, first language (L1) acquisition, and cognitive psychology led to the adoption of more student-centred teaching methods. The most notable transformation occurred with the introduction of communicative language teaching, which shifted the focus of educators away from the idea of minimising errors and instead emphasised the importance of errors in the learning process (Hendrickson 1978: 387-389). More recent work suggests that discussions

regarding the significance of errors continue; however, it is intriguing to note that similar viewpoints with respect to their influence on L2 acquisition have endured. For example, Tedick and Lyster (2020: 151) indicated that errors could be viewed as signs of learners experimenting with their hypotheses about the target language, making them an impactful part of their foreign language (FL) learning process.

Furthermore, initial research highlights the controversial nature of CF's role in the realm of L2 acquisition. While some authors have stressed the utmost importance of CF provision to students to promote further development in their L2 and prevent the integration of errors into their language skills (Tedick & Lyster 2020: 151-152), there have also been arguments questioning the effectiveness of teachers' CF strategies (Chaudron 1988: 145). However, these early arguments primarily attributed the ineffectiveness of error correction to ambiguity and inconsistency, a stance that has faced substantial opposition from many scholars. Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis serves as a prime example of how CF plays a substantial role in enhancing interlanguage development. The hypothesis posits that learners' awareness of gaps in their target language skills is heightened through engaged interactions, underscoring the pivotal role that CF plays for the mastery of a new language.

2.3. The effectiveness of corrective feedback

In addition to the overall importance of CF, relevant literature also refers to various factors, which are believed to influence the effectiveness of corrective interventions.

When initial studies on OCF were conducted during the late 1960s and early 1970s, researchers like Corder (1967), Holley and King (1971), Gorbet (1974), and Valdman (1975) expressed concerns about the frequency of explicit error correction and reported that teachers were prone to overcorrection. According to Holley and King (1971: 494), for example, who conducted an empirical study involving German as a FL students and teachers, it could be proposed that "overt correction is unnecessary and, indeed, inadvisable". By filming and analysing instances of learners' inaccurate language use as well as teachers' corrective interventions, Holley and King's (1971: 496) research revealed that educators frequently interrupt students' erroneous utterances to supply CF. Moreover, the researchers noticed a tendency among teachers to excessively correct learners, causing a feeling of frustration

among the students (Holley & King 1971: 496). More recent research in this area further illustrated the potential negative impact of excessive correction on students' language learning. Lightbown (2008: 41), for example, pointed out that an overreliance on CF can divert learners' attention away from correction and diminish their motivation to self-monitor their language output. This suggests a need for a balanced approach to error correction in language teaching, where CF is provided effectively without overwhelming or discouraging students.

With the aim of enhancing language learning, Holley and King (1971: 497-498) presented a number of guidelines for teachers in the context of OCF. Based on their research findings, they suggested that educators should avoid the interruption of learners and instead allow students to complete their utterances, even if they contained a language error. Additionally, they stated that whilst educators are "asked to model any incorrect student response, substituting grammatically correct forms where necessary", they are not supposed "to call attention to the correction in any other way" (Holley & King 1971: 497). Lastly, it should be emphasised that the researchers also stressed the importance of praising learners. Especially when student utterances contain grammatical inaccuracies, it is essential to ensure that the learners understand the value of their ideas, disregarding the inaccuracies in terms of grammar (Holley & King 1971: 497-498). This distinction is crucial, as it helps students recognise that "the accuracy of communication and the inaccuracy of grammar production" are two distinct areas (Holley & King 1971: 497). In addition to this, more recently published findings underscored the significance of considering timing and context when delivering CF. Researchers like Hattie and Timperley (2007: 104) highlighted, for instance, that CF is more effective when it aligns with the initial learning process or conveys surface information. Consequently, many authors have recommended that teachers should provide CF promptly and integrate it into a context that is meaningful for the students.

2.4. Controversies concerning different corrective feedback approaches

While there is substantial evidence underscoring the overall advantages of CF, the question of whether specific strategies are more effective in enhancing learners' language acquisition remains complex and lacks a straightforward answer.

2.4.1. *Explicit versus implicit corrective feedback*

As briefly indicated in the previous section, researchers make a general distinction between taking a rather *explicit* or *implicit* approach to error correction. When teachers choose to be explicit, they directly correct the learner's error, sometimes in combination with metalinguistic feedback, for example by saying "No, that's wrong. You need to use the past tense" (Sheen & Ellis 2011: 593). Alternatively, they can adopt an implicit approach, for instance by requesting learners to clarify their erroneous utterances (Sheen & Ellis 2011: 593). In line with Holley and King (1971), who expressed scepticism concerning the effectiveness of providing explicit CF, Gorbet (1974: 34) emphasised that "a teacher who hints at the correct form or supplies it indirectly" will be more successful than a teacher who interrupts learners' speech to directly correct errors. According to Gorbet (1974: 34), this approach would yield even better outcomes when the educator finds a way to link the correction to the student's specific strategies. As a consequence, the author came to the conclusion that, regardless of how CF is delivered, it is essential to place learners in a position where they "can make inferences, formulate concepts and alter [their] hypotheses" (Gorbet 1974: 34). Furthermore, students must be provided with the necessary "time and encouragement" to engage in this cognitive process (Gorbet 1974: 34).

2.4.2. *Input-providing versus output-prompting corrective feedback*

Aside from the distinction between explicit and implicit CF, researchers have also been interested in distinguishing between *input-providing* and *output-prompting* CF (Ellis 2021: 341). As outlined above, the explicit/implicit dimension categorises various CF strategies according to their corrective force. The input-providing/output-prompting dimension, on the other hand, differentiates CF types based on whether they emphasise the provision of input, such as recasts and explicit corrections, or prioritise learners' adjustments of their own output, such as prompts (Ellis 2006: 29; Netz & Fogel 2019: 1). Even though studies have shown that both the explicit versus implicit and the input-providing versus output-prompting dimensions significantly impact learning, their simultaneous presence in numerous investigations has led to a confounding of their individual effects (Netz & Fogel 2019: 1).

With the intention of promoting output-prompting strategies and to foster greater student involvement and participation, Fanselow (1977: 586), who reached the conclusion that teachers frequently tend to provide corrections themselves, proposed alternative approaches for providing OCF (Fanselow 1977: 588-592). To illustrate what these alternative forms of correction could look like, Fanselow (1977: 589) presented the following examples:

- (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?

As per Fanselow's (1977: 588) perspective, engaging the learner in the error correction process by incorporating specific exercises linked to the students' erroneous utterances, like those mentioned above, would "help students establish categories, alter their deep rules for generating utterances, and help move patterns into long-term memory". Regardless of the fact that this method may require more time than explicitly correcting the student's error, there is no doubt that with a strategy like that, teachers would be "teach[ing] rather than just correct[ing]" (Fanselow 1977: 588).

2.4.3. Reformulations versus prompts

Due to growing concerns about teachers' overly explicit approach to error correction and the increasing significance of determining the most effective method for providing OCF, various models introducing alternative CF methods have been created. Chaudron (1977), for example, focused his research on corrective interactions in French immersion classrooms and finally categorised the CF moves made by teachers into more than 30 distinct categories. About two decades after the introduction of Chaudron's (1977) pioneering model, Lyster and Ranta (1997), who also analysed classroom interactions in French immersion settings, presented a new CF model that has gained widespread usage. Rather than to distinguish between over 30 CF strategies, Lyster and Ranta (1997) decided to classify teachers' CF moves into six main

categories. An overview of the six CF types, namely *explicit corrections*, *recasts*, *clarification requests*, *metalinguistic feedback*, *elicitations*, and *repetitions*, can be seen in Figure 1 below.

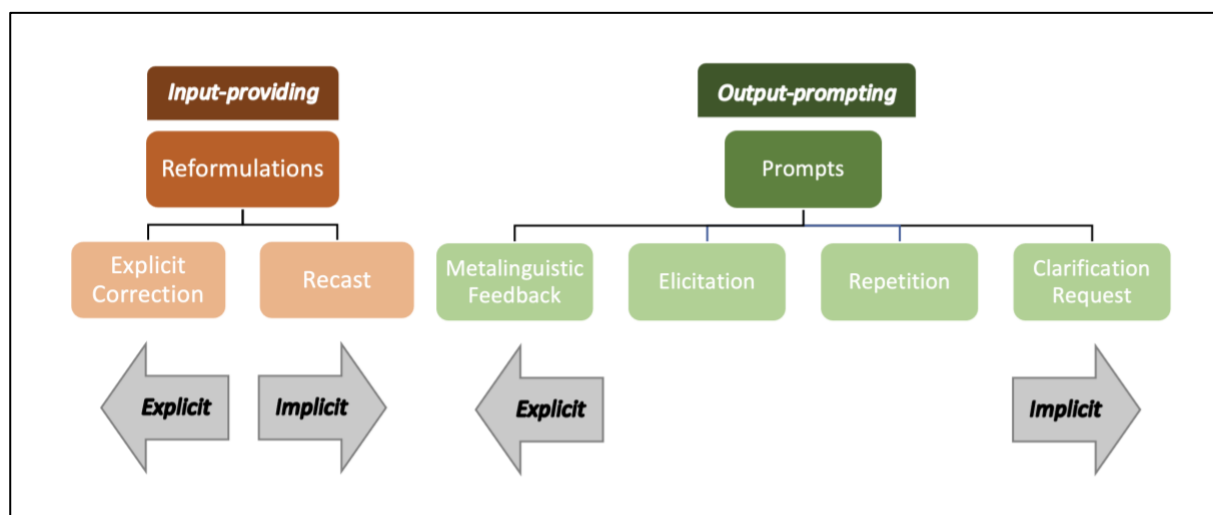


Figure 1. Overview of CF types (adapted from Lyster & Saito 2010: 278).

As illustrated in Figure 1, the researchers also made a binary distinction between *reformulations* and *prompts* (Ranta & Lyster 2007), which will be adopted in this thesis. Additionally, building upon the discussions in the preceding sections, the six CF types can be classified as either input-providing or output-prompting as well as explicit or implicit. However, it has to be noted that apart from clarification requests, which seem to be more implicit than the other output-prompting CF types, the “classification of prompts at discrete points along this continuum [of implicitness and explicitness] is rather crude and open to further refinement” (Lyster & Saito 2010: 279). Moreover, studies by Loewen and Philp (2006: 536) as well as Sheen (2006: 387) showed that recasts vary in their implicitness, ranging from less explicit to more explicit. Thus, positioning them on the implicit end of the spectrum serves primarily to distinguish between the two input-providing CF techniques.

As mentioned earlier, there has been extensive research on OCF and the introduction of various CF strategies over the years. Despite this, there is still no consensus on the most effective way to give OCF. To provide deeper insight into this subject, a range of perspectives on the six main CF methods will be presented in the following. According to Ranta and Lyster’s (2007: 152) definitions, explicit corrections and recasts are considered as reformulations, since they “supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output”. Elicitations,

metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetitions, on the other hand, are categorised as prompts, as they provide “signals, other than alternative reformulations, that push learners to self-repair” (Ranta & Lyster 2007: 152). Since they “withhold correct forms”, students are prompted to “retrieve these correct forms from their existing knowledge (Lyster & Saito 2010: 268). In an effort to find out whether one type of CF is genuinely superior to the other, the subsequent discussion will provide a closer examination of reformulations and prompts.

When discussing reformulations, a specific focus on recasts seems vital. In general, recasts are considered the most prevalent form of CF in various instructional contexts (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Lyster & Mori 2006; Brown 2016). Supporters of recasts frequently draw upon research in the field of L1 acquisition. They argue that recasts offer several advantages, including that they can be used to provide both positive and negative evidence. When it comes to positive evidence, for example, they serve a valuable role in scaffolding learners’ understanding and introducing unfamiliar lesson contents (Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada 2001: 752; Tedick & Lyster 2020: 169). Additionally, various researchers have pointed out that recasts allow educators to help students recognise their mistakes while maintaining the focus on meaning (e.g. Farrar 1992; Doughty & Varela 1998; Doughty 2001). According to Doughty and Varela (1998: 114), for instance, recasts can be seen as “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”. An early study which also endorsed the efficacy of recasts was conducted by Mackey and Philp (1998: 353), who examined English as a second language (ESL) learners’ interactions with native speakers and determined a positive influence of recasts on students’ ability to form English questions. In line with that, Han (2002: 543) found that recasts were successful with respect to the enhancement of students’ awareness of their L2. By asking eight upper-intermediate EFL learners to participate in a one-semester intensive English course, Han (2002: 543) could infer that the use of recasts had a positive effect on the tense consistency in both oral and written production activities. However, Han’s (2002: 568) study also highlighted that specific conditions such as “(a) individualized attention, (b) consistent focus, (c) developmental readiness, and (d) intensity” had to be present to achieve the positive impact of recasts.

Nonetheless, it has to be noted that the effectiveness of recasts in terms of students' L2 development has been a subject of debate for several years. In line with Lyster and Ranta (1997: 57), whose criticism centred on the potential for recasts to cause ambiguity, various researchers have indicated that the effectiveness of recasts depends on the ability of the individual learner to perceive the teacher's corrective intent (e.g. Lyster 1998a; Ellis & Sheen 2006; Lyster & Saito 2010). Lyster and Saito (2010: 270), for example, argued that recasts can only provide both positive and negative evidence "if learners perceive the teacher's corrective intention". As a result, when students fail to discern the teacher's intention to correct errors, the recasting merely serves as a form of positive evidence (Lyster & Saito 2010: 270). Lyster's (1998a: 71) study further reinforced the idea that recasts are frequently ambiguous. After analysing transcripts from over 18 hours of interactions in four French immersion classrooms, Lyster (1998a: 74) contended that recasts often occur as forms of noncorrective repetitions. As a result, it is reasonable to question whether students can accurately perceive a teacher's use of recasts as a form of CF. As noted by Tedick and Lyster (2020: 165), especially conversational recasts, which compared to didactic recasts are less deliberate and explicit, can often convey mixed linguistic signals regarding learners' utterances. This can lead to misunderstandings, as students may struggle to discern "whether the teacher's follow up move is confirming the meaning of the utterance or correcting its form, or perhaps both" (Tedick & Lyster 2020: 165).

In this regard, Lyster (2007: 99-102) reported that in particular younger learners may struggle to identify minimal phonological differences in the teacher's speech and might mistake recasts as expressions of approval rather than corrective responses. This lack of clarity can reinforce an already ingrained error. Furthermore, students sometimes misinterpret teachers' reformulations as alternative ways to convey the same ideas. It is also worth emphasising that the value of recasts has been questioned in situations where learners have already developed a stable interlanguage and could benefit more from self-correction (Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada 2001: 752). Next to recast, the second CF type falling under the category of reformulation is explicit correction. This approach clearly identifies errors, thus offering unambiguous CF to the learner. Nevertheless, since the educator both initiates and completes the repair, students are not pushed to rectify their errors themselves (Lyster & Ranta 1997:

57). Additionally, it has been observed that explicit error correction is more likely to disrupt the natural flow of communication (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam 2006: 341).

In opposition to scholars who have encouraged the use of recasts based on findings from studies on L1 acquisition, other researchers have argued that L2 learning shares similarities with skill acquisition. With the assumption that students should “develop automaticity in target language use”, these scholars have advocated for the usage of prompts, since 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” (Lyster & Saito 2010: 270). In general, there seems to be an agreement on the effectiveness of prompts with respect to facilitating student-initiated self-repair, which is believed to require deeper cognitive processing. Since this in turn may enhance the likelihood of learners internalising new language forms, giving cues to prompt students has often been viewed as more beneficial for the development of learners’ L2 skills compared to offering reformulations (Tedick & Lyster 2020: 159).

Indeed, the advantage of using prompts in comparison to recasts becomes evident when examining additional empirical research in this area. An exploratory study by Havranek (2002: 262), for example, where 207 Austrian EFL learners of different ages and proficiency levels participated, made it clear that for OCF to be successful, the student must be able to identify the error with the teacher’s guidance. The results of Havranek’s (2002: 268-269) project indicated that uptake would be more likely to take place when students repeated the correct form. In contrast to that, the success rate of recasts without repetition was very low. Similarly, a quasi-experimental study by Yang and Lyster (2010: 258), which involved 72 Chinese EFL learners, demonstrated that the participants who received prompts tended to outperform the recast and control groups. Yang and Lyster (2010: 258-259) tried to explain this finding by referring not only to the fact that prompts induce learners’ self-correction but also to the higher saliency of prompts during oral production tasks. A meta-analysis which further highlighted the advantages of prompts was conducted by Lyster and Saito (2010: 265, 267), who reviewed 15 classroom-based studies, including analyses for recasts, prompts, and explicit corrections. The researchers discovered that “the differential effectiveness of prompts [is] significantly larger than that of recasts” (Lyster & Saito 2010: 283). Despite the fact that

Lyster and Saito (2010: 290) acknowledged that both recasts and prompts appear to be valuable CF techniques in the EFL classroom, they stressed that it is crucial for educators to be mindful of the insight that although 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 (Lyster & Saito 2010: 290).

Consequently, if teachers aim to err on the side of caution and guarantee that students effectively recognise OCF, using prompts may be the more suitable option. Besides their beneficial effect on learners' productive language skills, prompts are also known for fostering students' active engagement with the language and creating an innovative learning environment (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 58; Tedick & Lyster 2020: 170-172).

2.4.3.1. Influencing factors

Despite the fact that the aforementioned research results essentially reached a shared conclusion, indicating that learners who received prompts generally outperformed those receiving recasts, it is important to acknowledge that the efficacy of CF strategies is influenced by various factors. For example, whilst CF methods allowing for student-initiated repair are generally believed to be less affected by issues of salience, concerns regarding the potential for imprecise prompts to cause ambiguity and reduce their overall effectiveness have also been expressed (Tedick & Lyster 2020: 172). Furthermore, not all CF methods that encourage self-correction are equally successful. Lyster and Ranta (1997: 55), for instance, reported that clarification requests are less effective in promoting student-initiated repair compared to elicitations and metalinguistic feedback. Since some studies have also demonstrated that under certain circumstances, such as specific error types or differing language levels of the students, the effectiveness of recasts versus prompts may vary, one has to be particularly cautious about making a definitive argument saying that one type of OCF is universally more beneficial than the other.

In this context, Lyster's (1998b) study not only set out to explore how teachers' use of OCF types corresponds with learner uptake but also sought to identify the CF moves that teachers preferred to use based on the specific type of error. The investigation, which included over 18 hours of audio recordings from four French immersion classrooms, categorised errors as either grammatical, phonological, lexical, or unsolicited uses of the L1 (Lyster 1998b: 183). The findings showed that practitioners commonly employed prompts after lexical mistakes and recasts after grammatical and phonological errors (Lyster 1998b: 184). In terms of the effectiveness of the different CF moves, the study revealed that for student repair, both the recasting of phonological errors and the use of prompts for lexical errors proved to be successful techniques (Lyster 1998b: 203). Nevertheless, it could be demonstrated that prompts were more effective than recasts when the teachers had to deal with grammatical mistakes (Lyster 1998b: 203).

These results are consistent with those of Tsang (2004), whose research objectives and conditions are comparable to Lyster's (1998b). Based on an analysis of 18 EFL lessons in Hong Kong secondary schools, Tsang (2004: 196) inferred that recasts were the most frequently used form of CF. Nevertheless, in terms of students' uptake, recasts were the least effective type of CF, as they only resulted in successful repair if they had been provided after phonological errors (Tsang 2004: 187). Even though all output-prompting CF moves, including clarifications requests, elicitations, metalinguistic feedback, and repetitions, led to more repairs than recasts and explicit corrections, repetitions were the most effective CF strategy as far as learner uptake was concerned (Tsang 2004: 187, 198).

Furthermore, Ammar and Spada (2006) examined the effectiveness of both recasts and prompts in a quasi-experimental study. Their results, which are based on experiments with 64 ESL learners in Montreal, indicated a higher effectiveness of prompts (Ammar & Spada 2006: 543). However, the researchers still argued that "one size does not fit all" (Ammar & Spada 2006: 566). They justified their position by stating that the results were different depending on whether high-proficiency or low-proficiency learners were observed. In general, the researchers noted that prompts proved to be more effective than recasts for low-proficiency students. However, both prompts and recasts yielded similar results for high-proficiency participants (Ammar & Spada 2006: 566). As a consequence, Ammar and Spada (2006: 566)

came to the conclusion that “[t]he effectiveness of any CF technique needs to be evaluated in relation to learners’ proficiency levels”.

2.4.3.2. Methodological issues

Even though the previous discussion, which highlights the multitude of factors influencing the efficacy of prompts and recasts, already shows that any attempt to make a universal claim about the superiority of one type over the other seems incredibly complicated, it is crucial to also recognise that examining the way different CF types have been researched adds another layer of complexity to this debate.

Goo and Mackey (2013: 149-150), for example, pointed out that in previous studies, “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”. This approach, as they emphasised, is not ideal, since “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” (Goo & Mackey 2013: 150). Additionally, Goo and Mackey (2013: 150) expressed disapproval regarding the common occurrence of a “double feedback move” in prompts, as exemplified in a study by Lyster and Izquierdo (2009). In this study, errors were corrected through clarification requests, and teachers were allowed to provide repetitions, ultimately resulting in a double CF move (Lyster & Izquierdo 2009: 471).

Apart from that, it is essential to note that the perceived superiority of prompts over recasts may be influenced by variations in the definitions of recasts. Several studies on recasts have had significantly different outcomes, partly due to the diverse operational definitions of recasts that have been employed. Nicholas, Lightbown, and Spada (2001: 752) highlighted this issue, stating, “[o]ne factor that has led to apparently different findings is that the operational definition of recasts has varied considerably”. Ellis and Sheen (2006: 578) reinforced this as a significant problem, as “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”. The term corrective recasting, which appeared in an experimental study by Doughty and Varela (1998), for example, was used to refer to both the teacher’s repetition of a student’s inaccurate utterance and a recast of the entire phrase. In contrast to this, Farrar

(1992: 92) distinguished between corrective and noncorrective recasts, where the former represented a response to a target error, and the latter illustrated the target form without a direct correction of the error.

Considering these diverse definitions, which exemplify the “chameleonlike” nature of recasts (Ellis & Sheen 2006: 579), it becomes apparent that a comparison of research results regarding the efficacy of different CF types is not straightforward. Thus, to be able to reach more meaningful conclusions, addressing the definitional problem beforehand could prove beneficial.

In summary, this chapter not only provided definitions of essential terms such as error and CF, but it also revealed that the perception of these concepts in L2 acquisition has evolved from a focus on error prevention to an understanding of errors as a crucial part of the learning process. Since early studies on CF raised concerns about the frequency of explicit error correction and the tendency of teachers to overcorrect, leading to learner frustration and decreased motivation, recent guidelines advocate for approaches that involve minimal interruption, model correct forms without explicit correction, praise students for their ideas despite grammatical errors, and deliver CF promptly in a meaningful context. Additionally, the chapter presented various dimensions of CF and discussed controversies surrounding different CF approaches, especially reformulations and prompts. Overall, the evidence indicates that prompts are more effective than reformulations in stimulating student self-correction and fostering active engagement. Even though recasts are widely used and can provide both positive and negative evidence, their effectiveness is debated due to potential ambiguity and learners’ varying abilities to perceive their corrective intent. Finally, it was emphasised that the efficacy of CF strategies is influenced by numerous factors, including error type, learner proficiency, and methodological differences in defining and analysing CF types. Therefore, it remains challenging to assert the universal superiority of one CF method over another.

3. Self-correction in the EFL classroom

Having elucidated key aspects related to OCF, this chapter focuses on self-correction in the EFL classroom, the second fundamental concept underlying this research project.

3.1. Terms and definitions

To delineate the concept of *self-correction*, it is crucial to explore its beginnings, which trace back to seminal studies of conversational repair from the 1980s. During this period, Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) conducted a thorough and systematic investigation of corrective behaviours within everyday interactions, marking the first comprehensive examination of its kind. The researchers identified various techniques which are employed by native speakers when faced with conversational breakdowns. By referring to the term *repair*, Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977: 363-365) demonstrated that the process of correcting speech can comprise several stages: (1) a statement containing the source of the issue is uttered by one of the participants; (2) the problem can be indicated by either the trouble-source speaker (*self-initiation*) or the other party (*other-initiation*), who thus initiates the correction; (3) the correction is carried out by either the speaker (*self-repair*) or the other participant (*other-repair*); (4) the other participant may acknowledge the comprehension of the correction, and the conversation proceeds.

Even though published 30 years later, Hall (2007) presented a similar approach to the concept of repair. The researcher pointed out that repair procedures consist of two elements: the initiation of the repair and the outcome of the repair (Hall 2007: 513). In addition, as Hall (2007: 513) argued, “their accomplishment can vary depending on who initiates the repair operation and who completes it”. One arrangement is *self-initiated self-repair*. In this case, the speaker who made the error both initiates and resolves the repair. Self-initiated self-repair may take place within the same conversational turn as the occurrence of the issue, in the transition period between turns, or in the turn following the one in which the issue arose. In another arrangement, known as *self-initiated other-repair*, the speaker who encounters the difficulty initiates the repair in the first turn, and it is resolved by the speaker in the subsequent turn (Hall 2007: 513). A third arrangement is termed *other-initiated self-repair*. For this type, “the recipient of a turn interrupts the course of action by initiating repair of a trouble source in the speaker’s turn” (Hall 2007: 513). The issue is then resolved by the speaker who originally made the error in the third turn. The fourth configuration, called *other-initiated other-repair*, is a setup where the recipient intervenes in the ongoing discourse, taking charge of both initiating and resolving the repair of the issue identified during the ongoing conversation (Hall 2007: 513).

While any of these four arrangements may arise during conversations in everyday life, self-initiated repair, where individuals independently address and rectify communication errors, is commonly favoured in conversational interactions (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks 1977: 375). In such interactions, overcoming communication obstacles appears to be a routine task, and correction usually involves the replacement of something that is perceived as erroneous or problematic with something deemed more accurate (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks 1977: 369). However, daily interactions often diverge significantly from the dynamics within the school context. Whilst Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks' (1977) study showed that corrections in everyday life predominantly target errors due to issues in content and pragmatics rather than linguistic problems, within classrooms, the corrective action may take different forms and refer to various aspects that need correction. Since issues in L2 classrooms often present more challenges compared to other environments (Seedhouse 2004: 34), the repair process during teaching and learning, particularly in EFL settings, can be notably less fluid than in real life. Thus, Seedhouse (2004: 34) emphasised that it is crucial for both teachers and students to grasp the process of resolving misunderstandings and communication breakdowns.

As outlined in the second chapter of this paper, one can distinguish between input-providing and output-prompting approaches to error correction. In some studies, such as Beshir and Yigzaw's (2022: 3) investigation of students' self-repair in EFL classroom interactions, the term self-repair is understood as a way of resolving communication obstacles independently, without external intervention. For this research project, however, the output-prompting method of error correction, which involves "encouraging learners to self-correct by highlighting the errors, identifying the category of error with a code, or giving an explanation without providing the correct form" (Guénette 2012: 118), is essential. Consequently, the term self-correction is not used to refer to instances of self-initiated corrections that occur without prompting. Instead, the focus is on self-corrections that were provoked by external cues, as described by Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977: 364) as other-initiated repair. Therefore, in line with Lyster and Ranta's (1997: 49) analysis, in this paper, the term self-correction is understood as a "repair occurring only after prompting".

According to Lyster and Ranta's (1997: 50) definition, a "self-repair refers to a self-correction, produced by the student who made the initial error, in response to the teacher's feedback

when the latter does not already provide the correct form". This definition underscores the close relationship between the terms self-correction and self-repair. In certain contexts, the two terms are understood as essentially identical, while in others, scholars may discern subtle distinctions based on factors such as the initiator of the correction, the presence or absence of external cues, or the specific context in which the correction occurs. Nonetheless, for the purpose of clarity and consistency within this thesis, the term self-correction will predominantly be utilised to denote instances of other-initiated error correction within the EFL classroom.

3.2. The role of self-correction in language learning

Having established a comprehensive understanding of the concept of self-correction, the subsequent section delves into its significance for language learning. Whilst overall, interest in self-correction has increased in recent years (Zaki 2020: 196), in prior research within the classroom context, learners' self-corrective moves have been primarily analysed with respect to one single element of the classroom learning environment (Zeng & Evans 2022: 4). Aspects that have been investigated included, for example, the role of educators and students (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain 2003), the type of the activity being undertaken (Jung 1999) and its level of difficulty (Ahmadian, Abdolrezapour & Ketabi 2012), the instructional objectives (Seedhouse 1999), and the role of self-correction in L2 acquisition (Shehadeh 2001; Smartt & Scudder 2004).

One element that is particularly relevant to the present research project is the role of self-correction in L2 acquisition. Even more than 30 years ago, numerous researchers have emphasised the importance of self-correction in the process of learning a language. Van Lier (1988: 211), for instance, underlined that an educator should not immediately refer to the use of CF strategies that "deny the speaker the opportunity to do self-repair, [which is] probably an important learning activity". Similarly, Swain (1988: 77) stressed that in situations where students need to reprocess their non-target output, they are ultimately encouraged to recognise their erroneous utterances. Another advocate of self-corrections seems to be Chaudron (1988: 132-133), who reported that teaching methods focusing on self-correction are more inclined to enhance students' improvement in the target language and their content-specific knowledge. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 99) pushed this argument even further by

claiming that “no matter how hard a teacher tries to correct errors, only the learner can do the learning necessary to improve performance, regardless of how much treatment is provided”. Furthermore, following Swain’s (1993, 1995) output hypothesis, students should be encouraged to utilise their own abilities and expand their range of productive skills. This resonates with Shonerd’s (1994: 91) insight from the late 20th century, wherein he observed that self-repair signifies students’ efforts to enhance their current L2 abilities to address challenges in language usage. Further evidence highlighting the positive impact of self-correction comes from de Bot (1996: 549), who suggested that learners experience a greater benefit from being encouraged to “making the right connection on one’s own” than from simply being provided with the correct forms. According to the researcher, one could argue that through the process of self-correcting after negative feedback, students are prompted to undergo a certain level of re-evaluation, thereby enhancing their awareness of the rule or form in question (de Bot 1996: 549-550).

Only a year later, Lyster and Ranta (1997: 54) also proposed that instances where the student merely echoes the teacher’s words do not necessarily indicate the full comprehension of CF. Thus, it appears reasonable to expect that the teacher’s objective would be for the learner to either self-correct or for another student to address the error (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 54). In addition, the researchers highlighted that student-generated repair is essential, as it provides learners with opportunities “to automatize the retrieval of target language knowledge that already exists in some form” and rely on “their own resources and thus actively confront errors in ways that may lead to revisions of their hypotheses about the target language” (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 57). Moreover, Lyster (1998b: 185) asserted that especially in settings involving young students, who may not “readily notice target-nontarget mismatches in the interactional input”, providing learners with cues that encourage peer- and self-correction might prompt them to notice discrepancies between target and non-target language elements more effectively than simply presenting target forms in the classroom discourse. Essentially, when learners remember information in the L2 and correct themselves after receiving a linguistic cue or prompt from the teacher, they need to pay closer attention to differences between correct and incorrect language usage. This attention to detail is greater than if they were simply repeating the teacher’s recast or explicit correction (Lyster 1998b: 185-186).

After the transition from the 20th to the 21st century, further research results supporting the fundamental role of self-correction in language learning have been published. Lyster (2002: 248-249), for example, indicated that the process of self-correction would help students reassess previously acquired knowledge and reorganise their interlanguage. A few years later, Jiménez (2006: 48) pointed out that as learners develop the ability to identify and rectify their own mistakes, they enhance their independence. Hence, it is crucial for educators to allow students sufficient time for self-correction rather than to interrupt by the provision of the correct response. Furthermore, he put forward that fostering an environment of mutual encouragement and collaboration can facilitate a smoother, more pleasurable, and ultimately more productive learning experience (Jiménez 2006: 48). Moreover, Rabab'ah and Bulut's (2007: 102-103) investigation revealed that repair mechanisms could avert breakdowns in communication and facilitate the transmission of messages to the listener, thereby contributing to the acquisition of L2 skills.

Zaki (2020: 200), who tried to distinguish the self-correction approach from alternative methods of CF, emphasised that the primary objective of self-correction should be to actively involve students in thinking about their errors and how to rectify them. As a consequence, the process of thinking becomes an act of learning (Zaki 2020: 200), and it would be possible to accomplish a gradual shift away from "the teacher as the source of all knowledge" (Zaki 2020: 206). Even though Zaki's (2020: 207-208) study, which analysed whether self-correction through corpus-based tasks could improve the writing skills of Arabic learners, showed that prompting students to self-correct could be efficient in the classroom, the research did not assert that the corpus-based self-correction method would be suitable for every student or every error type. Instead, it should be viewed as "a complement to the arsenal of techniques and strategies at the teacher's and learner's disposal" (Boulton 2009: 38).

More recent results of Zeng and Evans' (2022: 2) study indicated that there appears to be a significant relation between the frequency of self-corrections and the language acquisition process of L2 learners. The researchers stated that in L2 learning, self-repair serves as a mechanism that students employ to address speech difficulties, which they encounter during their learning endeavours. When students self-repair their erroneous utterances, it not only leads to alterations in their speech planning processes but also modifies their actual speech

production. In addition to this, it serves as a technique that learners utilise to manage and regulate their L2 planning and usage (Zeng & Evans 2022: 2). In opposition to the notion of Lyster (1998b: 185-186), who advocated for the use of self-correction especially with younger students, Ko (2022: 22) found that in contrast to higher-level learners, lower-level students needed additional support from teachers to implement self-correction. Therefore, she maintained that educators should select CF methods based on students' proficiency levels (Ko 2022: 22).

3.3. Implementing self-correction in the EFL classroom

Despite the previous section underscoring the benefits of self-correction for language learning, the practical implementation of this approach in the classroom has to be considered as well. In this respect, James (1998: 236) emphasised that self-correction tasks had become more common in EFL teaching materials, and Kouraogo (2001: 325) underlined that particularly in EFL classrooms, activities like error-spotting tasks and grammar games, which aim to “make learners discuss and pass judgement on erroneous sentences they have produced themselves”, had been used for some time. However, in recent academic literature, the concept of self-correction has been portrayed with certain scepticism concerning its feasibility (Zaki 2020: 194). Whilst the idea that the student becomes “the captain of [their] own learning route” (Kouraogo 2001: 338) may seem attractive, Zaki (2020: 194) maintained that numerous practical and pedagogical issues and obstacles may arise along the way. Hence, scholars like Pawlak (2014: 121) stressed that “it is of utmost importance to come up with ways to encourage learners to ponder over the errors they made”.

Following this line of thought, Kouraogo (2001: 330) stated that a crucial prerequisite for the implementation of self-correction is for students to “have acquired enough theoretical knowledge of the rules of ‘usage’” of a particular language. According to Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006: 210), effective CF not only provides timely guidance and corrective suggestions but also offers information to facilitate students' self-correction. This gives learners essential insights and stimulates dialogue between teachers and students regarding their learning progress (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick 2006: 210). Touching on this, Zeng and Evans (2022: 1) concluded their research by proposing that EFL instructors should pay closer attention to students' self-repair abilities. This would enable them to analyse potential sources of stress

arising from an activity system, contemplate potential methods of conflict resolution, and establish an environment which fosters opportunities for learning (Zeng & Evans 2022: 1). Furthermore, the researchers noted that when teachers excessively intervene to correct students during free expression activities, it diminishes the likelihood of learners getting better at self-correcting errors, thereby hindering their progress towards greater autonomy in their L2 proficiency. As an alternative, they recommended that teachers should guide students through problematic situations (Zeng & Evans 2022: 12).

Further implications that arose from Zeng and Evans' (2022: 12) examination are related to the way English is conceptualised at different schools. Prioritising exam-oriented learning, for example, should not restrict the opportunities for learners to self-correct their erroneous utterances during verbal classroom interactions (Zeng & Evans 2022: 12). According to the researchers, enabling students to develop the ability to utilise self-correction as a learning tool fosters their autonomy in the use of the L2 and aligns with the primary aim of achieving excellent performances in examinations (Zeng & Evans 2022: 12-13). Additionally, the results of a study by Beshir and Yigzaw (2022: 3) revealed that educators who not only pay attention to prevent interaction breakdowns but also consider potential repair methods strengthen learners' communication abilities.

3.4. Learners' attitudes towards self-correction

When exploring concepts such as self-correction, it is essential to adopt a comprehensive approach, considering the multifaceted dynamics within the classroom environment (Zeng & Evans 2022: 4). Since the sociocultural setting of the school and classroom alongside the attitudes of students converge to shape their primary learning experience, the subsequent section will outline empirical findings with respect to the diverse attitudes that learners hold towards self-correction.

Morgenstern, Leroy-Collombel, and Caët (2013: 165), who analysed other- and self-repairs in adult-child interactions, found that children establish a preference for self-correction in early stages of their development. The researchers, who aimed to demonstrate how corrective actions taken during dialogue help narrow the gaps between children's spoken language and the language they hear from other people, showed that self-corrections appear to stem from

both the process of grammar acquisition and the socialisation of children's language, which involves internalising adult grammar and constructions through dialogue (Morgenstern, Leroy-Collombel & Caët 2013: 165). Children develop transitional language systems that include deviations or disparities compared to the adult language system. Therefore, it takes time for them to acquire a large number of appropriate conventional forms. However, through continuous exposure to adult language input, their language gradually develops, becomes more enriched, and aligns increasingly with the target language system they hear. As children internalise the correct forms over time, they gain the ability to engage in self-corrections, thereby establishing additional avenues for further language development and acquisition (Morgenstern, Leroy-Collombel & Caët 2013: 165).

Nevertheless, it is crucial to acknowledge that attitudes are subject to change, particularly as children immerse themselves in educational environments where self-correction may not always be favoured (Zaki 2020: 196). Chandler (2003: 291), for instance, reported that due to their perceived efficiency and simplicity, the undergraduate students in her study expressed a preference for immediate corrections by their teachers. However, the learners also noted that self-correction had a beneficial effect, as it facilitated deeper learning (Chandler 2003: 291-292). Considering that the evaluation of one's own performance in any task is inherently more challenging than evaluating someone else's, students' reluctance towards self-correction is not an unexpected finding (Zaki 2020: 196). James (1998: 236), for example, argued already at the end of the 20th century that "self-correction is an intriguing phenomenon in that for some inexplicable reason we seem to be more capable of spotting other people's errors than our own". In line with this, Niesen (2015: 27) asserted that self-correction demands learners to engage in "self-critical analysis of their own performance", requiring a cognitive effort that goes beyond simply receiving CF from a teacher. Additionally, although it is important to recognise that encouraging self-correction does not negate the role of teachers (Zaki 2020: 196), it has been mentioned by numerous educators that the "correction of mistakes was still perceived as the teacher's duty by many students" (Niesen 2015: 27).

To sum up, Chapter 3 of this paper highlighted the significance of self-correction for language learning, acknowledging the growing interest in its application in the EFL classroom. Although

the impact of self-correction on students' L2 acquisition may vary based on learners' proficiency levels, various studies have shown its effectiveness in encouraging students' independent recognition and correction of errors. While the self-correction approach offers notable benefits, its practical application in the classroom faces challenges. Not only is there a need for students to possess sufficient theoretical knowledge, but it is also essential that teachers foster self-correction abilities in learners, thereby avoiding excessive intervention. In terms of students' attitudes towards self-correction, research suggests that children develop a natural inclination for self-correction early in their language development. However, attitudes towards self-correction often shift as learners enter educational settings, where self-correction is viewed as more challenging and cognitively demanding compared to corrections provided by teachers.

4. EFL teachers' beliefs

After clarifying the important points concerning self-correction in the EFL classroom, this chapter moves on to review the literature related to EFL teachers' beliefs.

4.1. Terms and definitions

4.1.1. Teachers' beliefs

In order to lay a solid foundation for the ensuing discourse, this section will delve into the definitions and conceptualisations of a pivotal aspect of this research project: *teachers' beliefs*. With the growing awareness of the impact of teacher cognition on classroom dynamics (Borg 2006: 1), recent research has increasingly directed its attention towards understanding the rationale behind teachers' beliefs (Bao 2019: 140). The sudden increase in research in this field, extending beyond language education to education in general, stems from acknowledging teachers as dynamic "decision-makers who play a central role in shaping classroom events" (Borg 2006: 1). Combined with findings from psychology, which have demonstrated the significant influence of knowledge and beliefs on human behaviour, this acknowledgment highlights the importance of research in this area, ultimately enhancing our understanding of educators' behaviour in the classroom. Even though exploring teachers' beliefs is still a relatively new field of study, particularly within L2 contexts, it has shown its

potential to deepen our insight into the journey to becoming and being a teacher (Borg 2006: 1-2).

In a case study by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004: 244), the term *beliefs* was defined as “statements teachers made about their ideas, thoughts, and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what ‘should be done’, ‘should be the case’, and ‘is preferable’”. Typically, a differentiation has been made between *explicit* and *implicit beliefs*. Argyris and Schön (1974: 6-7) introduced two fundamental concepts, namely *espoused-theories* and *theories-in-use*, which serve as a cornerstone for understanding this differentiation. The researchers asserted that explicit beliefs, constituting espoused-theories, are consciously held and therefore can be measured directly by self-report. In contrast, implicit beliefs, comprising theories-in-use, are rooted in one’s unconscious thinking and consequently need to be inferred from actions (Argyris & Schön 1974: 6-7). Despite the fact that considerable effort has been devoted to distinguishing the concept of teachers’ beliefs from related phenomena, such as teachers’ knowledge, perception, and attitude (Bao 2019: 141), the different constructs are often used interchangeably and without precision. Whilst there is a degree of uncertainty around the terminology, this thesis will predominately utilise the term teachers’ beliefs to refer to the conscious or unconscious evaluative propositions that educators acknowledge as true, even though other teachers may hold different opinions on the same topic (Borg 2001: 186).

The notion that teachers’ beliefs cannot in any way be considered as homogeneous, which is highlighted by Borg’s (2001) definition, has been echoed by subsequent research. De Kraker-Pauw et al. (2017: 2), for example, reported that one of the factors likely to influence teachers’ beliefs is their teaching domain. In their study concerning the malleability of intelligence, the scholars explained this observation by referring to “the tendency of people to assume that success in some domains (e.g., science, technology, engineering, and mathematics—STEM—subjects) depends upon innate ability, even more so than on dedication and perseverance” (de Kraker-Pauw et al. 2017: 2). In addition, it can be assumed that educators from diverse cultural backgrounds may hold distinct beliefs about various aspects of L2 instruction (Bao 2019: 140).

Since only a small number of studies have investigated the correlation between educators' beliefs about intellectual ability and their attitudes towards learners (Hong 2001; Rattan, Good & Dweck 2012), a systematic understanding of teachers' beliefs with respect to the role of effort in language learning is still lacking. Considering that very little attention has been paid to this topic, introducing a study by Chen et al. (2016) seems crucial to establish a solid basis for this empirical project. The researchers explored the correlation between high-school teachers' effort beliefs and their attitudes towards favouritism, praise, and expectations of struggling and smart students. In the examination, it could be shown that laypersons generate theories or beliefs regarding ability and effort (Chen et al. 2016: 1). Chen et al.'s (2016) study involved 151 Taiwanese high-school teachers, who had to complete a two-part questionnaire, including one section that asked the participants to indicate their views on effort and intelligence. Based on the data analysis, the researchers argued that some individuals may believe that a person's capacity is relatively fixed and unchangeable, while others may hold the belief that anyone can enhance their abilities by putting in the necessary effort (Chen et al. 2016: 1). Furthermore, Chen et al. (2016: 3) pointed out that teachers' beliefs about effort and ability may shape their "affective, cognitive, and behavioral attitude towards learners". In addition, it can be noted that previous work on teacher variables has suggested a positive correlation between learner-centred beliefs and student achievement. One of those beliefs was, for example, the idea that learning thrives when students cultivate supportive relationships and take ownership of their learning journey (Cornelius-White 2007: 134).

4.1.2. *Teachers' mindsets*

Even though there is a relatively small body of literature that is concerned with teachers' beliefs regarding the role of effort in language learning, a few researchers have attempted to investigate the issue by referring to the concept of *teachers' mindsets*. Thus, to offer a more comprehensive understanding of the subject, relevant findings concerning teachers' mindsets will be integrated with existing literature on teachers' beliefs.

Dweck's (2000, 2006) theory of mindsets revolves around the implicit beliefs that individuals hold regarding fundamental human attributes. People that embrace a *growth mindset*, also referred to as *incremental theorists*, perceive concepts like personality, intelligence, and abilities as malleable and capable of development. Conversely, individuals with a *fixed*

mindset, also known as *entity theorists*, are more likely to view these qualities as static and unchangeable. While people typically tend to lean towards one mindset over the other, there can be mindset variations within that same individual across different domains. In connection with this, Kuusisto, Laine, and Tirri (2017: 1) not only found a “domain-specific variance” with respect to students’ perceptions about the nature of intelligence and giftedness but also highlighted that learners’ implicit beliefs were partially influenced by the age and gender of the participants. Previous investigations, which have been able to underscore the pivotal role of mindsets, have focused their attention on different areas, such as teachers’ expectations, ratings of students’ achievement, and CF practices (Li 1999; Roothoof 2014).

Furthermore, a considerable amount of evidence showing that the cognitive frameworks of educators affect their pedagogical decisions and potentially manifest in their classroom behaviour has been accumulated (Stipek et al. 2001: 223; Cross 2009: 339-341; Jordan, Glenn & McGhie-Richmond 2010: 264; de Kraker-Pauw et al. 2017: 10). This was reinforced by Howard-Jones (2014), whose scientific article delves into how teachers’ beliefs, and unfortunately often misconceptions, about functions of the brain shape classroom teaching approaches. According to the author, this phenomenon may stem from difficulties of cross-disciplinary communication between neuroscience and education. In studies involving educators from diverse cultural backgrounds, a consistent trend has emerged: teachers seem to exhibit high levels of belief in various neuromyths, which in turn have been argued to provoke ineffective or inadequately evaluated practices, adversely affecting children’s learning across different subjects (Howard-Jones 2014: 817).

As a result of these discoveries, Howard-Jones (2014: 817) attempted to explain how these misunderstandings develop and proposed potential strategies to overcome them. One of the arguments the researcher put forward is related to the fact that numerous individuals within the field of education, including policymakers, remain prone to embracing oversimplified models of how the brain develops, without critically examining the alignment of these explanations with contemporary knowledge (Howard-Jones 2014: 820). This tendency to simplicity in the following leads, for example, to a viewpoint which is inclined “towards dualism (compared with a materialist perspective)” (Howard-Jones 2014: 819). Similar to Dweck’s (2000, 2006) definition of fixed mindsets, which has been presented earlier, this

means that the development of the brain is perceived as less susceptible to influences from the mind, thus imposing greater limitations on learning (Howard-Jones 2014: 819). The idea that beliefs like these potentially impact educators' behaviour in the classroom is evident in research involving UK trainee teachers (Howard-Jones et al. 2009). As reported by Howard-Jones et al. (2009: 30), participants who leaned towards a stronger belief in the influence of genetics on educational outcomes also held firmer beliefs in biologically defined limits regarding what students could achieve. This implied that these teachers felt less empowered to support their students (Howard-Jones et al. 2009: 30).

Based on the assumption that beliefs concerning the nature and malleability of human abilities could have extensive effects on teachers' classroom practices (Howard-Jones 2014: 821), de Kraker-Pauw et al. (2017) conducted two studies with teachers working at secondary schools in the Netherlands, primarily teaching 13-15-year-old students. As a methodological instrument, the Theory of Intelligence Questionnaire (Dweck 2006) was used. In the first study, the researchers wanted to determine whether the mindsets of educators regarding the malleability of intelligence affect how teachers assess the learning outcomes of students (de Kraker-Pauw et al. 2017: 3). Since participants with a growth-oriented mindset tended to place greater value on students' advancing achievements, the results substantiated the premise that teachers' mindsets positively correlate with their assessment of learners' improving marks. The second study aimed to investigate how teachers' mindsets influence the amount of CF that educators provide to students (de Kraker-Pauw et al. 2017: 4-5). Contrary to their initial hypothesis, the scholars found a negative correlation between teachers' mindsets and the total amount of CF provided. This means that participants who were more growth-oriented supplied less CF compared to those who reported a fixed mindset (de Kraker-Pauw et al. 2017: 8).

A similar point was made in studies by Rheinberg and Engeser (2010) as well as Balzer (2014). The latter, who explored the impact of 35 middle school math teacher mindsets on their actions of persistence with struggling learners, discovered that educators "who believe that they are in control of their students [sic] learning are more willing to persevere and put forth effort when students struggle" versus teachers who perceive little control over their ability to influence students' learning (Balzer 2014: 9). Using data from over 1,000 economically

disadvantaged middle school students in Texas in conjunction with teacher surveys, Balzer (2014: 87-88) found a statistically significant positive correlation between teacher beliefs and student grades in math, though not in standardised assessments. This is consistent with the data obtained by Rheinberg and Engeser (2010: 14-15), who showed that educators applying social comparisons as a basis for their appraisal held the belief that students' abilities are rather fixed and unchangeable. In contrast to that, teachers that used individual comparisons to assess learners, meaning that they looked at the learning process of individual students, focused their attention on development, persistence, and learning (Rheinberg & Engeser 2010: 14-15). These participants commonly held the assumption "that the learning that occurs in the classroom and the behaviour exhibited by students has as much, if not more, to do with the influence of teachers than what students might bring into the situation" (Goldstein & Brooks 2007: 119).

4.2. Teachers' beliefs concerning corrective feedback

Given that CF practices are a primary focus of this investigation, it is crucial to provide an overview of common beliefs that EFL teachers hold concerning CF in the classroom context. At the end of the 20th century, Lyster and Ranta (1997: 57-58) argued that educators have two predominant assumptions regarding the correction of student errors. Firstly, the researchers pointed out that teachers tend to refrain from the use of CF techniques, especially those encouraging self-repair, out of concern that they might disrupt the flow of communication. Secondly, a common belief, which explains the widespread reluctance among educators towards error correction, is that students might become frustrated by frequent corrective interventions and would rather not receive corrections (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 57-58). Nevertheless, empirical evidence has contradicted both of these arguments. Research findings have, on the one hand, demonstrated that none of the CF varieties interfere with the flow of communication (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 57). On the other hand, they have revealed that learners expect their errors to be corrected and believe that CF plays a valuable role in classroom interactions (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 58).

Early evidence with respect to these findings comes from Schulz (1996), who conducted an investigation in FL classrooms and established a misalignment between students' and teachers' attitudes towards OCF. In an exploratory study, executed at the University of

Arizona, the researcher found that 90% of the participating learners had positive attitudes regarding OCF, whereas only 30% of the teachers considered it as being necessary (Schulz 1996: 343, 347). To answer the question whether the results were influenced by the participants' cultural background, Schulz (2001: 255) carried out a replication study of her initial research project, ultimately concluding that learners' and teachers' beliefs regarding OCF were not determined by cultural differences.

In line with these results, comparable findings have been obtained in later studies, such as those conducted by Han and Jung (2007) as well as Lee (2013), both of which focused on adult learners. Han and Jung (2007) discovered in classes with beginning and intermediate English language students at a language institute in New York that the university-level learners strongly favoured explicit and frequent CF, whereas educators tended to approach the correction of errors more cautiously, advocating for opportunities for learners to freely express themselves without interruption (Han & Jung 2007: 243). However, teachers' preferences regarding CF exhibited greater diversity. Generally, educators teaching beginner-level students leaned towards "immediate, nonverbal, and implicit correction", whilst intermediate-level teachers, for the most part, agreed with the idea that educators should acknowledge the potential embarrassment learners might feel when being corrected in front of other students (Han & Jung 2007: 255). Thus, as established by Lyster and Ranta (1997), the teachers firmly acknowledged the necessity of error correction; however, they were mindful of students' sensitivities regarding such corrections, thereby refraining from making them (Han & Jung 2007: 255). Han and Jung's (2007) work on students' and teachers' attitudes towards CF was complemented by Lee's (2013) investigation. In a study, also set in the US, the scholar found that advanced-level adult ESL learners favoured being corrected immediately in teacher-student interactions. Conversely, educators were opposed to correcting learner errors immediately. Despite recognising the impact of CF and the effectiveness of immediate correction in improving students' oral proficiency, the teachers were hesitant about offering corrections when students made errors (Lee 2013: 228-229).

A few years later, similar data were obtained in research projects by Roothoof and Breeze (2016) as well as Saeb (2017). In contrast to the researchers mentioned above, these scholars focused their work primarily on students in secondary schools. The empirical study by

Roothoof and Breeze (2016) involved 395 students and 46 English teachers from various secondary schools and private language institutions in Spain. Among the students, 282 were enrolled in a secondary school and had an average age of 15 years. The remaining 113 students were adults, aged 18 to 63, attending private language academies (Roothoof & Breeze 2016: 321). Consistent with prior research, this study identified a discrepancy between the beliefs of teachers and learners regarding whether oral production errors should be corrected (Roothoof & Breeze 2016: 332). The findings reaffirmed that students desire CF more frequently than educators tend to offer. Additionally, it could be revealed that learners hold a more favourable view towards explicit forms of error correction compared to their teachers, and they demonstrate positive emotional responses when being provided with CF (Roothoof & Breeze 2016: 318).

Along the same lines, a questionnaire study by Saeb (2017: 33, 40), which included 86 EFL high school students, aged between 13 and 18, and 28 teachers in Australia, showed that the majority of lower-intermediate-level learners preferred all their errors to be corrected, while their instructors were less likely to provide CF to every mistake, opting instead to correct only those errors that impeded message comprehension. According to the researcher, the teachers believed that “correcting every single error is pointless”, as the primary goal of learning a language is communication (Saeb 2017: 40). In contrast, the students pointed out that “correcting all errors makes them aware of their problems and prevents them from repeating errors” (Saeb 2017: 40). However, contrary to Lyster and Ranta’s (1997: 57) assertion that teachers refrain from employing CF techniques that promote self-repair, Saeb’s (2017) study identified that educators view implicit feedback as more effective, asserting that it would foster learner autonomy by “encouraging students to locate their own errors and to find the correct form” independently (Saeb 2017: 40).

4.3. The relationship between teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices

Regardless of whether a belief is held consciously or unconsciously, it can be assumed that teachers’ practices are broadly based on their beliefs (Borg 2011: 370-371) and influence their decision making (Arnett & Turnbull 2008: 9; Isikoglu, Basturk & Karaca 2009: 355). The relationship between beliefs and actions is considered as interactive, meaning that beliefs encourage certain practices, but experience and reflection on one’s behaviour can also lead

to modifications of existing beliefs (Breen et al. 2001: 473; Sato & Kleinsasser 2004: 813-814). However, previous research has shown that the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom behaviour is not always straightforward. Bao (2019: 142), for instance, indicated that educators' stated beliefs and actual practices are based on a "complex interplay of various factors". Thus, teachers often express agreement with research-backed recommendations, but their actions in the classroom do not align with these principles. The complexity of the relationship between what educators believe and what they actually do in the classroom was further highlighted in a systematic review of research by Basturkmen (2012). The investigation referred to a number of studies which reported some correspondence between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices (Tam 2006; Farrell & Kun 2008); however, in the majority of studies, only limited correspondence could be observed (Feryok 2004; Sinprajakpol 2004; Mitchell 2005).

4.3.1. Studies concerning teachers' corrective feedback practices

Especially with respect to CF, the disparities between teachers' beliefs and their classroom behaviour have received considerable attention. A study conducted by Ng and Farrell (2003), for example, explored the grammar teaching practices of novice teachers and reported significant mismatches in connection with the educators' self-reported beliefs and the observed CF actions. However, in other areas, the investigation found that the participants' beliefs and practices were in alignment (Ng & Farrell 2003: 134-135). These findings suggest that what teachers believe and what they actually do in a classroom environment might not necessarily be congruent or incongruent, but it rather appears to vary across different aspects of teaching practice (Basturkmen 2012: 291).

One year after Ng and Farrell (2003) had published their findings, Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) adopted a similar position, arguing that the divergence in teachers' beliefs and actions can manifest in various ways. The researchers, who investigated the written OCF strategies employed by ESL teachers in New Zealand, reported that the three participants only perceived CF as necessary if the error made the message incomprehensible. Despite this, the educators provided CF even when the message was clear (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004: 264, 267). Another illustration of this misalignment can be found in Yoshida's (2008) examination of teachers' CF choices. Through classroom recordings, observations, and

interviews, the scholar discovered that even though the educators expressed the belief that CF strategies that encourage self-correction would be more effective, they most often employed recasts (Yoshida 2008: 88-89). Consequently, there is no doubt that a discrepancy between teacher beliefs and their practical implementation exists. When the educators in Yoshida's (2008: 91) study were asked about their CF approach, they indicated that they attempt to tailor their CF to accommodate students' cognitive learning types, but the observed inclination towards the use of recasts was influenced by time constraints. Moreover, consistent with previously reported findings, the teachers pointed out that they intentionally avoid CF techniques that may induce intimidation among their students (Yoshida 2008: 88-89). A further study concerned with CF in writing reported that even though secondary school teachers in Hong Kong "believe there's more to good writing than accuracy", they "pay most attention to language form" (Lee 2009: 15). In addition to this, the participants in Lee's (2009: 17) investigation expressed the belief that CF should empower learners to identify and rectify errors independently. In spite of this, in practice, the teachers frequently completed the repair of errors themselves (Lee 2009: 17).

Around the same time, Mori (2011: 464), who observed approximately 30 hours of classes taught by two English teachers in Japan, found that the participating educators were not only focused on enhancing their learners' linguistic ability but also tried to promote values like confidence, independence, and communication ability, which had an impact on the teachers' CF behaviour. Comments provided by one of the participants in Mori's (2011: 457-458) study clearly highlight that language teachers tend to face a dilemma between promoting linguistic competence in students and enhancing their confidence. This finding may not only explain why some educators stress the importance of CF while also being hesitant to interrupt or offend students, but it could also account for the discrepancy between teachers' stated preference for prompting self-correction and their predominant use of recasts. According to Roothoof (2014: 74), recasts are generally viewed as less intrusive and more indirect than prompts, such as elicitation or metalinguistic feedback; hence, they are often perceived as less threatening to learners' confidence.

Roothoof (2014), who has been mentioned above, investigated the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices by examining various aspects of OCF in EFL classrooms for

adults. The study compared observation data from 10 different teachers with their beliefs about OCF, which were obtained through a questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 11 open-ended questions regarding OCF, asking the teachers about their actual CF practices, in addition to their general beliefs about OCF (Roothoof 2014: 67-70). Consistent with earlier findings, such as those obtained by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004), the study by Roothoof (2014) showed that teachers' beliefs about OCF did, for the most part, not align with their actual practices. To be more specific, the participants who believed in the effectiveness of self-correction predominantly used recasts to correct student errors, although some of them occasionally provided elicitations. Only for one participant, a correlation between beliefs and practices could be established. He firmly believed in the value of employing recasts and used them exclusively during his lessons (Roothoof 2014: 72). Despite all teachers acknowledging the importance of CF, they were apprehensive about disrupting students and inciting adverse emotional reactions. As indicated earlier, this could potentially be the reason why recasts, a rather indirect form of CF, were predominantly utilised by the educators in this study (Roothoof 2014: 65). Further differences between teachers' beliefs and practices were identified when the participants had to specify the amount of CF they provide and the types of OCF they typically employ. While half of the teachers demonstrated some awareness of their CF practices, the other half did not (Roothoof 2014: 72).

More recent research on this issue was published by Bao (2019: 140), who explored the characteristics of CF and examined the correlation between the beliefs of eight Chinese L2 teachers regarding CF and their practical implementation in the classroom. The findings indicated some consistencies, for example, with respect to the focus on teacher-lead CF, the least common CF strategy, and the frequency of CF. Nevertheless, the study also identified inconsistencies in other areas, such as the timing and amount of CF provided as well as the corrective methods frequently used (Bao 2019: 148-149). These results are similar to the ones obtained by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) as well as Roothoof (2014). Furthermore, the study by Bao (2019: 149) highlighted that the beliefs and practices of teachers regarding CF are complex and influenced by various factors, such as the instructional focus, the target language, or the size of the class. Apart from that, the scholar stressed that particular attention should be devoted to the significant influence of teachers' culturally shaped beliefs

about their CF behaviour, especially their role in monitoring the learning process (Bao 2019: 149). In this respect, Hu (2002: 99-100) pointed out that the inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices may be attributed to educators' culturally ingrained beliefs of their responsibility to control students' learning process. Indeed, the classroom observations in Bao's research project revealed that the teachers had a significant degree of control over the instruction. With the limited use of prompts, it appears that the teachers' beliefs about their dominant role in the classroom overshadowed their consideration of learner-related factors (Bao 2019: 149).

4.3.2. Reasons for correspondence and lack of correspondence

When there is a disparity between teachers' beliefs and their practices in the classroom, it may indicate the presence of "tensions" (Phipps & Borg 2009: 380). These tensions can stem from a multitude of sources, including conflicts within the teacher's personal belief systems, external constraints, the educator's teaching experience, or methodological issues (Basturkmen 2012: 284). Since understanding the intricate nature of these tensions can shed light on the reasons behind the alignment or misalignment of educators' beliefs and actions, the following section aims to uncover potential factors that may influence the relationship between what teachers believe and what they actually do in the classroom.

First of all, a possible explanation for the mismatch between teachers' beliefs and their classroom behaviour is the existence of multiple belief systems. While a teacher can, for instance, hold beliefs about how the target language should be used in the classroom, these beliefs may periodically conflict with beliefs related to student factors, such as their learning styles or individual needs (Graden 1996: 393). In relation to this, data from a study by Graden (1996: 387) uncovered that educators compromised their beliefs regarding suitable teaching methodologies to adapt to students' poor performance. Additionally, Schutz (1970: 252-253) argued that an individual may perceive different propositions as equally valid, despite their inherent incompatibility. As a result, it is reasonable to expect discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices. Similarly, it has been proposed that the lack of correspondence could be due to the teacher undergoing a process of change. This process might prompt educators to re-evaluate their beliefs and actions, resulting in a temporary disconnect between the two (Basturkmen 2012: 284). Hence, a teacher's practice may reflect

one belief at a certain point in time and a conflicting belief at another time, leading to disparities between the educator's beliefs and classroom behaviour. On top of that, Sheen (2011: 49) stated that teachers could have a lack of consciousness regarding the mismatch between their beliefs and actions. Consequently, it is crucial for educators to reflect on their own methodologies and consider which alternative options are available to them.

Since the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices was found to vary across different classrooms (Mitchell 2005: 136), it comes as no surprise that researchers have referred to the potential role that contextual factors and situational constraints play in shaping the correlation between educators' stated beliefs and their actual teaching behaviour (Basturkmen 2012: 286). With respect to this, Sinprajakpol (2004: 190), who investigated the beliefs and practices of three EFL student teachers, reported that the participating educators experienced conflicts between their beliefs and practices due to various external factors, such as the need to cover the prescribed curriculum. Along the same lines, Sugiyama (2003: 148) indicated that the presence of situational and contextual constraints hindered teachers from putting their beliefs into practice. This is in agreement with observations from Sheen (2011: 49) and Lee (2009: 19), who both pointed out that the reasons why teachers depart from their own ideas of best practices may be explained by the constraints and demands imposed by educational institutions, which compel practitioners to diverge from their individual beliefs. However, Lee (2009: 19), whose investigation focused on teachers' beliefs and practices regarding written CF, raised concerns about the validity of her findings. Since many teachers attributed the discrepancies between their beliefs and actions to teaching constraints, the researcher questioned whether the educators' explanations were genuine reasons or merely justifications used by the participants to defend their teaching practices (Lee 2009: 19).

One significant finding of the review study by Basturkmen (2012: 286-290) was that the classroom practices of more experienced teachers were more reflective of their beliefs than those of less experienced teachers. Both Feryok (2004: ii) and Mitchell (2005: 142), for example, discovered in their research projects that the beliefs of participants with more experience as FL teachers were more consistently manifested in their classroom practices. This suggests that the level of teaching experience has a substantial impact on the alignment of beliefs and actions, ultimately contributing to a better understanding of potential reasons

behind the frequent disparities between teachers' beliefs and their behaviour in the classroom.

Several explanations can be proposed for why experienced teachers' beliefs may be more closely linked to their practices compared to those of educators with less experience. A systematic review by Borg (2003: 88), for instance, referred to numerous studies which demonstrated that the beliefs and teaching decisions of preservice and novice teachers were, for the most part, shaped by their own experiences as language learners (e.g. Johnson 1994; Numrich 1996; Farrell 1999). Nevertheless, it has been put forward that "over time", teachers develop "a framework of principles" that becomes more deeply ingrained and used across a range of teaching circumstances (Breen et al. 2001: 473). Therefore, these principles may more consistently guide teachers' practices in comparison to those acquired more recently, as would often be the case with new teachers. Furthermore, it is plausible to assume that study participants may have recently undergone changes in their beliefs; however, corresponding adjustments to their classroom behaviour have not occurred yet. A case study with 39 American elementary school teachers, for example, provided evidence that when educators' beliefs modify, "the belief change process may precede major changes in practices" (Richardson et al. 1991: 579). In addition, Sinprajakpol's (2004: 189-193) research on student teachers found that educators were not able to articulate the rationale for certain teaching techniques, implying that the participants' beliefs were still developing or that they were gradually recognising them. Another contributing factor to the stronger alignment between beliefs and practices of experienced teachers could be their tendency to hold beliefs shaped by practical knowledge acquired over years of teaching. These beliefs often mirror teaching practices more accurately compared to those of less experienced educators (Basturkmen 2012: 288). Woods and Çakır (2011: 383) argued in connection with this that "experientially-derived knowledge is more likely to occur in action than verbally-derived knowledge", and beliefs may follow a similar pattern to knowledge in this regard. As a result, more experienced teachers may possess an enhanced ability to implement the rationale behind their instructional methods in the classroom.

Even though the review by Basturkmen (2012: 290) identified a shortage of studies that have investigated the relationship between educators' beliefs and incidental aspects of teaching,

prior research has established that there is often a correlation between teachers' stated beliefs and planned aspects of teaching. This finding is not unexpected, as educators typically develop their lessons and tasks based on their own principles and values. With various options available for designing instructional activities and sequencing them, teachers can choose those that best align with what they believe (Basturkmen 2012: 290). In spite of this, it could be proposed that teachers' responses to unplanned events in the classroom, such as students' errors, may not align as clearly with their beliefs as their planned teaching does. Basturkmen (2012: 291) tried to explain this hypothesis by referring to the incidental nature of CF, which forces educators to rely on "automatic and generally unexamined behaviours". Whilst this explanation appears reasonable, it is crucial to bear in mind that considerably more research on teachers' beliefs regarding incidental aspects of teaching is required (Basturkmen 2012: 291).

Finally, it seems plausible that the limited correspondence between educators' beliefs and their practices may be attributed to the methods used to assess teacher beliefs. Since specific methodological instruments, such as self-report measures, may not accurately capture the complexity and nuances of teachers' beliefs, which can be influenced by various contextual and situational factors, more in-depth and context-specific methods are needed to gain a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between what teachers believe and what they actually do in the classroom (Basturkmen 2012: 291). Although the review by Basturkmen (2012: 291) did not identify consistent patterns that could account for the reported inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices, some findings pointed to issues related to methodological aspects. Tucker (2001: 108-109), for example, suggested that the misalignment between teachers' beliefs and their actions could be due to educators' unfamiliarity with the terminology used in questionnaires and interviews. Additionally, as noted by Sinprajakpol (2004: 17, 21) and mentioned earlier, inexperienced teachers may have difficulties articulating their beliefs. Moreover, it has been indicated that comparing teachers' practices and declared beliefs may not be an adequate method to infer educators' theories-in-use. Instead, more attention should be devoted to the observation of teachers' behaviour within the classroom context (Klein 2004: 285-286).

To summarise, this chapter underscored the significant impact of teachers' beliefs on classroom dynamics and educational outcomes, particularly emphasising that educators' beliefs about effort and ability can correlate with their expectations and interactions with students. As outlined previously, the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom actions is complex and often inconsistent; hence, many studies pointed to a mismatch between educators' cautious approach to CF and learners' preference for frequent and explicit error correction. Despite evidence indicating that CF does not disrupt communication and that learners value corrective interventions, it could be shown that teachers frequently avoid error correction to maintain the communicative flow and prevent student frustration. Additional discrepancies were found between educators' beliefs about different CF types and their classroom behaviours, with teachers often favouring input-providing methods like recasts, while believing in the effectiveness of self-correction. Lastly, it was proposed that these inconsistencies are influenced by various factors, such as conflicts within belief systems, external constraints, and methodological issues in assessing beliefs. In addition, practices of experienced educators tend to align more closely with their beliefs.

PART II: EMPIRICAL STUDY

5. Rationale of the study

Based on the review of literature concerning the three key concepts that form the foundation of this research project, several conclusions can be drawn. First, regardless of ongoing debates surrounding the relevance of CF and the effectiveness of different OCF types, it is essential to emphasise that CF plays a pivotal role in mastering a new language, with prompts being a particularly suitable option for promoting students' L2 acquisition (Lyster & Ranta 1997). This ultimately underscores the importance of prioritising self-correction in the EFL classroom, as this approach has been argued to offer learners better opportunities to internalise new forms compared to teacher-initiated corrections (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Tedick & Lyster 2020). Furthermore, there is no doubt that beliefs are another crucial aspect influencing EFL teachers' classroom behaviour. Whether held consciously or unconsciously, it can be assumed that educators' practices are generally based on their beliefs (Arnett & Turnbull 2008; Isikoglu, Basturk & Karaca 2009; Borg 2011). However, studies have highlighted the complexity of this relationship, frequently showing limited correspondence between what teachers believe and

what they actually do in the classroom (Feryok 2004; Sinprajakpol 2004; Mitchell 2005). Even though various factors that potentially explain the correspondence or lack of correspondence between educators' beliefs and actions have been identified (Basturkmen 2012), very little is currently known about the extent to which EFL teachers' language learning beliefs are reflected in their OCF practices.

To enhance our current knowledge of this issue, a case study set in the Austrian school context seeks to examine EFL educators' OCF behaviour, their beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning, and the relationship between the two. In light of these goals, the following research questions have been formulated:

1. What are EFL teachers' OCF practices?
2. What are EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning?
3. To what extent are EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning congruent with their OCF practices?

Despite its limited scope, this project aims to provide new insights into EFL teachers' language learning beliefs and contribute to the existing literature on their OCF practices. It is anticipated that this investigation will prompt educators to critically reflect on and potentially refine their current CF strategies, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of their language teaching approaches. Moreover, it is hoped that the findings of this study will stimulate further research in this area, fostering a deeper understanding of how beliefs influence instructional practices in language education.

6. Methodology

To address the research questions, a small-scale case study, which incorporated a quantitative analysis of teachers' OCF behaviour in the EFL classroom and a survey to collect qualitative data on educators' language learning beliefs, was conducted in two higher-level vocational secondary schools in Lower Austria. To outline the study design and the specific procedures employed, this chapter begins with a comprehensive description of the research approach and the participants involved in the investigation. Following this, ethical considerations

related to the study are detailed. The chapter then focuses on the data collection methods and the analysis techniques used to explore the research objectives.

6.1. Case study approach

To determine the extent to which EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning are congruent with their OCF practices, this investigation adopted a case study approach. This method was selected because it is a valuable technique to explore specific instances or cases in the context in which the phenomena naturally occur (Taber 2014: 26). As this is crucial in areas, such as the EFL classroom, where the complexity of the subject matter may not be fully captured by the use of traditional research methods, the case study approach seemed particularly suitable for this investigation. Only through a detailed exploration of the context can a nuanced understanding of the factors influencing the phenomenon be developed. Taber (2014: 44) further argued that the exploratory nature of case studies is rooted in their in-depth and detailed examination of specific instances or cases within real-life contexts. This becomes especially relevant in situations characterised by limited existing knowledge or a lack of established theories, prompting researchers to turn to case studies as a means to explore and generate hypotheses. Like in the present project, case studies sometimes involve a thorough analysis of particular cases which have been selected by the researcher (Taber 2014: 26). In summary, the case study methodology, with its inherent flexibility and adaptability, proved to be a well-suited approach to explore the complex and multifaceted issue within this thesis, ultimately allowing a deeper insight into the relationship between EFL teachers' OCF behaviour and their language learning beliefs.

6.2. Participants

In the primary phase of the empirical investigation, three female EFL teachers from two different higher-level vocational secondary schools in Lower Austria – a Höhere Lehranstalt für wirtschaftliche Berufe (HLW) and a Bildungsanstalt für Elementarpädagogik (BAfEP) – were invited to participate in the study. They were recruited through personal contacts of the researcher and provided with detailed information about the research project, outlining what their participation in the planned study would entail. For the purpose of anonymity and confidentiality in the study, the three teachers were assigned pseudonyms and will be referred

to as Teacher A, Teacher B, and Teacher C. Table 1 below presents detailed information about the three educators, including their age range, mother tongue, EFL teaching experience, type(s) of school they were teaching at during the survey administration, additional teaching subjects, and prior exposure to the research topic. The data were gathered through the demographic section of a teacher questionnaire, which will be further discussed later in this paper.

Table 1. Demographic information about Teacher A, Teacher B, and Teacher C.

Teacher	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C
<i>Age Range (years)</i>	30-39	40-49	30-39
<i>Mother Tongue</i>	German	Czech	German
<i>EFL Teaching Experience (years)</i>	5-10	11-20	5-10
<i>School Type(s)</i>	BHS ⁵	BMS ⁶ , BHS	BHS
<i>Second Subject</i>	Werkerziehung [craft education]	-	-
<i>Prior Contact with Topic</i>	Yes	No	Yes

To facilitate a meaningful comparison across the three teachers, three different 9th grade classes were selected as sample groups. Out of the six classroom observations, four observations were conducted in 9th grade HLW classes (Sample Group A and Sample Group B), and two observations were conducted in a 9th grade BAfEP class (Sample Group C). While Sample Group A was composed of 13 female students, Sample Group B was slightly smaller with only 12 students: nine female and three male students. In contrast, Sample Group C was the largest, including 17 female students. The major point of interest when choosing the classes was that all three sample groups consisted of 9th grade upper-secondary learners with comparable English proficiency levels and an equivalent amount of EFL lessons during their first year of upper-secondary education (Lehrplan BAfEP 2023: 1; Lehrplan HLW 2023: 1). Furthermore, all participating students were native speakers of German, according to their

⁵ Berufsbildende höhere Schule [school for higher-level vocational education]

⁶ Berufsbildende mittlere Schule [school for intermediate-level vocational education]

teachers. Additionally, as both HLW and BAfEP are higher-level secondary schools teaching vocational skills and general knowledge, their curricula for EFL instruction share many similarities (Lehrplan BAfEP 2023: 24-25; Lehrplan HLW 2023: 27-28). At the end of the five-year education, both institutions exhibit identical overarching goals for the subject of EFL. These goals, aligning with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), aim for students to attain the level of 'Independent User B2' in the categories of listening, reading, speaking coherently, participating in conversations, and writing. Moreover, students are expected to demonstrate the ability to apply their acquired competencies in an interconnected manner (Lehrplan BAfEP 2023: 24; Lehrplan HLW 2023: 4). Thus, it could be anticipated that the observed EFL lessons would feature a comparable frequency of errors and a similar diversity in terms of different error types.

6.3. Ethical considerations

As soon as the teachers had expressed their willingness to participate as subjects in the empirical investigation, the relevant permissions from the schools' joint principal and the Lower Austrian education department were obtained. Following everyone's approval, the concerned teachers, students, and students' parents were informed about the overarching focus of the study. Nevertheless, since in-depth knowledge about the specific research area that the project is trying to investigate could have influenced the teachers' use of different OCF strategies during the classroom observations, the primary objectives of the examination were not shared with the participants prior to the completion of the classroom observations. Despite this, to ensure that the organisation and content of the lessons would facilitate the collection of sufficient data for the investigation and allow the researcher to draw comparisons between the OCF behaviour of the three instructors, the participants were told that the project focuses on the observation of teacher-student interactions in the EFL classroom, particularly oral activities. In adherence to ethical principles and guidelines, the participating teachers, students, and students' parents were assured in written form that the involvement in the research project, including the collection and use of the data, was voluntary. They were also guaranteed the right to withdraw their consent at any time, with the assurance that doing so would not result in any negative consequences or disadvantages for them. Moreover, confidentiality of all information was emphasised, and it was clarified that the results of the study would only be published in anonymised form, preventing that any

identification of individual participants based on the data collected during the study would be possible. For further details regarding the consent forms, please refer to Appendix A and Appendix B.

6.4. Data collection and analysis

6.4.1. Classroom observations

As previously outlined, the complete set of classroom data were gathered in a HLW and a BAfEP in Lower Austria. The following sections of this paper provide a detailed account of the classroom observations conducted for the empirical study. They will explain the context and the setup of the observation sessions, specify the methods employed for transcribing the classroom discourse, and describe the procedures used to analyse the collected data.

6.4.1.1. Contextual framework and observation setup

To analyse the OCF behaviour of the three participating educators, two regular EFL lessons were observed as well as audio and video recorded for each of the teachers. Since examining around 100 minutes of instruction per teacher was considered as sufficient for an in-depth exploration of the educators' instructional approaches, six lessons were observed and recorded in total. Thanks to the flexibility and collaboration of the participants, all six sessions could be recorded within an eight-day timeframe from late May to early June 2023. For two of the teachers, the two lessons occurred consecutively as a double lesson, while the third teacher had two separate single lessons observed. This arrangement was tailored to accommodate the preferences and schedules of the educators involved.

The technical setup for the classroom observations included a video camera, which was positioned at the back of the classroom, and a wireless audio recording device, which was placed on the teacher's desk. While the video recording device was chosen to capture both audio and video information and to provide a thorough account of the entire learning environment and classroom activities, the wireless audio recorder was used to enhance the intelligibility of the teachers' verbal input and to ensure a clear and detailed recording of the educators' interactions with the students. The dual audio setup guaranteed a comprehensive recording of the classroom discourse, which allowed the researcher to document almost all

verbal exchange between the teacher and individuals, pairs, small groups as well as the whole class. In addition, there is no doubt that the integration of a video camera, which was situated in a position where both the students and teachers could be filmed, with two audio recording devices reduced transcription challenges and facilitated a more accurate representation of the observed interactions.

As in the classroom observations conducted by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004: 249), another feature of the empirical setup was that throughout the series of six lesson observations, the researcher was present at the back of the classroom, capturing contextual nuances through detailed field notes. This choice was made with the primary aim of increasing the overall reliability and validity of the findings by providing an additional layer of information. The consideration of several contextual aspects, which could not have been fully captured by audio and video recordings alone, was vital for the later transcription of the classroom discourse, as it helped decipher the tone, dynamics, and subtleties of the teacher-student interactions. Without the observer's notes, which provided valuable insights, the transcriptions may have lacked depth and failed to capture some of the intricacies of the verbal exchange between the teachers and students, which could have led to misinterpretations or oversights in the analysis of the teacher-student interactions. To allow the observation of natural classroom discourse, the researcher attempted to be a "non-participant-observer" (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004: 249). According to Dörnyei (2007: 179), this means that the researcher does not intervene or take part in the activities, ultimately increasing the likelihood that the lessons are structured and held as usual. This way, almost all potential distractions that could have altered the participants' behaviour were kept to a minimum. Despite the presence of the researcher and recording equipment, the feedback from the teachers affirmed that most of the students remained undistracted throughout the observation process. This underscores the success of the empirical setup, which allowed for a predominantly natural and authentic representation of the classroom interactions.

6.4.1.2. Transcription procedures

Once all the observations had been completed, the classroom discourse of the six lessons was transcribed to its full extent. For this purpose, specific transcription guidelines were developed based on the requirements of the present research project. To ensure precision and

uniformity in the transcriptions, the guidelines were formulated based on established practices, especially the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) transcription conventions. In order to align with ethical standards, the observation transcripts were anonymised, meaning they were stored without names and personal information. Moreover, only excerpts from the transcripts which cannot be linked to the participants were used as material for scientific purposes. The six lessons had an average length of about 45 minutes, with the shortest lesson being approximately 43 and the longest 50 minutes long. Thus, around 270 minutes of audio and video material were transcribed in total, which resulted in more than 70 pages of transcripts. A full outline of the transcription guidelines which have been applied in this project can be found in Appendix C.

To enhance the quality, reliability, and usability of the collected data and make the findings suitable for the subsequent analysis and interpretation, the transcripts were constantly reviewed and refined during the coding process. This involved rectifying transcription errors, eliminating duplicate entries, ensuring uniform formatting, and removing content irrelevant to the research goals. Furthermore, the procedure encompassed the identification of specific utterances and passages pertinent to the research questions and objectives. Various methods exist for assessing reliability, and in a collaborative research setting, including a colleague in the coding process can prove to be beneficial. This could, for example, involve independent coding of the transcript or specific sections, allowing for a subsequent comparison and revision of the codes (Dörnyei 2007: 57). With the absence of a collaborative team in the present study, reliability was ensured through repetitive coding of the data and thorough screening for potential inconsistencies.

6.4.1.2.1. Error coding

To analyse the data collected through the lesson observations, an adapted version of Lyster and Ranta's (1997: 44) taxonomy, previously introduced in Section 2.4.3 of this paper, was used for the coding of the transcripts. The coding model is depicted in Figure 2 below. For the complete code book, please refer to Appendix D.

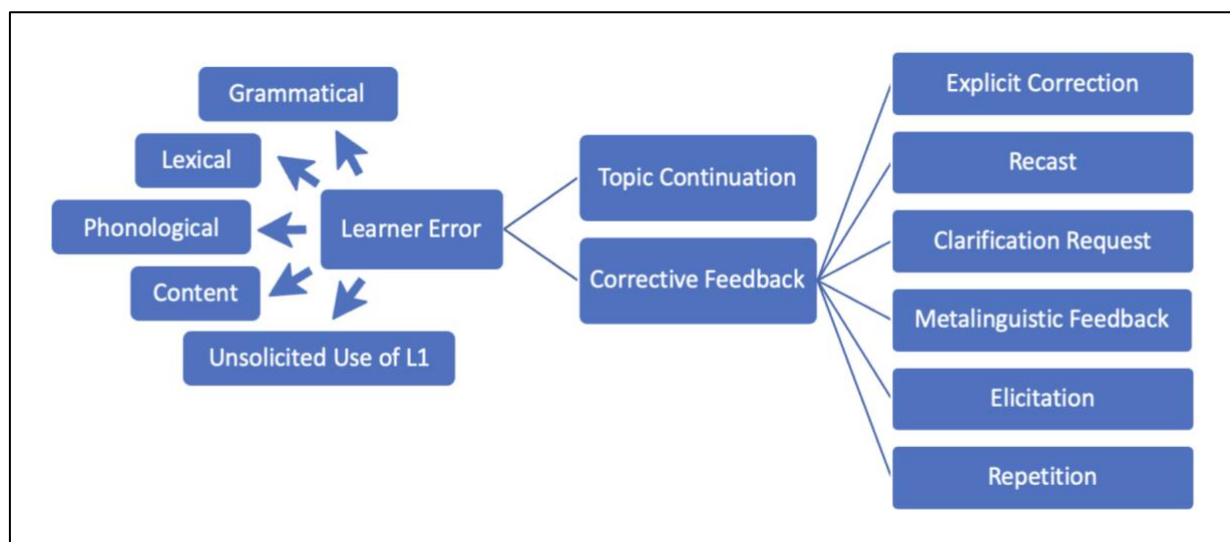


Figure 2. Coding model of the present study (adapted from Lyster & Ranta 1997: 44).

As illustrated in Figure 2, the first step in the coding process consisted of the identification of learners' erroneous utterances in the transcripts. Based on Chaudron's (1986: 66) definition, which was outlined in the second chapter of this thesis, the concept of error was defined as "(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". In accordance with the taxonomy by Lyster and Ranta (1997: 44), utterances which were ill-formed in terms of their grammaticality, lexis, and phonology were classified as erroneous. Even though the two researchers emphasised that the use of the L1 does not constitute an error per se (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 45), unsolicited instances of the L1 occurred with a high frequency in some of the classroom observations and thus were added to the coding system as well. A further modification was made to Lyster and Ranta's (1997: 46) original model by introducing a new category for errors in content. Additionally, the category of multiple was not employed in this study. Instead, when a student's utterance included multiple errors, each error was counted separately and classified according to its type. Nevertheless, if the same type of error occurred more than once in a learner's utterance, it was only counted once.

It should also be stated that instances of self-initiated repair, meaning that errors are followed by students' immediate self-correction, were not considered in this analysis. Likewise, learners' false starts, characterised by the interruption and restart of words or sentences mid-utterance, were omitted from the present examination. In addition, it was decided that situations where learners clearly indicated that they do not know the correct answer, for

example by shaking their heads or saying *I don't know* or *u:h*, and erroneous utterances where the error clearly occurred due to other reasons, such as typos in the schoolbook, should not be considered. Below, a brief summary of the definitions used to categorise the students' incorrect statements into one of the five selected error types will be provided. Following each definition, examples extracted from the present transcripts can be found.

Grammatical errors can be defined as learners' erroneous use of closed class words, which include determiners (*a, that, his, some*), pronouns (*I, you, we*), prepositions (*to, from, at, with*), and conjunctions (*and, or*). Example (5), taken from the observation data, illustrates an error related to the usage of determiners:

- (5) Sf5 u:m watch film on his tv
(Sample Group C, Lesson 2: 3)

In addition, utterances containing inappropriate pluralisation and verb morphology as well as students' faulty usage of auxiliaries were coded as grammatically incorrect. In line with Jiménez's (2006: 54) classification of error types, errors in subject/verb agreement and question formation were included in the category of grammatical errors too. Furthermore, as exemplified in (6) and (7) below, students' misuse of tense and instances of incorrect word order were also classified as grammatical errors:

- (6) Sf1 the milk would have turned sour if i didn't drink it
(Sample Group A, Lesson 1: 3)
- (7) Sf10 yeah so i have to wear all day the same clothes <@> so </@> it would be: yeah
(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 4)

Lexical errors refer to "mistakes at the word level" (Hernández 2011: 266). In contrast to grammatical errors, they occur if open class words, such as nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives, or adverbs, are used in an inappropriate, inaccurate, or imprecise manner (Jiménez 2006: 54). Example (8) clearly showcases this point:

- (8) Sf1 u:m because (.) like then you can experience it by your own <1> and </1>
(Sample Group C, Lesson 1: 3)

Following Leiter's (2010: 48) framework of analysis, utterances where a teacher showed dissatisfaction because she was expecting learners to provide a particular item or wanted them to use more advanced vocabulary were also coded as lexical errors. Moreover, the category included incorrect word definitions. As example (9) highlights, instances where students were solicited to use the L1, however, the German utterance revealed an issue with respect to open class words, were marked as erroneous too:

- (9) Sf5 random is <L1de> komisch oder </L1de> something?
(Sample Group C, Lesson 1: 6)

In this study, lexical errors often arose from literal translations, meaning that students frequently used incorrect words when they attempted to translate German directly into English. For instance:

- (10) Sf1 yes it was funny because there are the stones and you go on the stones and not on a (1)
Sf1 way
(Sample Group A, Lesson 2: 12)

Additionally, as demonstrated in (11), utterances were classified as erroneous if the wrong word choice or omission of words left the meaning of the sentence unclear. This also includes instances where it was impossible to determine the intended meaning due to sentence incompleteness:

- (11) Sm2 u:m it's it means that there is much sunlight in
(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 3)

Phonological errors primarily manifest as mispronunciations, which can impede comprehensibility (Jiménez 2006: 55). In this study, all pronunciation errors that are relevant to the English sound system, were marked as erroneous. Typical examples of phonological errors can be seen in (12) and (13):

- (12) Sf2 exciting first school day some students had a rather <pvc> unpl[i:]sant {unpleasant} </pvc>=
(Sample Group A, Lesson 1: 9)

- (13) Sf6 in hong kong are more <pvc> high-r[ei]se {high-rise} </pvc> buildings

(Sample Group B, Lesson 2: 8)

Content errors arise when the information provided by students is inaccurate, inadequate, or unrelated to the overall topic being discussed (Jiménez 2006: 55). As outlined with respect to lexical errors, instances were also categorised as content errors when the educator perceived the information supplied by students on a specific topic as unsatisfactory. This concerned both English and German utterances, given that the L1 use was solicited. An illustration of a content error is provided in (14):

- (14) Sf13 u:m she wasn't she likes to (play) in the garden with u:m her grandparents?
T u:h with her?
Sf13 u:h (1) grandchildren

(Sample Group C, Lesson 2: 3)

Furthermore, as demonstrated in (15), the decision was made that explanations of grammatical rules which were deemed incorrect or insufficient by the teacher should also be considered as content errors:

- (15) T in the picture, great. <L1de> welche zeit soll ich einsetzen wenn ich bilder beschreibe? </L1de> (1)
Sf5 present?
T which one? (1)

(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 10)

Unsolicited uses of L1 emerge when students opt for German over English (Jiménez 2006: 55). As previously outlined, this error type was included due to the frequent occurrence of instances where learners resorted to their L1 instead of using English in the EFL classroom. It is important to note that utterances were only coded as unsolicited uses of L1 when it could be assumed that the teacher anticipated the use of English instead of German, as exemplified in (16) and (17):

- (16) Sf10 <L1de> is nicht so schlimm find ich </L1de>
T not so bad <16> okay </16>

(Sample Group A, Lesson 1: 13)

- (17) Sf1 u:m <L1de> also besser </L1de>
T oh in english?

(Sample Group C, Lesson 1: 3)

In some instances, the educators clearly indicated that the use of German is solicited; yet, as illustrated in (18) below, the teachers also showed a preference for an English answer. Therefore, these instances of L1 use were marked as erroneous:

- (18) Sm2 hm <L1de> also das es halt </L1de> (1) u:m
T you could explain it in english (.) or in german.

(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 3)

However, this does not include incidents where the learners used the L1 prior to or directly after a German utterance by the teacher. In some of the observed lessons, the amount of L1 classroom discourse was considerably high. In these scenarios, the use of German did not seem unsolicited and therefore was not marked as erroneous. Additionally, given that the main emphasis is on unsolicited L1 use, utterances were not classified as incorrect if the educators explicitly asked their students for the German equivalent of a lexical term. Furthermore, individual German words which occurred within English expressions, such as instances where the learners asked their teachers for the English translations of specific lexical items, were not considered in this study. Finally, uses of the L1 that fulfilled an organisational purpose, were entirely off-topic, or consisted of typical German discourse markers, such as *aso* and *aja*, were also excluded from this error category.

6.4.1.2.2. *Corrective feedback coding*

As outlined in Lyster and Ranta's (1997: 44-45) error treatment sequence and evident in Figure 2, which was part of the previous section, a student's error can either be ignored, resulting in the teacher proceeding with the topic of the lesson, or it can prompt the provision of CF. Consequently, the second stage of the data analysis entailed identifying instances where the teachers chose to address student errors. If the error was followed by CF, the teacher's corrective move was classified as either an explicit correction, a recast, a clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, an elicitation, or a repetition (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 45-49). Even though the reason why the participating teachers were asked to give consent to be video recorded during the lesson observations was to analyse non-verbal CF moves, it has been decided that they should not be included in the classification system due to their rare

occurrence. Subsequently, the definitions which have been employed to classify the teachers' corrective responses as one of the six CF types will be provided along with examples illustrating each CF technique.

Explicit correction is a CF strategy where the teacher explicitly provides the correct form and clearly signals to the learner that their utterance was erroneous (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 46). The teachers' reactions in (19) and (20) exemplify instances of explicit corrections:

- (19) Sf1 too informal?
T u:h informal. informal. <L1de> aber </L1de> you were on the right track, you were on the right track. informal
(Sample Group A, Lesson 1: 11)

- (20) Sm3 <pvc> skyscr[et]er? {skyscraper} </pvc>
T sky skySCRAPERS like they're scraping at the sky <L1de> aha </L1de> what's our german word for it? it's exactly the same constellation. yeah?
(Sample Group B, Lesson 2: 3)

Expanding upon the findings of Lyster and Ranta (1997: 48-49), who emphasised that combining a recast with metalinguistic feedback ultimately leads to an explicit correction, instances where a teacher provided the correct form but expressed it metalinguistically were also categorised as explicit corrections:

- (21) Sf1 if you don't like films, why would you watch the movie harry potter (2)
T why do you watch the movie <L1de> also wir müssen mit bei der </L1de> present tense <L1de> oder bei </L1de> will <L1de> bleiben (.) ja weil ma da eben </L1de> don't
(Sample Group A, Lesson 1: 6)

Recasts entail the reformulation of students' statements, substituting the incorrect form with an appropriate alternative. While recasts are typically considered implicit because they lack introductory phrases such as *I think you mean...* or *You should say...instead*, it is important to recognise that they can differ in their degree of salience. Furthermore, as demonstrated in (22) and (23), recasts can represent either a partial or a complete rephrasing of a learner utterance (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 46-47):

- (22) Sf9 u:m many buildings skip the fourth floor because the number is <pvc>
cons[zaɪ]ered {considered} </pvc> unlucky
T considered unlucky, yeah so many people believe it's unlucky, mhm.
(Sample Group B, Lesson 2: 3)

- (23) Sf10 i can't take my wardrobe
T o:h you couldn't take your wardrobe <L1de> aha </L1de> why would that be
so bad?
(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 4)

Despite the significant divergence between the original statement of the student and the educator's reformulation in (24), corrective reactions like the one illustrated below were also classified as recasts:

- (24) Sf5 i think the message is you also can live u:m without these all things
T mhm okay. that there are many things we have in our houses we actually
don't need
(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 4)

Example (25) shows a situation where one of the teachers responded to a student's unsolicited use of the L1 by merely providing a translation from German to English. These corrective reactions were categorised as recasts as well:

- (25) Sf10 <L1de> ja wenn du kan guten tag oder so hast </L1de>
T mhm exactly. you don't have a good day.
(Sample Group A, Lesson 1: 13)

Clarification requests are employed by teachers when they aim to make learners aware that their utterances either included an error or have not been accurately understood (Spada & Fröhlich 1995: 25). Hence, requests for clarification may arise due to inaccuracies in the student's expression, issues with understanding, or a combination of both (Leiter 2010: 28). Since concerns regarding comprehensibility are not pertinent to this study, only clarification requests with a clear corrective purpose, concentrating on linguistic accuracy rather than on overall understanding, were considered in this analysis. Examples (26) and (27) serve to underscore this point:

- (26) T and u:m if you like london, you will actually love brighton. were you ever to
brighton?

Sf13 <L1de> na </L1de>
T not yet?

(Sample Group A, Lesson 2: 11)

- (27) Sf9 so you have no washer for the clothes
T [Sf9], you have no? {T cups hand behind her ear}
Sf9 you have no washer?
T washing machine? <8> no </8>
Sf9 <8> <quiet> yeah </quiet> </8>
T you mean a washing machine?

(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 4)

Metalinguistic feedback is a term used to describe “comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance” (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 47). As exemplified in (28) and (29), the teacher’s comments only highlight the mistake without explicitly offering the correct structure. According to Lyster and Ranta (1997: 47), metalinguistic feedback can provide grammatical information, define words, refer to “the nature of the error”, or be as brief as a simple utterance like *No* (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 47):

- (28) Sf9 u:m the light from these devices can keep on your brain active?
T <L1de> aha </L1de> (.) so you you believe that’s a correct sentence? (.)
there’s one tiny word that should not be there

(Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 6)

- (29) T what is a floor?
Sf9 <L1de> ein raum? </L1de>
T no that’s a room. (3) we we just spoke about it on tuesday (.) floor and storey

(Sample Group B, Lesson 2: 3)

Elicitation seeks to prompt students to reformulate erroneous utterances. Lyster and Ranta (1997: 48) pointed out that there are at least three different elicitation strategies. As illustrated in (30), the first approach involves pausing at the point where an error was made and is often employed to allow learners to correctly complete the teacher’s statement:

- (30) Sf13 u:m she wasn’t she likes to (play) in the garden with u:m her grandparents?
T u:h with her?

(Sample Group C, Lesson 2: 3)

The second method of elicitation, represented in (31), involves the educator asking questions to elicit accurate forms. In contrast to metalinguistic questions, this category does not include simple *Yes* or *No* questions (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 48):

- (31) Sf2 hiking trip
 T hiking trip yes but would you like where would you like to hike? (2)
 Sf2 in the mountains
 T in the mountains, which mountains? the alps maybe? or
 (Sample Group A, Lesson 2: 11)

Another elicitation technique that could be observed in the data is exemplified in (32) and (33). As demonstrated in the two examples, the teachers directly prompted learners to reformulate their incorrect utterances (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 48):

- (32) Sm1 there are more people <7> than here </7>
 T <7> there are more people </7> so let- let's try to express the same idea with more advanced vocabulary
 (Sample Group B, Lesson 2: 7)
- (33) Sf13 then (.) a good walk with her (2) man
 T yeah what do we call a (.) <3> what? </3>
 (Sample Group C, Lesson 2: 3)

Furthermore, because of their repeated occurrence, the teachers' use of brief comments, such as *okay*, which clearly indicated the educators' dissatisfaction with the student response, were also categorised as elicitations:

- (34) Sm2 u:m it's it means that there is much sunlight in
 T okay
 Sm2 like through a window that the sun's shining
 T okay
 (Sample Group B, Lesson 1: 3)

Based on the analysis of the present transcripts, it could be inferred that a notable characteristic of elicitations is their frequent employment in combination with other CF moves, such as the teacher's repetition of an incorrect statement or the provision of metalinguistic feedback (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 48):

- (35) Sm1 step out into the fresh air?

T step out into the fresh air, nope. no. so guys if it's happening all around the world, then it is?

(Sample Group B, Lesson 2: 7)

- (36) Sf15 he's down in the dumps because his football team lost again (1)
T u:m you could say he's down in the in the dumps <L1de> ja </L1de> but we'll need that a bit later. but it's perfectly fine <L1de> ja </L1de> if you say he is down in the dumps (.) but when you say he is in a? <L1de> ja? </L1de> what could you also say, <L1de> ja? </L1de>

(Sample Group C, Lesson 2: 7)

Repetition is a corrective reaction that refers to the teacher repeating the student's erroneous statement. Example (37) serves to highlight that teachers typically modify their intonation to draw the learners' attention to the error (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 48):

- (37) Sm2 eight million?
T EIGHT million?

(Sample Group B, Lesson 2: 2)

Finally, it should be stressed that the examination of the observation data revealed that approximately 10% of the teachers' corrective reactions consisted of more than one type of CF. A closer analysis of these corrective moves showed that certain combinations were employed considerably more often than others. As exemplified in (38) below, especially metalinguistic feedback and elicitation frequently emerged together in the data:

- (38) Sf1 the milk would have turned sour if i didn't drink it
T if i didn't, didn't is past tense <L1de> aber wir sind ja schon beim dritten, wir sind ja schon beim dritten. was brauch ma beim dritten? (.) wer kann sich erinnern? was brauch ma beim dritten? </L1de>

(Sample Group A, Lesson 1: 3)

Following Lyster and Ranta's (1997: 49) approach, it was decided that when multiple CF techniques were present within a single turn, the CF move which seemed to be predominant based on the illocutionary force of the utterance should be coded. Hence, the CF offered in the example above was categorised as an elicitation because the teacher's aim to elicit accurate forms appeared to take precedence over the information that was provided concerning the well-formedness of the learner's statement.

6.4.1.3. Analysis of the observation data

Once the coding of the transcripts had been completed, the data analysis process commenced. Initially, the focus was on determining the overall frequency of student errors within each sample group. Additionally, the distribution of each error type across the three classes was examined. Subsequently, attention shifted to the total number of instances where the teachers addressed student errors as well as the frequencies of each CF type within Sample Group A, Sample Group B, and Sample Group C. As the project's major aim was to explore the relationship between teachers' language learning beliefs and their OCF practices, the analysis mainly focused on the occurrence, frequency, and distribution of reformulations and prompts in the data. As outlined in Section 2.4.3, Ranta and Lyster's (2007) classification model was used to group the six CF types according to the possible responses that can follow the teacher's corrective move. Thus, explicit corrections and recasts were defined as reformulations because they "supply learners with target reformulations of their non-target output" (Ranta & Lyster 2007: 152). Elicitations, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, and repetitions were grouped into the category of prompts, since they provide "signals, other than alternative reformulations, that push learners to self-repair" (Ranta & Lyster 2007: 152). This comprehensive analysis provided valuable insights into the dynamics of language learning and instruction in each of the observed classrooms.

To ensure a thorough understanding of the overall results, three tables and one figure were created to present the numerical data derived from the analysis process. These will be featured in the Findings chapter of this paper, offering a visual representation of the quantitative data obtained through the classroom observations. The inclusion of percentages in the tables further enhances the interpretation of the results, providing a deeper insight into the relative frequencies and distribution of the different error types and CF strategies across the observed lessons.

6.4.2. Teacher questionnaires

After conducting a quantitative analysis of the lesson transcripts, a teacher questionnaire was designed to collect data regarding the educators' perspectives on language acquisition, their beliefs about OCF in an EFL context, and their classroom practices (see Appendix E). The

subsequent sections of this paper offer an in-depth exploration of the questionnaire survey. They will delve into the strengths and weaknesses of using questionnaires, explain the development process of the research tool, and outline the methods employed in analysing the gathered data.

6.4.2.1. Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaire-based research

A questionnaire is a written tool that provides individuals with a set of statements or questions, prompting them to respond by either articulating their answers in writing or choosing from predefined options (Brown 2001: 6). According to Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023: 7), the primary appeal of questionnaire-based research lies in its exceptional efficiency with respect to the amount of time and effort needed by the researcher as well as its cost-effectiveness. Conducting a questionnaire survey among several people allows for the rapid collection of a substantial amount of information, with the personal commitment being significantly less compared to, for instance, interviewing an equivalent number of individuals. Furthermore, assuming that the questionnaire is well-crafted, data processing can be fairly uncomplicated (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 7). In contrast, alternative methods such as semi-structured interviews have been criticised for being time-consuming in terms of both data collection and analysis, as they require transcription, coding, and potentially translation (Robson 2002: 94). In addition to their efficiency in terms of financial resources, the versatility of questionnaires, which prove effective across diverse populations, situations, and topics, should not be overlooked (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 7). Following Bryman (2012: 234), another advantage of self-administered questionnaires is that they offer respondents greater convenience, allowing them to complete the questionnaire at their own pace and at a time that suits them best. Additionally, a carefully crafted questionnaire mitigates interviewer biases, enhancing result consistency and reliability (Bryman 2012: 233-234).

Despite the advantages of questionnaires outlined above, they are certainly not flawless research instruments. They come with notable limitations, causing some researchers to argue that questionnaire data lack reliability and validity, in particular if the research tool has been poorly designed (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 8). Indeed, as emphasised by Gillham (2008: 1), no other method has been subject to as much misuse in the realm of research methodology. The primary problems stem from a range of challenges associated with questionnaires. Based on

Dörnyei and Dewaele's (2023: 9-12) outline of issues, firstly, the simplicity and superficiality of answers can arise, leading to limited insight into the respondents' true perspectives. Unreliable and unmotivated participants pose a risk to data quality, as their answers may lack accuracy or depth. Literacy issues among the respondents can further complicate matters, potentially distorting the intended meaning of questions. Moreover, the absence of an opportunity to rectify the participants' mistakes can perpetuate inaccuracies, and social desirability or prestige bias may prompt individuals to provide insincere responses. Self-deception, self-selection and acquiescence bias, as well as the halo effect introduce additional complexities, as the respondents may exhibit a tendency to agree, present a positive image, or let an initial impression influence subsequent responses. Finally, fatigue effects can impact the reliability of responses, particularly in lengthy questionnaires (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 9-12).

Despite the drawbacks associated with questionnaire-based research, the suitability of employing this research tool for the empirical study of this thesis remains evident, particularly when compared to other potential research methods such as semi-structured interviews. Mason (2017: 109), for instance, noted that qualitative interviews are far more intricate and demanding to design and execute than creating and using structured questionnaires with pre-set questions. Furthermore, McIntosh and Morse (2015: 7) emphasised that participants are often restrained when answering sensitive questions in person, resulting in responses that are more socially desirable or typical compared to those provided in self-administered questionnaires. The influence of the researcher is also heightened in interviews, as the interviewer's physical presence, including factors such as their appearance, can shape how participants respond (McIntosh & Morse 2015: 7). The overarching decision to use a questionnaire was supported by its widespread acceptance and the potential benefits it offers. However, it is essential to recognise that conducting a questionnaire survey is not without challenges, and a comprehensive understanding of possible limitations and effective mitigation strategies was crucial to ensure the success and efficacy of the questionnaire-based research in this project.

6.4.2.2. Development process

Consistent with similar survey-based studies (e.g. Roothoof 2014), the questionnaire employed in the present study was created following a review of existing literature. As the subsequent sections will outline, particular attention was devoted to developing a coherent structure for the research instrument, selecting appropriate questionnaire items, using effective formatting and layout, and conducting thorough pilot testing and administration.

6.4.2.2.1. Questionnaire structure

The first part of the questionnaire included a short introduction, which expressed gratitude to the participants. Furthermore, it briefly explained the study's purpose and specified the organisation that was responsible for the investigation. As outlined in Section 6.3, the introductory part of the questionnaire also ensured the respondents about the confidentiality of their answers and provided details on how they could reach out to the researcher if they had any questions. The introduction was followed by a section which presented the most important instructions. As recommended by Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023: 21), these instructions should aim to strike a balance between being concise and informative. They play a crucial role in shaping the respondents' perceptions of the questionnaire and provide guidance on how to approach answering the items (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 21). In the present survey, the participants were first given an outline of the questionnaire's structure. Then they were asked to answer each question in order of appearance and with honesty. Furthermore, it was emphasised that there are no correct or incorrect responses, encouraging transparent and unbiased answers.

In the further course, the questionnaire provided the respondents with clear instructions on how to approach the different question types. This included essential aspects, such as the way participants should mark their chosen responses and whether they should select one or more answers (Bryman 2012: 239). Additionally, the respondents were informed about the approximate time required to fill in the questionnaire. Given the frequent references to the terms *korrektives Feedback* 'corrective feedback' and *Selbstkorrektur* 'self-correction' in the questionnaire, the respondents were also provided with explicit definitions of these concepts. This measure aimed to minimise the potential for misinterpretation or ambiguity in the

teachers' responses, ensuring that they grasp the meanings intended by the researcher. By offering clear definitions, the study sought to promote consistency among participant responses, fostering a more reliable and meaningful data collection process.

The main part of the questionnaire, including the actual items, was divided into three sections. The first section, named *Demografische Angaben & Unterrichtskontext* 'Demographic information & teaching context', consisted of seven items which were designed to elicit demographic details and information about the educators' teaching context, allowing the researcher to gather insights into the participants' teaching background and the educational environment in which they worked at the time of the questionnaire administration. The second part, *Sprachenerwerb und korrekatives mündliches Feedback im EFL-Klassenzimmer* 'Language acquisition and OCF in the EFL classroom', focused on language acquisition and explored the role of OCF within the EFL classroom. The participating teachers were asked to answer six items which prompted them to share their perspectives and experiences regarding language learning and the impact of CF. The final three items were grouped into a section called *Verhalten im EFL-Klassenzimmer* 'Behaviour in the EFL classroom'. This part of the questionnaire delved into the participants' behaviour within the EFL classroom, with the purpose to understand their approaches and attitudes in the language learning environment. As indicated by Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023: 25), expressing gratitude at the end of a questionnaire is a fundamental act of courtesy, yet regrettably, it is frequently neglected. Therefore, to recognise the importance of appreciating respondents for their valuable contribution, this questionnaire concluded with a final *Thank You*.

6.4.2.2.2. Questionnaire items

In total, the questionnaire contained 16 questions; however, to gain comprehensive insights, each of the nine questions in the main part of the questionnaire consisted of two different items: an open-ended and a closed-ended item. The combination of both item types within each question enabled the researcher to obtain a more thorough understanding of the participants' perspectives. In order to elicit specific responses, the closed-ended items were formatted in various ways, such as multiple-choice questions, yes/no questions, or Likert scale questions. According to Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023: 29), closed-ended questions offer a significant benefit with respect to their simplicity of coding and tabulation. Since close-ended

items eliminate the potential for subjective interpretation by the rater, they are frequently designated as objective items (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 29). Rating scales, a specific type of closed-ended question format, are most widely utilised in questionnaires. The respondent is asked to provide “an evaluative judgment of the target by marking one of a series of categories organized into a scale” (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 29). The points along the continuum of the scale represent diverse degrees of a specific category, often ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The notable advantage of rating scales lies in their versatility, as they can effectively assess a wide array of subjects or phenomena. In the context of the present questionnaire, rating scales played a crucial role in gathering evaluative data across various dimensions (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 29-30).

As mentioned earlier, the closed-ended part of the question was paired with an open-ended follow-up item, which either asked the teachers to briefly justify their answers or offered the participants the chance to provide additional comments on the question. The literature highlighted that the inclusion of open-ended items enhances the richness of the data, surpassing the limitations of strictly closed-ended approaches. Open-ended questions serve not only to elicit vivid examples and insightful quotes but also have the potential to uncover unanticipated issues. Additionally, there are instances where the use of open-ended items is essential because the researcher may not be aware of the complete range of possible answers, making pre-prepared response categories impractical (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 39). In this project, the open-ended items were incorporated to give the teachers an opportunity to explain their beliefs in more detail and refer to the lessons that were observed by the researcher.

6.4.2.2.3. Formatting and layout

When respondents are asked to independently complete a questionnaire without the direct involvement or guidance of a researcher, the questionnaire itself serves as the primary connection between the researcher and the participant. With respect to this, Bryman (2012: 236) as well as Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023: 16) pointed out that the structure and visual presentation of a questionnaire hold particular importance and significantly influence the participants’ responses. Hence, to create a visually appealing and professional design, a fundamental objective was to strike a balance in the presentation of the content. It has been

reported that respondents are more likely to engage with a two-page questionnaire compared to a four-page one, even if both contain the same number of questions (Bryman 2012: 236; Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 16). Therefore, it was important to ensure a space-efficient layout that avoids visual clutter, does not look cramped, and maintains an appealing design (Bryman 2012: 237). Strategies that were applied included minimising margins, employing a space-saving font, and optimising page width, such as placing response options next to the questions rather than beneath them (Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 16-17). Furthermore, as suggested by Dörnyei and Dewaele (2023: 22), graphic accents like boldface type were used to enhance clarity and highlight key points throughout the instruction section. Finally, to increase readability and emphasis, key information was organised in a structured format, such as bullet points.

6.4.2.2.4. Pilot testing and administration

A number of researchers have noted that it is crucial to pilot questionnaires to ensure their effectiveness (Bryman 2012: 263; Dörnyei & Dewaele 2023: 56). Thus, prior to the investigation, a preliminary version of the questionnaire underwent initial testing. Two EFL teachers, who were not involved in the study and were actively teaching in Vienna in summer 2023, were asked to engage as pilot participants. After collecting their feedback on the clarity of the questionnaire items, necessary revisions were made to enhance the comprehensibility of the research instrument. Following the pilot testing phase, the revised questionnaire was sent to the three participating teachers via email. The respondents were given the option to complete the questionnaire either digitally or by hand, based on their individual preferences. Since the questionnaire included several open-ended questions, which cannot be completed as quickly and easily as their closed-ended counterparts (Bryman 2012: 250), the participants were assured that there is no rush to return their answers, emphasising that careful consideration of their replies held greater importance. However, a preference to receive their responses within a month was expressed. Additionally, the participants were encouraged to seek clarification or assistance if they encountered any questions or uncertainties during the completion process. This seemed particularly important, as the absence of a researcher when using a self-completion questionnaire restricts the chances to clarify any possible confusion (Bryman 2012: 263). Furthermore, this approach helped to foster the teachers' thorough and detailed engagement with the research tool.

6.4.2.3. Analysis of the questionnaire data

The analysis of the data obtained from the teacher questionnaires aimed to identify the participants' stated beliefs about language learning, specifically their views on the role of effort and self-correction in the EFL classroom. Parallel to Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis' (2004: 255) case study exploring the relationship between ESL teachers' self-reported beliefs and their classroom practices, the primary emphasis of this investigation was placed on establishing the individual stances the teachers adopted regarding the study's focus areas. Therefore, in the initial stage of the data analysis, the teachers' answers to both the closed-ended and open-ended items were translated from German into English, ultimately enhancing the database's accessibility. Afterwards, the researcher manually reviewed and condensed the responses provided by each of the three educators, striving to capture the central themes emerging from the replies while maintaining their original meaning. Following the procedure used by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004: 255), a comprehensive profile for Teacher A, Teacher B, and Teacher C was crafted in the second phase of the analysis. Based on the participants' responses, a table was created for each teacher, highlighting their main ideas with respect to six different areas of interest. Along with short summaries, providing demographic information about each participant, these tables will be presented in Chapter 7 of this paper. Generating individual profiles for each teacher facilitated a thorough examination of the educators' beliefs, offering valuable insights into their self-reported perceptions and experiences. Furthermore, this approach allowed the researcher to draw comparisons between the teachers' questionnaire responses and their classroom behaviour, which will be further detailed in the following section.

6.4.3. Comparison of the two datasets

To answer the third research question and establish to what extent the teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning align with their OCF practices in the EFL classroom, the educators' stated beliefs were related to the data obtained from the lesson observations. As emphasised by Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004: 256), when comparing teachers' expressed beliefs with findings from observations, the main goal should not be on simply trying to "confirm or disconfirm whether the stated beliefs were evident in their practice". In fact, it is unrealistic to anticipate a complete absence of teachers' stated beliefs

in their teaching methods. Additionally, it is worth considering that due to a variety of constraints, educators might encounter obstacles in putting their beliefs into action. Since it is unreasonable to expect a perfect alignment or complete divergence between teachers' beliefs and their classroom behaviour (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis 2004: 256), the main focus of this study was to assess the degree to which the participants' self-reported beliefs resonated with their actual teaching practices.

To proceed with the examination, the main themes that emerged from the teachers' questionnaire responses were sequentially compared with the key findings from the transcription data. The comparative analysis began by setting the educators' beliefs about the importance of CF in EFL teaching in contrast to the error-to-CF ratio observed in their teaching. Next, the participants' attitudes towards the six OCF types were assessed in relation to their classroom behaviour. After identifying consistencies and inconsistencies concerning the different CF strategies, the teachers' stated beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning were analysed with respect to the proportions of reformulations and prompts in the transcription data. Drawing upon the insights from the comparative analysis, additional results from both datasets were carefully selected to offer potential explanations for the observed congruences and incongruences. As elucidated in the forthcoming chapter, this included, for example, aspects the participants perceived as influential when it comes to their CF actions and the internal consistency within the educators' questionnaire responses.

7. Findings

The following part of this paper provides a thorough description of the findings obtained from the empirical study. Corresponding to the three research questions, the chapter is organised into three sections. Firstly, the results from the classroom observations within Sample Group A, Sample Group B, and Sample Group C are presented, detailing numerical data with respect to the occurrences of different error types and the teachers' OCF behaviour. Secondly, the expressed beliefs of each teacher are reported qualitatively, supplemented by demographic information about the three educators. Finally, comparative analyses reveal the extent to which the teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning were congruent with their OCF practices in the EFL classroom.

7.1. Classroom observations

The section below presents the quantitative findings gained from the classroom observations. In this respect, it is important to address the methodological considerations concerning the percentages given in the tables. To enhance readability and simplicity, the results were rounded to a reasonable level of precision. As a consequence of this rounding, the sum of the provided percentages may not precisely reach 100%. Therefore, it is essential to take into account that the listed values are approximations and any discrepancies in the total percentage reflect the effects of rounding. Furthermore, it should be noted that the lesson observations varied slightly in length: in Sample Group A, approximately 93 minutes were recorded and analysed, while in Sample Group B and Sample Group C, the recorded duration was around 88 minutes each. However, the lessons were similar in structure and content, meaning that the students' speaking time was comparable among all three groups.

To offer a comprehensive overview of the error analysis across the three sample groups, Table 2 underneath reports quantitative data on the frequencies of the different error types in the two lessons conducted by each teacher.

Table 2. Distribution of error types in the lessons of Sample Group A, Sample Group B, and Sample Group C.

Error Type	Occurrences					
	Sample Group A		Sample Group B		Sample Group C	
<i>Grammatical Error</i>	7	13.21%	14	21.88%	14	42.42%
<i>Lexical Error</i>	9	16.98%	14	21.88%	5	15.15%
<i>Phonological Error</i>	13	24.53%	17	26.56%	3	9.09%
<i>Content Error</i>	13	24.53%	16	25%	10	30.3%
<i>Unsolicited Use of L1</i>	11	20.75%	3	4.69%	1	3.03%
Total	53	100%	64	100.01%	33	99.99%

As apparent from the table, various shades of yellow were used to highlight different sections in the table. The brightest shade of yellow indicates the sample group with the highest number

of errors, which was Sample Group B, with a total of 64 erroneous utterances. Marked in slightly softer yellow is Sample Group A, where 53 erroneous utterances could be identified, reflecting a moderate level of errors. In contrast to that, there was a significantly lower total of 33 errors in Sample Group C. Thus, this section was highlighted in a pale shade of yellow. Furthermore, a closer inspection of the table highlights the diverse patterns observed regarding the occurrences of the six different error types across the three sample groups.

The analysis within Sample Group A showed that the majority of errors were associated with either phonological aspects or issues related to content, with each type constituting 24.53% of the total errors respectively. The third most frequently occurring error type was the unsolicited use of the L1, accounting for 20.75% of the identified errors. Lexical errors made up 16.98% of all recorded errors. The table further details that grammatical errors were the least frequently occurring error type, appearing in 13.21% of the total errors. The examination of the transcripts from Sample Group B showed a significant number of errors related to phonological aspects, which represented 26.56% of the identified errors. Content-related errors constituted 25%, while both grammatical and lexical aspects each accounted for 21.88% of all errors. In contrast, the unsolicited use of L1 was the least frequently occurring error type, appearing in only 4.69% of the total errors. The analysis of data obtained from Sample Group C revealed a predominant occurrence of grammatical errors, comprising a substantial 42.42% of the identified errors. The second most frequently found error type, with 30.3%, was content errors, while lexical errors occurred in 15.15% of the identified errors. In contrast, phonological errors were relatively infrequent, constituting 9.09% of all errors. Notably, the unsolicited use of L1 was the least frequent error type, making up merely 3.03% of the total errors within Sample Group C.

Turning now to the evidence with respect to the teachers' CF behaviour, Table 3 below presents the distribution of the six different CF types that could be identified in the transcripts of Sample Group A, Sample Group B, and Sample Group C.

Table 3. Distribution of CF types in the lessons of Sample Group A, Sample Group B, and Sample Group C.

CF Type	Occurrences					
	<i>Sample Group A</i>		<i>Sample Group B</i>		<i>Sample Group C</i>	
<i>Explicit Correction</i>	4	10%	4	8.89%	0	0%
<i>Recast</i>	23	57.5%	15	33.33%	11	45.83%
<i>Clarification Request</i>	1	2.5%	1	2.22%	0	0%
<i>Metalinguistic Feedback</i>	3	7.5%	6	13.33%	4	16.67%
<i>Elicitation</i>	9	22.5%	17	37.78%	9	37.5%
<i>Repetition</i>	0	0%	2	4.44%	0	0%
Total	40	100%	45	99.99%	24	100%

Before attempting a detailed analysis of the different CF types which occurred across the three groups, it seems important to revisit the total number of errors in each group. This consideration is crucial for providing context to the frequencies of the different CF types employed. In Sample Group A, 40 CF moves were identified. Bearing in mind that the total number of errors was 53, around 75.47% of the total errors were corrected. In Sample Group B, with 45 instances of CF in relation to 64 errors, CF was provided to about 70.31% of the total errors. Despite a significantly lower number of errors in Sample Group C, there was still a relatively high CF-to-error ratio. With 24 occurrences of CF against 33 errors, approximately 72.73% of the errors were addressed by the teacher.

As depicted in Table 3, colour-coding was once again utilised to highlight interesting aspects of the results. While the sections marked in bright yellow denote the most frequently employed CF strategy within each sample group, those in a slightly paler yellow indicate the CF techniques that came in second place in terms of their frequency. What stands out in this table is that recasts constituted a significant proportion of CF moves within Sample Group A, amounting to 57.5% of the total instances of CF. The second most frequently used CF type was elicitation, which constituted 22.5% of all CF occurrences. Explicit correction was less frequent but still noteworthy with 10% of the overall CF moves. Both metalinguistic feedback and

clarification requests were comparatively less common. While instances of metalinguistic feedback appeared in 7.5%, clarification requests accounted for 2.5% of the recorded CF moves. Interestingly, repetition was not employed as a CF strategy within the classroom observations of Sample Group A. The analysis concerning the distribution of CF strategies within Sample Group B unveiled a predominant use of elicitation, comprising 37.78% of the total CF instances. With 33.33%, recasts were also extensively utilised. The third most frequently occurring CF type was metalinguistic feedback, which constituted 13.33% of the identified CF moves. Explicit correction could be determined in 8.89% of all CF occurrences, while repetition represented approximately 4.44% of the teacher's corrections. Clarification requests were relatively rare, accounting for 2.22% of the CF instances. The examination of CF types within Sample Group C revealed a widespread use of recasts. The CF strategy constituted 45.83% of the CF moves. Elicitation, the second most common CF technique in this group, made up 37.5% of the CF instances. Metalinguistic feedback comprised 16.67% of the total corrective moves. Interestingly, the other CF types, explicit correction, clarification request, and repetition, were not found in Sample Group C.

A further analysis of the data reported above uncovered diverse patterns in the teachers' use of reformulations and prompts. To illustrate this, Table 4 underneath displays the distribution of reformulations and prompts observed in the six analysed lessons of this study. Again, the total number of errors within each group is included in the table to contextualise the frequencies of the CF types employed. Like in the table above, bright yellow sections signify the CF strategy with the highest frequency. When no predominant CF technique could be determined, a softer yellow was used to highlight the respective sections.

Table 4. Distribution of reformulations and prompts in the lessons of Sample Group A, Sample Group B, and Sample Group C.

CF Type	Occurrences					
	Sample Group A		Sample Group B		Sample Group C	
Reformulations	27	67.5%	19	42.22%	11	45.83%
Prompts	13	32.5%	26	57.78%	13	54.17%
Total	40	100%	45	100%	24	100%

From the table, one can see that in Sample Group A, the distribution of CF types within the analysed lessons revealed a predominant use of reformulations as a CF strategy. To be more specific, reformulations accounted for 67.5%, while prompts only constituted 32.5% of all CF moves. Within Sample Group B, the lesson analysis showed a notable divergence. In this group, prompts were utilised more frequently than reformulations. Whereas prompts comprised 57.78%, reformulations accounted for 42.22% of the total number of CF occurrences. In contrast to Sample Group A and Sample Group B, the distribution of reformulations and prompts in Sample Group C unveiled a more balanced CF approach. As prompts constituted 54.17% and reformulations represented 45.83% of the overall CF instances, neither strategy was dominating significantly over the other.

Having analysed the distinct patterns in the use of reformulations and prompts across the three sample groups, the focus now shifts to how the teachers addressed the different types of errors during the lesson observations. To explore this in greater detail, the following section examines the distribution of reformulations and prompts for each error type. Figure 3 below illustrates this distribution for the three sample groups. The full names of the error types are provided in Appendix D.

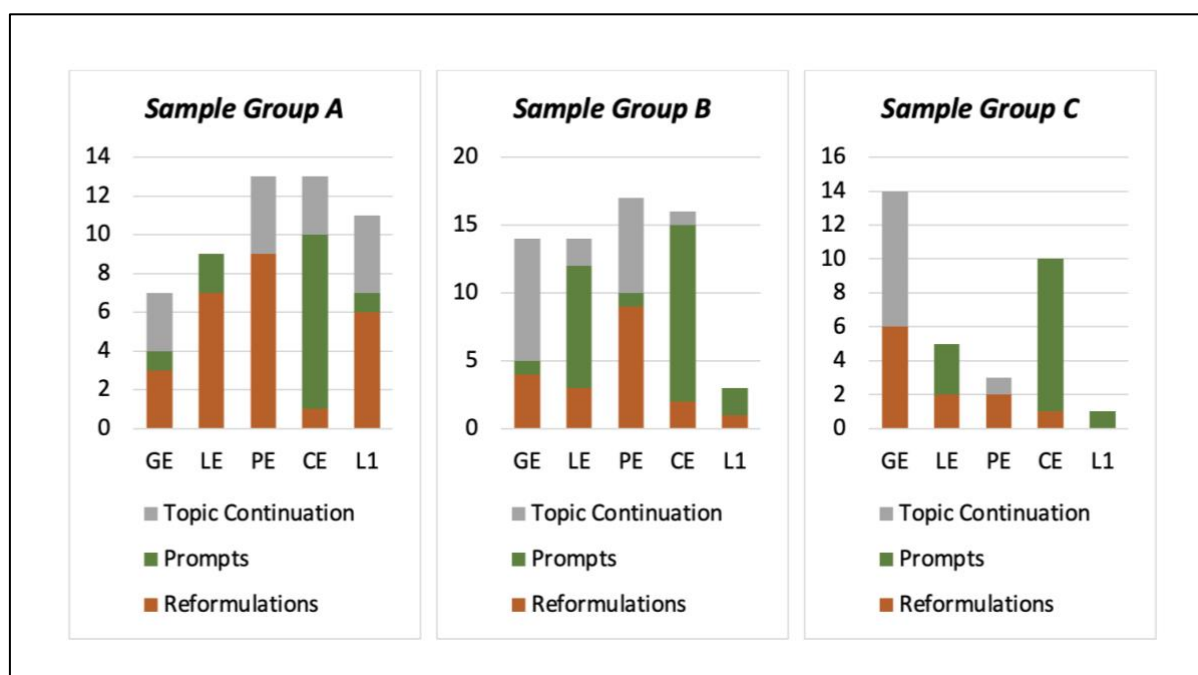


Figure 3. Distribution of reformulations and prompts for each error type in the lessons of Sample Group A, Sample Group B, and Sample Group C.

As shown in Figure 3, the analysis of Sample Group A's distribution of reformulations and prompts for each error type revealed that prompts were primarily employed to correct content errors, while reformulations were most frequently used for phonological and lexical errors. For grammatical errors and instances of unsolicited L1 use, prompts occurred only once, with both reformulations and topic continuation generally being more prevalent. In Sample Group B, content and vocabulary errors were mostly addressed through prompts, while phonological errors were often corrected using reformulations. Although both types of CF were applied in response to students' unsolicited use of the L1, grammatical errors were mainly ignored or handled through reformulations. Similar to the other groups, content errors in Sample Group C were most commonly followed by prompts. Grammatical errors were frequently addressed through reformulations, although more than half were ignored. Lexical errors were managed with either prompts or reformulations, while phonological errors were predominantly handled through reformulations. The single instance of unsolicited L1 use was corrected with a prompt.

7.2. Teacher questionnaires

Turning now to the empirical evidence regarding EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning, the subsequent pages will feature a summary of the qualitative findings derived from the teacher questionnaires. To offer a comprehensive overview of the main themes extracted from the responses of each participant, this section is divided into three parts, presenting the results from each educator in alphabetical order, commencing with Teacher A, followed by Teacher B, and concluding with Teacher C.

7.2.1. Teacher A

Teacher A, aged 30 to 39, is a female teacher for EFL and Werkerziehung [craft education] with German as her mother tongue. At the time of the questionnaire administration, she had between five to 10 years of experience as an EFL educator and was exclusively teaching at a BHS. Although Teacher A reported that she rarely had contact with the subject of this investigation during her studies, she indicated that she had explored topics such as constructive feedback as part of further education. The primary themes regarding Teacher A's beliefs, which emerged from the questionnaire analysis, are detailed in Table 5 below.

Table 5. Teacher A's beliefs about language acquisition, OCF in the EFL classroom, and her teaching behaviour in lessons with Sample Group A.

Areas of Interest	Main Themes
<i>Role of Innate Abilities and Individual Effort</i>	Teacher A stated that success in learning English would be influenced by both innate abilities and individual effort. She emphasised the significance of individual differences among learners, noting that some students may possess a natural affinity for languages, while others may require more focused study and repetition to achieve proficiency.
<i>Role of CF</i>	Teacher A mentioned that she finds CF rather important, highlighting the impact of a supportive environment and acknowledging that errors are a natural part of language learning.
<i>Types of CF</i>	- Teacher A rated one OCF type as very effective (repetition), two as rather effective (clarification request, elicitation), and three as rather ineffective (explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback). She stressed the importance of tailoring the CF approach to individual students. - Teacher A indicated that she would predominantly employ clarification requests and repetitions in EFL lessons with Sample Group A. Her justification was that these CF moves would give learners a chance to self-reflect and guide them gently in the right direction.
<i>Role of Self-Correction</i>	- Teacher A reported that giving students opportunities for self-correction would be very important. She emphasised the use of a wait-and-see approach during speaking activities, allowing learners to realise and correct their mistakes. When learners fail to self-correct, she would repeat the error and wait for a response. According to her experience, students would usually rectify their mistakes or grasp the intended message. Teacher A also expressed joy in observing the process of self-correction. - Teacher A somewhat disagreed with the idea that the CF strategy should be contingent upon the learners' language proficiency and that only high-proficiency students would be able to self-correct their errors. - Teacher A stated that self-correction would be rather effective for grammar and pronunciation errors but rather ineffective for

	vocabulary and content errors as well as students' unsolicited use of the L1. She commented that due to a lack of experience with correct word usage, learners would be able to identify grammar errors more quickly than content or vocabulary errors.
Factors Influencing CF Use	Teacher A mentioned that she would tailor her CF technique to each learner, influenced by the ongoing activity. She indicated that students' language level would be very important, while the type of error and activity would be rather important. Time pressure was regarded as rather not important.
Satisfaction with CF Approach	Teacher A expressed a desire to adjust her current CF approach in Sample Group A, mentioning that she would appreciate more time to engage with learners individually and to offer them feedback on their language development.

7.2.2. Teacher B

Teacher B is female, in the age range of 40 to 49, and has Czech as her mother tongue. When the questionnaire was administered, she had been an EFL teacher for 11 to 20 years and was teaching at both a BMS and a BHS. Furthermore, Teacher B was not teaching a second subject, and she had not had any prior contact with the research topic. Table 6 below summarises the central themes that arose from the questionnaire analysis of Teacher B's beliefs.

Table 6. Teacher B's beliefs about language acquisition, OCF in the EFL classroom, and her teaching behaviour in lessons with Sample Group B.

Areas of Interest	Main Themes
Role of Innate Abilities and Individual Effort	Teacher B stated that success in learning English would be influenced by both innate abilities and individual effort. She referred to the ongoing nature-versus-nurture debate and stressed that no study has definitively resolved which aspect has a greater impact. Additionally, she emphasised the significance of individualised support for learners to help them achieve their goals.
Role of CF	Teacher B mentioned that she finds CF very important, highlighting that without appropriate and tailored feedback from

	an educational person, students would not be able to make progress in their language acquisition.
Types of CF	- Teacher B rated three OCF types as rather effective (recast, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation), two as rather ineffective (clarification request, repetition), and one as not effective (explicit correction). She underscored the importance of assessing error frequency and recommended employing diverse strategies initially to tailor approaches to learners' needs. - Teacher B indicated that she would predominantly employ recasts and metalinguistic feedback in EFL lessons with Sample Group B. Despite being asked to choose only two strategies, Teacher B added a third technique: elicitation. She mentioned that she would try not to disrupt the natural flow of speech and aim to maintain student confidence.
Role of Self-Correction	- Teacher B reported that giving students opportunities for self-correction would be very important. She emphasised that progress can only occur through errors and learners' self-correction and pointed out that self-responsibility and no passive role would be the key to any FL acquisition. - Teacher B somewhat disagreed with the idea that the CF strategy should be contingent upon the students' language proficiency and that only high-proficiency learners would be able to self-correct their errors. - Teacher B strongly advocated for the use of self-correction across all linguistic scenarios, including grammatical, lexical, pronunciation, and content errors, as well as instances of unsolicited L1 use. To support this, she stated that the opportunity for self-correction should always be provided first.
Factors Influencing CF Use	Teacher B deemed the type of activity as very important, while also considering students' language level, time pressure, and the type of error as rather important. She noted that whether tasks are related to fluency or accuracy would be relevant to her decision on which CF technique to use.
Satisfaction with CF Approach	Teacher B said that she would not see a need for adjustments to her current CF approach in Sample Group B; however, she indicated that peer-corrections might potentially be more effective than corrections by the teacher.

7.2.3. Teacher C

Teacher C is female, aged 30 to 39, and has German as her mother tongue. At the time of the investigation, she had five to 10 years of experience as an EFL teacher and was only working at a BHS. Moreover, Teacher C was not teaching a second subject, and she had been exposed to different forms of CF during her studies. In Table 7, one can see the major themes that could be inferred from the answers Teacher C provided in the questionnaire.

Table 7. Teacher C's beliefs about language acquisition, OCF in the EFL classroom, and her teaching behaviour in lessons with Sample Group C.

Areas of Interest	Main Themes
<i>Role of Innate Abilities and Individual Effort</i>	Teacher C stated that success in learning English would be influenced by both innate abilities and individual effort. Even though she acknowledged the influence of genetic predisposition, she highlighted that students' enjoyment of the subject, their engagement with English beyond the classroom, and their use of effective learning strategies would be more influential.
<i>Role of CF</i>	Teacher C mentioned that she finds CF rather important, highlighting that the main focus should be on the joy of language. She also felt that effective communication should be prioritised over completely error-free speech and commented that she would point out correct forms but always in an encouraging manner, ensuring that her students do not get afraid of speaking.
<i>Types of CF</i>	- Teacher C rated four OCF types as rather effective (recast, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition) and two as rather ineffective (explicit correction, clarification request). She advocated for providing explanations with direct corrections and suggested the use of elicitations. - Teacher C indicated that she would predominantly employ recasts and elicitations in EFL lessons with Sample Group C. She would seek to avoid embarrassment and an old-fashioned teaching style, which might cause students to lose interest or develop a fear of speaking. Her aim would be to make learners aware of their errors, stimulate self-reflection, and encourage self-correction. She also emphasised the importance of helping students understand the reasons behind their mistakes.

<i>Role of Self-Correction</i>	- Teacher C reported that giving learners opportunities for self-correction would be very important. She noted that the learning process would certainly be slowed down if students were not given the opportunity for self-reflection, and she would sometimes ask learners to correct erroneous sentences. - Teacher C strongly agreed with the idea that the CF strategy should be contingent upon the learners' language proficiency and that only high-proficiency students would be able to self-correct their errors. - Teacher C felt that self-correction would be very effective for grammar and vocabulary errors as well as students' unsolicited use of the L1. She considered it rather effective for content errors but rather ineffective for pronunciation issues. No comment was provided to justify the answers.
<i>Factors Influencing CF Use</i>	Teacher C deemed students' language level as very important and time pressure as well as the type of error as rather important. Furthermore, she stated that the type of activity would be rather not important. Again, the participant did not provide any comments.
<i>Satisfaction with CF Approach</i>	Teacher C said that she would not see a need for adjustments to her current CF approach in Sample Group C, though she did not justify her response.

7.3. Comparison of the two datasets

Having presented the results from the classroom observations and the teacher questionnaires, the following part of this paper will evaluate the extent to which the educators' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning aligned with their OCF behaviour in the EFL classroom. To facilitate a comparative analysis for each teacher, this portion is again organised into three sections, detailing the findings first for Teacher A, then for Teacher B, and finally for Teacher C.

7.3.1. *Teacher A*

The analysis of Teacher A's beliefs and classroom practices revealed both congruences and incongruences. In terms of the importance of CF in EFL teaching, Teacher A's beliefs were consistent with her behaviour in the classroom. As outlined previously, the educator indicated that she considers CF to be rather important. Reflecting this belief, the classroom observations showed a relatively high ratio of CF to errors, with just over 75% of the total errors being corrected.

Despite this, the relationship between Teacher A's stated beliefs with respect to the six relevant OCF types and her practice unveiled a mix of consistencies and inconsistencies. There appeared to be a tension, or indeed conflict, for Teacher A, regarding the use of repetitions to correct student errors. The participant clearly stated a preference for repetitions, rating them as very effective and noting that they would be one of her two most frequently utilised CF techniques in EFL lessons with the specific group of learners. The educator also declared that she would repeat errors if her students failed to correct them themselves. However, contrary to Teacher A's stated beliefs, repetitions were not identified in the classroom discourse of Sample Group A. In fact, repetition was the only CF type that was absent from the transcription data. Moreover, Teacher A reported that clarification requests would be rather effective and constitute the second CF approach she predominantly utilises in EFL lessons with Sample Group A. Nonetheless, clarification requests only occurred once in the data, accounting for less than 3% of the total instances of CF. Additionally, the participant's beliefs about recasts and explicit corrections, which were both considered as rather ineffective CF strategies, did not accord closely with her stated beliefs. The proportion of recasts amounted to almost 58% of the total number of CF occurrences and thus formed the majority of CF moves within Sample Group A. Less common, but still significant, was explicit correction, which represented 10% of the overall CF instances.

In two particular aspects relating to the different OCF types, Teacher A's stated beliefs were congruent with her practices. Teacher A was consistent about her belief that elicitations are a rather effective CF technique. They made up just under 23% of all CF instances and therefore constituted the second most frequently used CF type. In addition, it is worth noting that

metalinguistic feedback was seen as rather ineffective and, in accordance with the teacher's conviction, only appeared in less than 8% of the total CF moves.

Further incongruences were evident in relation to Teacher A's beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning. At the beginning of the questionnaire, the educator indicated that success in learning English would be influenced by both innate abilities and individual effort, noting that some students may require more focused study and repetition to achieve proficiency. Consistent with that, Teacher A said that she thinks giving learners opportunities to self-correct their errors would be very important, emphasising the value of employing a wait-and-see approach during speaking activities. The results further revealed that the educator somewhat disagreed with the idea that the CF strategy should be contingent upon the learners' language proficiency and that only students with a high language proficiency would be able to self-correct their errors, therefore affirming that self-correction would be a suitable CF approach for Sample Group A. Even though Teacher A also expressed joy in observing the process of self-correction, prompts, which push students to self-correction, only constituted less than 33% of all CF instances. In contrast, reformulations, which do not allow for self-correction, accounted for slightly more than 67% of the CF moves.

In addition, it is quite revealing to compare the distribution of reformulations and prompts for each error type with the educator's views on the effectiveness of self-correction across various language-related contexts. The teacher mentioned that the type of error would be very important when determining which CF strategy to use in lessons with the observed group of students. In this context, Teacher A stressed that self-correction would be rather effective for grammar errors and rather ineffective for content errors, explaining this with the assumption that learners can identify grammar errors more quickly than mistakes in connection with the content of the lesson. Contrary to these beliefs, however, the observation data of Sample Group A demonstrated that grammatical errors were mainly ignored or corrected through reformulations, while about 70% of all issues related to content were addressed with prompts. Furthermore, the educator clearly stated that self-correction would be rather effective for pronunciation errors. Nevertheless, the data indicated that most responses to pronunciation issues involved reformulations, with no use of prompts to correct these utterances in Sample Group A's lessons. In alignment with her beliefs that self-

correction would be rather ineffective for handling lexical errors and learners' unsolicited L1 use, the educator primarily used reformulations to address these error types.

Although several factors could explain the inconsistencies between Teacher A's stated beliefs and her classroom behaviour, it is crucial to highlight that some of the participant's questionnaire responses contradicted each other, pointing to an internal inconsistency in Teacher A's stated beliefs. Whilst the educator somewhat disagreed with the idea that the CF strategy should be contingent upon the learners' language proficiency and only highly proficient students would be able to self-correct errors, the teacher also stated elsewhere that the learners' language level would be very important for her CF choice in lessons with Sample Group A. Moreover, Teacher A made clear that she wishes to adjust her current CF approach in Sample Group A, expressing a desire for more time to engage with learners individually. Even though the teacher's dissatisfaction with her CF behaviour may have attributed to lack of correspondence between the educator's stated beliefs and her actual teaching practices, Teacher A's answer again slightly contradicted her reply to an earlier item, where she commented that time pressure was rather not important when it comes to deciding which CF strategy to utilise in EFL lessons with Sample Group A.

7.3.2. Teacher B

Even though some inconsistencies emerged from the comparative analysis of Teacher B's stated beliefs and her classroom actions, many consistencies were also found. First, the educator emphasised the importance of CF, which was reflected in her practice. With CF provided for more than 70% of the total errors in the observed EFL lessons, the CF-to-error ratio was slightly lower than that of Sample Group A but still revealed a targeted approach to error correction.

Further congruences were apparent with respect to the relationship between the participant's beliefs concerning the six OCF types relevant to this research project and her CF behaviour in Sample Group B. Teacher B considered three CF techniques as rather effective (elicitation, recast, metalinguistic feedback), all of which were well represented in the transcription data. To be more specific, the distribution of CF strategies in Sample Group B highlighted a preference for elicitation, which was observed in almost 38% of all CF moves. Recasts were

also widely employed, totalling just over 33% of all CF actions and thus ranking as the second most prevalent CF strategy. Metalinguistic feedback, although slightly less common, comprised more than 13% of the identified CF moves. In connection with this, Teacher B mentioned that recasts and metalinguistic feedback would be her most frequently used CF techniques in EFL lessons with the observed learner group. Despite being asked to choose only two types, Teacher B included elicitation as a third CF strategy. Notably, these three techniques together comprised almost 85% of the educator's CF actions. Since the use of elicitations, recasts, and metalinguistic feedback was also deemed rather effective, Teacher B not only demonstrated a strong awareness of her teaching practices but also successfully aligned her beliefs with her classroom methods. Additionally, consistent with her belief that clarification requests and repetitions would be rather ineffective, these techniques were infrequently used. Clarification requests appeared only once, making up just over 2% of the CF instances, while repetitions accounted for less than 5% of the total number of CF occurrences.

In spite of this, it should be noted that Teacher B's view on explicit corrections was not fully congruent with her classroom actions. Even though explicit correction was the only CF type she deemed ineffective, it was determined in almost 9% of the overall CF instances. Consequently, it was recorded more frequently in the transcription data than clarification requests and repetitions.

Furthermore, varied findings were obtained regarding the relationship between Teacher B's beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning and her classroom practices. Towards the beginning of the questionnaire, the teacher mentioned that success in learning English is shaped by both innate abilities and individual effort. Additionally, she referred to the ongoing nature versus nurture debate, emphasising that no study has conclusively answered which factor is more influential. In agreement with this, Teacher B said that she thinks giving learners opportunities to self-correct their errors would be very important. She stressed that progress can only be achieved through the process of self-correction and highlighted that taking responsibility and adopting an active role are crucial for any FL acquisition. The findings also showed that the educator somewhat disagreed with the notion that the CF strategy should be contingent upon the learners' language proficiency and

that only highly proficient students could engage in self-correction. Hence, she seemed to be in favour of prompting learners to self-correct errors in lessons with Sample Group B. Teacher B's strong advocacy for the use of self-correction across all linguistic scenarios was, to some extent, reflected in her CF behaviour with Sample Group B. The lesson analysis revealed that prompts, which encourage self-correction, were employed more often than reformulations, which do not give students the chance to self-correct their errors. To provide more details, prompts constituted just under 58% of the total CF instances, while reformulations accounted for slightly more than 42% of all CF moves. In addition, it is noteworthy that Teacher B used prompts to address all error types, though in varying proportions.

The observation that reformulations still made up a significant proportion of the CF moves in Sample Group B may partly be explained by the fact that Teacher B deemed the type of activity as very important when it comes to deciding which CF strategy to utilise in EFL lessons with the observed learner group. In this regard, she stressed that whether tasks are related to fluency or accuracy would play an important role in her choice of CF strategy. Thus, based on the qualitative results, it could be proposed that for some of the classroom activities in the observed lessons, the teacher perceived the use of reformulations as more effective than the use of prompts. Additionally, it seems essential to point out that the educator also considered other aspects of teaching, including learners' language level, time pressure, and the type of error, as relevant factors influencing her CF approach. As a result, it cannot be ruled out that the substantial number of reformulations apparent in the transcription data stemmed in part from these pedagogical considerations.

7.3.3. *Teacher C*

The comparative analysis of Teacher C's stated beliefs and practices showed both congruences and incongruences. Congruence was evident with respect to the teacher's acknowledgment of the relevance of CF. Despite the relatively low occurrence of erroneous utterances in Sample Group C, the educator addressed almost 73% of the total number of errors, thus putting her belief that CF is rather important into practice. As suggested by the questionnaire results, the reason why Teacher C did not consider CF as very important is likely to be related to her emphasis on the joy of language learning and the idea that effective communication should be prioritised over flawless speech.

Even though the teacher's beliefs concerning the overall importance of CF aligned with her actions, mixed findings were obtained in relation to the six OCF moves which are pertinent to this research project. Teacher C appeared to be consistent with her stated beliefs about recasts and elicitations. In the questionnaire, she deemed these two CF types as rather effective and specified that they would be her most frequently employed CF techniques in EFL lessons with the observed learner group. Furthermore, Teacher C rationalised the frequent employment of recasts by asserting her intention to mitigate embarrassment and prevent students from developing a fear of speaking. In addition, she underscored her preference for elicitations, highlighting her goal of fostering student awareness of errors, stimulating self-reflection, and promoting self-correction. In accordance with the educator's convictions, the analysis of Teacher C's CF moves revealed a prevalent use of recasts and elicitations. While the former was employed in just under 46% of the recorded CF instances, the latter constituted nearly 38% of the total number of CF occurrences, therefore representing the second most frequently utilised CF technique in this group. Given that Teacher C reported a predominant use of recasts and elicitations, which collectively accounted for almost 84% of all CF moves observed in Sample Group C, it is evident that the participant exhibited a keen awareness of her CF practices. Moreover, in accordance with her conviction that explicit corrections and clarification requests would prove rather ineffective in addressing student errors, Teacher C refrained from utilising these CF strategies during the observed EFL lessons.

In terms of the remaining CF types, the educator's stated beliefs were not as clearly supported by the classroom data. For example, Teacher C not only expressed the view that using metalinguistic feedback would be rather effective but also stressed that helping students understand the reasons behind their errors would be very important. However, despite being quantitatively the third most frequently used CF type in Sample Group C, instances of metalinguistic feedback were only observed in less than 17% of the total CF moves. In addition, there seemed to be a discrepancy between the teacher's beliefs regarding the effectiveness of using repetitions and her actual classroom practice. Although she indicated in the questionnaire that repetition would be a rather effective CF technique, the examination of the transcripts unveiled that Teacher C did not employ this CF type at all.

When comparing the participant's beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning with her actions in the EFL classroom, a pattern of consistent and inconsistent findings reappeared. As detailed earlier, Teacher C seemed confident that promoting self-correction would be a top priority in her EFL lessons. She indicated that giving learners opportunities to self-correct their errors would be very important and justified this by referring to students' learning process, which in her opinion would be slowed down if opportunities for self-reflection were not provided. To further underscore the pivotal role self-correction plays in her teaching approach, Teacher C also mentioned a classroom activity in which students are encouraged to identify and rectify errors in their written work. Furthermore, it seems vital to note that the teacher acknowledged the significance of both innate abilities and individual effort in determining students' success in learning English. While Teacher C recognised the influence of genetic predispositions, she also emphasised the impact of other factors, such as students' enjoyment of the subject, their involvement in English outside of class, and their use of efficient learning techniques. However, contrary to the questionnaire findings, the educator's expressed preference for utilising CF strategies that foster self-correction was not as prominent when examining the transcription data. Even though the analysis of the distribution of reformulations and prompts revealed that prompts constituted the majority of CF moves in Sample Group C, the number of reformulations was nearly as high. To be more specific, prompts accounted for slightly more than 54% of all CF occurrences, while reformulations represented just under 46%. Thus, the CF types which stimulate learners to self-correct their errors did not exhibit significant dominance over those that provide students with the correct forms.

Given that Teacher C argued that the type of error would be rather important to her decision on which CF strategy to employ in lessons with the observed group of students, it seems essential to take the distribution of reformulations and prompts for each error type into consideration. With regard to pronunciation and content errors as well as instances of students' unsolicited L1 use, the educator's beliefs about the effectiveness of self-correction were largely reflected in her practice. Consistent with the belief that self-correction would be rather ineffective for pronunciation issues, the analysis revealed that the teacher predominantly used reformulations to address these errors. Additionally, 90% of the content errors, where self-correction was viewed as rather effective, were corrected with prompts. In

terms of grammatical issues, however, a discrepancy between the teacher's stated beliefs and actual practice emerged. Teacher C supported the use of self-correction to address grammar errors, asserting that this CF approach would be very effective for this type of error. Yet, the analysis of observation data from Sample Group C demonstrated that over 40% of grammatical errors were corrected with reformulations, while the remaining mistakes were ignored. Concerning vocabulary-related issues, the educator's belief in the effectiveness of self-correction was somewhat reflected in her actions. Despite the fact that lexical errors made up just over 15% of all erroneous utterances, the analysis showed that 60% of these errors were corrected using prompts.

Even though it is difficult to provide a definitive explanation for these results, it cannot be ruled out that the mismatch between the teacher's beliefs and her classroom behaviour is related to the educator's assessment of the students' language proficiency. Teacher C emphasised the significance of learners' language levels when determining which CF technique to employ during an EFL lesson. She not only regarded them as highly pertinent when deciding on the appropriate CF strategy for the observed group but also strongly agreed with the notion that the CF move should be tailored to students' language proficiency and that only high-proficiency learners would possess the capability to self-correct their errors. Furthermore, the disparities could have partly stemmed from Teacher C's recognition of time pressure as a rather important factor in her decision-making process concerning which CF method to utilise. Additionally, what may have contributed to the lack of congruence is that the educator repeatedly pointed out the importance of ensuring that her CF approach does not instil fear of speaking in her learners, which is more likely to happen when students are actively prompted to self-correct their errors.

8. Discussion, implications, and limitations

As mentioned in Chapter 5, the first research question of this study focused on EFL teachers' OCF behaviour. Overall, the analysis of the transcription data revealed a strong commitment of the educators to address erroneous utterances in the EFL classroom. Each teacher provided CF on more than 70% of the total errors, indicating a considerably high CF-to-error ratio across the three sample groups. This finding not only underscores the educators' awareness of the pivotal role that CF provision plays in language learning but also accords with previous studies,

which have demonstrated that an error response rate of around 70-80% is relatively common (Tsang 2004; Leiter 2010). Furthermore, the participants' dedication to CF aligned with Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis, which serves as a notable example of how influential CF is in promoting students' interlanguage development. In addition, the results reflect the view that Tedick and Lyster (2020) hold. The scholars emphasised the critical significance of error correction, arguing that corrective measures not only stimulate further development of learners' L2 acquisition but also inhibit the integration of errors into students' evolving language skills (Tedick & Lyster 2020). Another interesting finding was that the participants in this study adopted a rather balanced CF approach in their teaching. In contrast to earlier observations, which showed a tendency among educators to excessively correct learners (Holley & King 1971), the teachers refrained from an overreliance on CF, which might detract students from focusing on correction and decrease their inclination to self-monitor their language production (Lightbown 2008). Rather than resorting to overcorrection, which could also induce feelings of frustration among students (Holley & King 1971), the educators ensured that CF was provided in a way that does not overwhelm or discourage learners.

Comparing the findings with earlier research on different CF techniques uncovered a mix of congruences and incongruences. Consistent with previous results obtained across diverse instructional settings (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Tsang 2004; Leiter 2010; Pedrazzini 2017), recast and elicitation occurred with significantly high frequencies in all three sample groups. For two teachers, recast was the most frequently used CF strategy, while the third educator slightly preferred employing elicitations. This not only supports evidence from a study in primary-level immersion classrooms, where Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified that recast was by far the most common CF technique, followed by elicitation in second place, but it is also in agreement with the results of Leiter's (2010) investigation of more advanced language learner classrooms, where elicitation was the most frequently occurring CF type.

Considering that findings from prior work concerning the remaining CF strategies were rather inconsistent, it is difficult to pinpoint definitive similarities or distinctions with other research outcomes, especially with respect to metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction. In alignment with the literature, metalinguistic feedback came in either third or fourth place in the frequency ranking (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Tsang 2004; Leiter 2010). Nevertheless, it should

be noted that the overall proportion of this CF type in the transcription data was remarkably higher than the proportions reported in similar projects. While Lyster and Ranta (1997), Tsang (2004), and Leiter (2010) found that instances of metalinguistic feedback accounted for merely 5-12% of the overall CF occurrences, in this investigation, metalinguistic feedback represented almost 38% of the total CF moves. Moreover, with just under 20% of all CF instances, this study found a low to moderate use of explicit correction across the six lessons. While Lyster and Ranta (1997) observed that explicit correction accounted for less than 10% of the total CF moves, making it the least favoured CF technique after repetition, Pedrazzini (2017), established that in lessons with upper-secondary students, explicit correction was the predominant CF method used by teachers. Similarly, both Tsang (2004) and Leiter (2010) determined that explicit correction ranked second in the CF type frequency, constituting about 14% of the overall CF moves in Tsang's (2004) investigation of secondary school EFL lessons and 25% of all CF instances in Leiter's (2010) research with university-level students.

In terms of clarification requests and repetitions, the findings largely supported those of prior research in this field. Despite minor variations across different studies, clarification requests and repetitions are generally less frequently used types of CF. Since both CF strategies accounted for less than 5% of the overall CF instances respectively, the results corroborate those of Pedrazzini's (2017) investigation, which showed that repetitions and clarification requests represented the least common CF techniques in the analysed upper-secondary classes. Leiter's (2010) study did not report any findings concerning repetitions; however, clarification requests only constituted around 3% of the identified corrective moves. Despite this, there is also evidence indicating a more prominent occurrence of both CF types. Tsang (2004), for example, found that repetition ranked third in the CF type frequency ranking, accounting for 14% of all CF instances. Similarly, Lyster and Ranta (1997) detected that clarification requests constituted 11% of the total corrective moves.

The second research question addressed EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning. Taken together, the results unveiled a number of striking similarities in the educators' beliefs. However, there were also a few differences. Since all three participants acknowledged that success in learning English is influenced by a combination of innate abilities and individual effort, the educators' beliefs did not neatly fit

into either of the two perspectives outlined in Dweck's (2000, 2006) theory of mindsets, which was introduced in Section 4.1.2 of this paper. The teachers neither regarded concepts such as personality, intelligence, and abilities as completely fixed and unchangeable, nor did they perceive these qualities as entirely malleable through consistent effort. Nonetheless, in line with previous research indicating that individuals often favour one perspective over the other, one educator stated that genetic predisposition would only be influential to a certain extent. She argued that other factors, such as enjoyment of the subject, engagement with English outside of class, and the implementation of effective learning strategies, would have a more substantial influence. The remaining participants did not take a definitive stance on whether innate abilities or effort would have a greater impact on students' success in learning. Their explanations underscored the ongoing nature-nurture debate, the importance of considering individual learner differences, and the value of personalised support. Considering that Howard-Jones et al.'s (2009) study indicated that teachers who strongly believe in the influence of genetics on educational outcomes feel less empowered to support learners (Howard-Jones et al. 2009), the finding that innate abilities have been regarded as equally important as individual effort was crucial for the further interpretation of the results.

Regarding self-correction, the results also revealed several notable parallels in the educators' perspectives. All three teachers emphasised the importance of providing students with opportunities to self-correct their errors. They not only referred to their own methods of implementing the approach in the classroom but also stressed that errors and self-correction are intrinsic aspects of the learning process. Additionally, the educators expressed joy in witnessing students engage in self-correction and justified the utilisation of specific CF techniques, emphasising that these approaches would raise learners' awareness of their errors, facilitate self-reflection, and promote self-correction. This is in agreement with Saeb (2017), who proposed that teachers perceive implicit feedback as more effective, as it fosters learner autonomy by motivating students to identify and correct errors. Consistent with the participants' beliefs regarding the role of effort in language learning, which were reported above, the teachers recognised the importance of encouraging students to engage in self-correction, a finding that also accords with Balzer's (2014) study. The researcher uncovered that teachers who perceive themselves as having a substantial impact on students' learning are more inclined to persist and invest effort when learners encounter difficulties. Conversely,

educators who perceive their control over students' learning outcomes as limited are less likely to do so (Balzer 2014).

While there was a consensus among the teachers regarding the overall significance of self-correction, variations emerged in their views on specific contexts wherein promoting self-correction was considered suitable. Two educators disagreed with the idea that the CF strategy should be contingent upon the learners' language proficiency and that only high-proficiency students would be able to self-correct their errors, whereas one participant strongly agreed with this notion. Furthermore, all three teachers indicated that self-correction would be effective for grammar errors; however, there was a significant disparity in the participants' opinions concerning errors related to vocabulary, pronunciation, content, and students' unsolicited use of the L1. One teacher also emphasised the value of prompting learners to self-correct across all linguistic scenarios, adding another layer of diversity to the educators' perspectives.

In regard to the effectiveness of the six different CF types, again, a wide variety in the teachers' beliefs became evident. Consistent findings emerged concerning elicitation, which was uniformly perceived as rather effective. Additionally, the educators shared a common view regarding explicit correction, rating it as less effective, with one participant even deeming it ineffective. With respect to the other four strategies, the answers were mixed. Both recasts and metalinguistic feedback were considered rather effective by two teachers, while the remaining educator viewed them as rather ineffective. Similarly, clarification requests were regarded as rather effective by one participant but as rather ineffective by the other two. When it came to repetitions, opinions diverged even more drastically, with the three teachers perceiving them as very effective, rather effective, and rather ineffective respectively. In terms of the two CF types that the teachers identified as their most frequently used techniques, the findings also showed only partial agreement. To be more specific, two of the teachers indicated that recasts were among their most frequently employed CF types. In addition to recasts, the selected CF strategies were clarification requests, repetitions, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitations.

Interestingly, the teachers' justifications for their preferred use of these CF types broadly support Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings from the late 20th century. As discussed in Section 4.2, the researchers established that educators tend to hold two main assumptions about error correction. First, teachers often avoid using CF techniques, particularly those that promote self-correction, because they fear that these methods might interrupt the flow of communication (Lyster & Ranta 1997). Aligning with this, one participant in the present study stated that her aim was to avoid a disruption of the natural flow of speech when providing CF. Furthermore, Lyster and Ranta (1997) argued that teachers tend to be concerned about students becoming frustrated by frequent corrections and therefore prefer not to correct them too often. Consistent with this, the study revealed that maintaining student confidence, preventing students from developing a fear of speaking, and gently guiding the learners in the right direction would be relevant to the teachers' decision about which CF type to use in the EFL classroom. Additionally, in line with the results of Han and Jung's study (2007), which demonstrated that intermediate-level teachers generally believe that educators should be mindful of the potential embarrassment students might experience when being corrected in front of their peers, one participant noted that avoiding embarrassment would be one of her main teaching objectives.

The third research question aimed to determine the extent to which EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning align with their OCF practices. When considering the results for the three teachers collectively, the congruence between the educators' stated beliefs and their observed CF behaviour was less evident than anticipated. As reported in relation to the second research question, the participants collectively emphasised the importance of effort and self-correction for students' success in learning English. Nevertheless, the proportion of prompts, which elicit learners' self-correction, was considerably low across all three sample groups, constituting on average less than 50% of the recorded CF moves.

Given the intricate nature of educators' beliefs, which can be shaped by numerous factors like experience, context, and professional development (Borg 2003), it is challenging to pinpoint a singular reason for the inconsistencies between the teachers' beliefs and their classroom behaviour. Nevertheless, prior research has frequently referred to contextual factors and

situational constraints, which prevent teachers from aligning their actions with their beliefs (Basturkmen 2012). An interesting finding in this respect was that all three participants stated that contextual aspects would be influential when it comes to deciding which CF strategy to utilise in EFL lessons with the observed learner group. While some of the disparities between the teachers' beliefs and practices were most likely related to their views on the effectiveness of self-correction with different error types, pedagogical considerations concerning learners' language level, time pressure, and the type of activity were also seen as factors hindering them from implementing their beliefs.

Furthermore, the tenuous links between the teachers' expressed beliefs and their CF practice might be due to the characteristics of CF itself. As proposed in Section 4.3.2, teachers' reactions to unplanned events in the classroom, such as learner errors, generally show weaker congruence with their stated beliefs compared to their planned or routine actions. Whilst the findings from this study offer tentative evidence suggesting that incidental aspects of teaching may cause discrepancies between beliefs and practices, there remains a scarcity of research examining teachers' beliefs regarding uncertain and unpredictable elements of teaching (Basturkmen 2012). Considering that Pajares (1992) contended already 30 years ago that assessments of teachers' beliefs should encompass their statements, intentions, and actions, it is crucial to underscore at this point that, for a deeper insight into teachers' cognitive processes during real-time decision making in the classroom, more studies investigating teachers' beliefs about improvisational and unplanned teaching aspects are strongly recommended.

Even though consistencies and inconsistencies emerged in relation to all three educators, it is important to note that the degree of alignment between the teachers' beliefs and their practices varied among the participants. While the comparative analyses of Teacher B's and Teacher C's data revealed a fairly balanced mix of consistencies and inconsistencies, the disparities between Teacher A's beliefs and actions were slightly more pronounced. However, this finding must be approached with caution because some of Teacher A's questionnaire responses suggested an internal inconsistency in the participant's stated beliefs. This is not an unusual finding, as previous research has underlined that due to the existence of multiple belief systems, an educator may hold beliefs about a certain aspect of teaching that

periodically conflict with beliefs related to other factors (Graden 1996). Furthermore, Schutz (1970) highlighted that individuals might have two incompatible beliefs, even if they do not recognise any inconsistency between them. Finally, it is crucial to bear in mind that Teacher A was the only participant who expressed a desire to modify her current CF approach with the observed group of students. Hence, the observed discrepancy may have stemmed from a transitional phase where the teacher reassessed her beliefs. Furthermore, since prior research has indicated that significant changes in educators' beliefs may not immediately be followed by alterations of their practices (Richardson et al. 1991), it is plausible that the discrepancies were due to a temporary misalignment between Teacher A's actions and beliefs, ultimately stemming from the participant's desire to adapt her CF behaviour.

Another striking discovery of this study was that the classroom practices of the most experienced teacher aligned more closely with her stated beliefs compared to those of the two less experienced participants. Teacher B, who reported having between 11 and 20 years of experience as an EFL educator, not only demonstrated a strong awareness of her teaching practices but also employed CF techniques that promote self-correction more frequently than Teacher A and Teacher C. Even though with almost 58%, the total proportion of prompts in Sample Group B was not considerably larger than the one observed in Sample Group C, the slightly more pronounced use of CF types which encourage learners to self-correct their errors may partly be explained by the participant's additional years of experience as an EFL teacher. This explanation seems particularly suitable, as earlier observations uncovered that educators with more teaching experience exhibit beliefs that are more consistently reflected in their classroom behaviour compared to their less experienced counterparts (Feryok 2004; Mitchell 2005; Basturkmen 2012). This is due to the fact that over time, teachers cultivate a set of guiding principles that become increasingly embedded and applied in various teaching situations (Breen et al. 2001). Considering that Teacher A and Teacher C, who both had five to 10 years of experience as EFL teachers when the questionnaire was administered, had fewer opportunities to form beliefs that are based on practical insights in the classroom, the limited experientially-derived knowledge of these participants may have contributed to the more pronounced disparities between their beliefs and actions. Additionally, it cannot be ruled out that Teacher A and Teacher C found it more difficult to articulate the reasons behind certain teaching approaches. As stated in Section 4.3.2, Sinprajakpol (2004) found that educators with

minimal teaching experience are still in the process of developing their own beliefs and only gradually become aware of them. As a consequence, these educators often struggle to explain the reasoning behind specific classroom methods.

Despite being a small-scale research project, this study offers valuable insights into the way teachers navigate the provision of OCF and their underlying beliefs in this area of language instruction. Investigating educators' CF strategies and their beliefs can have a considerable influence on both the realms of EFL acquisition and pedagogy. It can present new pathways for comparable projects that are essential for FL teachers and, as pointed out by Roothoof (2014: 67), "help bridge the gap between theory and practice". While the current study on educators' beliefs and their OCF behaviour in the EFL classroom "constitutes an area where theory and practice interface" (Ellis 2010: 336), findings such as those obtained here are frequently not shared with FL teachers, thereby reinforcing the gap between theoretical research and practical application in the field. Since informing practicing and student teachers about the outcomes of the present investigation could potentially lead to a reassessment of their ideas, thoughts, and beliefs, sharing the results of studies like this is highly recommended. The findings from this and similar investigations into educators' beliefs about CF can serve as an important starting point for teachers to reflect on their own approaches to error correction, thereby enhancing their CF practices through more deliberate decision-making with respect to student errors. Furthermore, there is no doubt that enabling teachers to participate in classroom-based studies might raise their awareness concerning the extent to which their beliefs manifest in their CF behaviour. As suggested by Pedrazzini (2017), this awareness-raising process can be encouraged by engaging teachers in examining and evaluating real CF interactions. Especially collaborative action research projects, where educators act as researchers within their own teaching environments, may be particularly fruitful.

Overall, the results of this study not only highlight the need to share research outcomes with teachers, fostering their awareness and self-reflection regarding their CF methods, but they also underline the importance of examining the methods used to investigate educators' beliefs. Since Basturkmen's (2012) systematic review of research found that the lack of correspondence between teachers' beliefs and their practices may, in part, stem from the

methodologies used to assess educators' beliefs, the generalisability of the present findings is subject to certain limitations. Self-report measures alone may not adequately capture the intricate and varied nature of teachers' beliefs, which are susceptible to diverse contextual influences, and questionnaires are undoubtedly restricted in their ability to provide a deeper understanding of the investigated issue. Furthermore, it is possible that individual variations between the participants, which have not been considered in the study, might have influenced the relationship between their beliefs and CF actions. Other weaknesses of this project are the small sample size of teachers and the limited number of observed lessons, both of which constrain the applicability and interpretability of the results.

To overcome these limitations and shed more light on the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices, additional studies on the current topic are certainly suggested. By employing both comprehensive and context-specific methodologies, researchers could obtain more definitive evidence concerning the extent to which EFL teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in language learning align with their OCF practices, ultimately offering deeper insights into the dynamics influencing error correction and how they, in turn, affect outcomes in the language learning context. Moreover, there is abundant room for further progress in determining the effectiveness of different CF types and specific methods that could help educators enhance their CF techniques.

9. Conclusion

Considering that discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices could potentially impact students' learning outcomes, investigating the relationship between educators' beliefs about language learning and their corrective feedback (CF) practices seems crucial. With the primary aim to determine the extent to which English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers' beliefs about the role of effort and self-correction in second language (L2) acquisition align with their oral corrective feedback (OCF) behaviour in the EFL classroom, this small-scale case study conducted in two Austrian higher-level vocational secondary schools not only supported previous research with respect to EFL educators' OCF practices but also provided new insights into teachers' beliefs about the relevance of self-correction in language learning.

Since the analysis of observation data revealed an error response rate of more than 70% (Tsang 2004; Leiter 2010) and a frequent use of recasts and elicitations (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Tsang 2004; Leiter 2010; Pedrazzini 2017), the participants' CF behaviour closely mirrored that of educators in similar research projects. In the teacher questionnaires, the participants collectively emphasised that success in learning English is influenced by a combination of innate abilities and individual effort. While all teachers stressed the importance of providing students with opportunities to self-correct their errors, they had mixed views about the impact of learners' language proficiency and different error types on the effectiveness of self-correction. Furthermore, the study reinforced earlier findings concerning the two most common assumptions teachers hold about error correction. Consistent with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) observations, the educators were concerned about disrupting the flow of communication and expressed worries about students becoming frustrated by frequent corrections.

Significant findings also emerged regarding the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their practices. Even though overall, the alignment between stated beliefs and actual CF behaviour was not as pronounced as expected, noteworthy variations were identified among the three participants. Given that each teacher indicated that contextual factors would influence her choice of CF strategies with the observed learner group, the most plausible explanation for the differing results appeared to be the participants' varying years of experience as EFL educators. In line with prior observations (Feryok 2004; Mitchell 2005; Basturkmen 2012), the beliefs of the most experienced teacher were more accurately reflected in her classroom behaviour than those of her less experienced colleagues.

Despite certain methodological limitations, such as the drawbacks of self-report measures, the small sample size of teachers, and the limited number of observed lessons, the findings enhance our understanding of the reasons behind EFL educators' approaches to CF and underscore the substantial influence of teacher beliefs on instructional methods. In view of the urgent need to bridge the gap between theoretical research and practical application, this study further endorses the importance of communicating research outcomes to both practicing and student teachers. The investigation suggests the integration of educators' beliefs into Austrian teacher training programmes, and it promotes deeper reflection on CF

practices to enhance their effectiveness. Regardless of the promising results, however, more studies into EFL teachers' language learning beliefs and their OCF practices are required to establish a clearer picture of the interplay between these concepts.

10. References

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11. Appendix

11.1. Appendix A: Consent form – teachers



Teilnehmer*inneninformationsblatt zur Fallstudie im Englischunterricht

Sehr geehrte/r Teilnehmer*in!

Im Rahmen meiner Masterarbeit an der Universität Wien möchte ich verschiedene Merkmale der mündlichen Interaktion zwischen Lehrer*innen und Schüler*innen im Englischunterricht beobachten und analysieren.

Um Daten zu diesem Thema zu erheben, sollen Video- und Tonaufnahmen von zwei Ihrer Englisch-Unterrichtsstunden angefertigt und anschließend in schriftliche Form übertragen werden. Nach Abschluss der Unterrichtsbeobachtungen werden Sie gebeten, einen kurzen Fragebogen auszufüllen, der neben einem demografischen Abschnitt offene und geschlossene Fragen enthalten wird. Da dieser Fragebogen unter anderem auf die in den Englischstunden gewonnenen Informationen Bezug nehmen soll, wird er erst nach Abschluss der Unterrichtsbeobachtungen erstellt.

Alle gesammelten Daten werden vertraulich behandelt, ausschließlich für die genannten Forschungszwecke verwendet und nur in vollständig anonymisierter Form, d.h. ohne Namen und Personenangaben, veröffentlicht. Nach Abschluss des Projekts werden die Video- und Tonaufnahmen von den Unterrichtsbeobachtungen sowie jegliche in der Befragung erhobenen Daten gelöscht.

Die Teilnahme an der Erhebung und die Zustimmung zur Verwendung der Daten für den oben beschriebenen Zweck sind freiwillig. Sie haben jederzeit die Möglichkeit, Ihre Zustimmung zu widerrufen.

Ich möchte Sie durch Erteilung Ihres Einverständnisses um Unterstützung zu diesem Vorhaben bitten und bedanke mich bereits im Voraus sehr herzlich für Ihre Mithilfe.

Für Fragen stehe ich Ihnen jederzeit gerne zur Verfügung.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

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Wien, Mai 2023

Zustimmungserklärung zur Fallstudie im Englischunterricht

Ich habe das Teilnehmer*inneninformationsblatt zur Fallstudie gelesen und erkläre mich bereit, am genannten Forschungsprojekt teilzunehmen.

Ich bin damit einverstanden, dass im Rahmen der Studie Video- und Tonaufnahmen von zwei meiner Unterrichtsstunden gemacht und anschließend in schriftliche Form übertragen werden. Des Weiteren stimme ich zu, nach Abschluss der Unterrichtsbeobachtungen einen kurzen Fragebogen auszufüllen, der unter anderem auf die in den Englischstunden gewonnenen Informationen Bezug nehmen wird.

Mir ist bekannt, dass alle gesammelten Daten vertraulich behandelt, ausschließlich für die genannten Forschungszwecke verwendet und nur in vollständig anonymisierter Form, d.h. ohne Namen und Personenangaben, veröffentlicht werden. Außerdem wurde mir ausdrücklich zugesichert, dass nach Abschluss des Projekts die Video- und Tonaufnahmen von den Unterrichtsbeobachtungen sowie jegliche in der Befragung erhobenen Daten gelöscht werden.

Meine Teilnahme an der Erhebung und meine Zustimmung zur Verwendung der Daten, wie oben beschrieben, sind freiwillig. Ich habe jederzeit die Möglichkeit, meine Zustimmung zu widerrufen. Durch Verweigerung oder Widerruf entstehen mir keine Nachteile.

.....
Name des Teilnehmers/der Teilnehmerin

.....
Unterschrift des Teilnehmers/der Teilnehmerin

.....
Ort, Datum

11.2. Appendix B: Consent form – parents



Elterninformationsblatt zur Fallstudie im Englischunterricht

Sehr geehrte Eltern!

Im Rahmen meiner Masterarbeit an der Universität Wien möchte ich verschiedene Merkmale der mündlichen Interaktion zwischen Lehrer*innen und Schüler*innen im Englischunterricht beobachten und analysieren.

Um Daten zu diesem Thema zu erheben, sollen Video- und Tonaufnahmen von mehreren Englisch-Unterrichtsstunden angefertigt und anschließend in schriftliche Form übertragen werden.

Alle gesammelten Daten werden vertraulich behandelt, ausschließlich für die genannten Forschungszwecke verwendet und nur in vollständig anonymisierter Form veröffentlicht, d.h. ohne Namen und Personenangaben. Nach Abschluss der Auswertung wird das gesamte Video- und Tonmaterial gelöscht.

Die Teilnahme an der Erhebung und die Zustimmung zur Verwendung der Daten für den oben beschriebenen Zweck sind freiwillig. Sie haben jederzeit die Möglichkeit, Ihre Zustimmung zu widerrufen, ohne dass Ihrem Kind dadurch Nachteile entstehen.

Ich möchte Sie auf diesem Wege um Unterstützung durch Erteilung Ihres Einverständnisses zu diesem Vorhaben bitten und bedanke mich bereits im Voraus sehr herzlich für Ihre Mithilfe.

Für Fragen stehe ich Ihnen jederzeit gerne zur Verfügung.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

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Wien, Mai 2023

Zustimmungserklärung zur Fallstudie im Englischunterricht

Ich habe das Eltern-
Name der/des Erziehungsberechtigten

informationsblatt zur Fallstudie gelesen und bin damit einverstanden, dass meine Tochter/

mein Sohn der
Name der Tochter/des Sohnes

Klasse an der Studie teilnimmt.

Mir wurde ausdrücklich zugesichert, dass alle Ergebnisse nur in anonymisierter Form veröffentlicht werden.

.....

Datum

.....

Unterschrift der/des Erziehungsberechtigten

11.3. Appendix C: Transcription conventions

SPEAKER IDS

T	teacher
Ss	several speakers speaking at the same time
SfX	unidentifiable female speaker
SmX	unidentifiable male speaker
Sf4	female speaker (number according to seating chart)
Sm2	male speaker (number according to seating chart)

INTONATION

?	words or syllables spoken with rising intonation
.	words or syllables spoken with falling intonation

EMPHASIS

CAPITALS	stressed words or syllables (e.g. <i>he wouldn't HAVE been sick; toMORrow</i>)
----------	---

PAUSES

(.)	pause shorter than a second
(1), (2), ...	timed perceptible pause within a turn (in seconds)

OVERLAPS

<1> ... </1>	first overlap in the transcript (consecutively numbered throughout the transcript)
--------------	--

OTHER-CONTINUATION

=	speaker continues, completes, or supports another speaker's utterance without a pause
---	---

LENGTHENING

:	lengthened vowel sound (e.g. <i>u:m</i>)
---	---

WORD FRAGMENTS

-	a hyphen marks where a part of the word is missing (e.g. <i>le- legit</i>)
---	---

LAUGHTER

@	laughter is transcribed with the @ symbol, approximating syllable number (e.g. <i>ha ha ha = @@@</i>)
<@> ... </@>	utterances spoken laughingly

UNCERTAIN TRANSCRIPTION & UNINTELLIGIBLE SPEECH

(...)	word fragments, words, or phrases that cannot be reliably identified are put in parentheses
(xx)	unclear speech (one 'x' per syllable)

PRONUNCIATION VARIATIONS

<pvc> ... </pvc>	striking variations on the level of phonology / 'invented' words
{...}	if a corresponding word can be determined for pronunciation variations, it is added between curly brackets (e.g. <i>n[ɫ]merous {numerous}</i>)
[...]	phonetic representations are put into square brackets (e.g. <i>b[i:]r</i>)

NON-ENGLISH SPEECH

<L1de> ... </L1de>	German utterances
<LNsp> ... </LNsp>	Spanish utterances
<LNla> ... </LNla>	Latin utterances

SPEAKING MODES

<loud> ... </loud>	utterances which are spoken loudly
<quiet> ... </quiet>	utterances which are spoken quietly

NON-VERBAL FEEDBACK & SPEAKER NOISES

<nods>, <coughs (7)>	non-verbal feedback and speaker noises are transcribed as part of the running text and put between pointed brackets (if important, length is indicated in seconds)
----------------------	--

ANONYMISATION

[Sf8], [Sm2]	female or male speaker addressed by name (number according to seating chart)
--------------	--

CONTEXTUAL EVENTS

{T writes on blackboard (4)}	contextual information is added between curly brackets (if important, length is indicated in seconds)
------------------------------	---

Conventions adapted from:

VOICE Project. 2007. "Mark-up conventions". *VOICE Transcription Conventions [2.1]*.
<https://voice.acdh.oeaw.ac.at/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/VOICE-mark-up-conventions.pdf> (20 July 2023).

11.4. Appendix D: Code book

Abbreviations for errors

Abbreviation	Full Form
GE	Grammatical error
LE	Lexical error
PE	Phonological error
CE	Content error
L1	Unsolicited use of L1

Abbreviations for corrective feedback

Abbreviation	Full Form
EC	Explicit correction
R	Recast
CR	Clarification request
MF	Metalinguistic feedback
E	Elicitation
REP	Repetition

11.5. Appendix E: Teacher questionnaire



Einstellungen von Lehrpersonen zum Spracherwerb und zu korrekтивem Feedback im EFL-Klassenzimmer

Sehr geehrte/r Teilnehmer*in!

Vielen Dank, dass Sie sich die Zeit nehmen, diesen Fragebogen auszufüllen. Das Hauptziel dieser Befragung ist es, Ihre Einstellungen zum Spracherwerb und zu korrekтивem mündlichen Feedback im EFL (English as a Foreign Language) Klassenzimmer zu erheben. Ihre ehrlichen Antworten sind für meine Studie sehr wichtig und werden mir helfen, den spezifischen Themenbereich besser zu verstehen.

Wie bereits im Teilnehmer*inneninformationsblatt zur Studie näher ausgeführt wurde, werden alle Antworten vertraulich behandelt, ausschließlich für die genannten Forschungszwecke verwendet und nur in vollständig anonymisierter Form, d.h. ohne Namen und Personenangaben, veröffentlicht.

Für Fragen stehe ich Ihnen jederzeit gerne zur Verfügung.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen

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Wien, August 2023

Hinweise zum Fragebogen

1. Allgemeine Hinweise

Der Fragebogen setzt sich aus drei Abschnitten zusammen:

Teil 1 – Demografische Angaben & Unterrichtskontext
Teil 2 – Spracherwerb und korrektives mündliches Feedback im EFL-Klassenzimmer
Teil 3 – Verhalten im EFL-Klassenzimmer

- ☐ Beantworten Sie bitte nach Möglichkeit jede Frage.
- ☐ Beantworten Sie die Fragen bitte in der vorgegebenen Reihenfolge.
- ☐ Beantworten Sie bitte alle Fragen ehrlich – es gibt keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten!

2. Fragen- und Antwortformate

Der Fragebogen enthält geschlossene und offene Fragen:

Geschlossene Fragen beantworten Sie durch Ankreuzen Ihrer Antwort.

- Grundsätzlich kann pro Frage nur eine Antwort ausgewählt werden. Wenn Mehrfachantworten möglich sind, ist dies durch einen Zusatz gekennzeichnet.
- Sollte keine der Antworten voll auf Sie zutreffen, dann kreuzen Sie bitte diejenige an, die am ehesten auf Sie zutrifft.

Offene Fragen beantworten Sie durch Eintragen Ihrer Antwort in das dafür vorgesehene Feld.

- Bitte nehmen Sie sich für die Beantwortung der Fragen ausreichend Zeit. Das Ausfüllen des Fragebogens wird ca. 30 Minuten beanspruchen; je ausführlicher Ihre Antworten sind, desto besser! □

3. Inhaltliche Hinweise

Was meine ich mit *korrektivem Feedback*?

Unter *korrektivem Feedback* ist jeder mündliche Hinweis zu verstehen, der Schüler*innen verdeutlicht, dass etwas an dem, was sie gesagt haben, nicht stimmt.

Es kann sich um eine explizite Korrektur der Lehrperson handeln, wie im folgenden Beispiel:

Student: *I have to make my homework before I go out.*
Teacher: ***Not make, you say 'I have to do my homework'.***

Aber es gibt auch viele andere Feedbackstrategien, mit denen Lehrer*innen ihren Schüler*innen signalisieren können, dass das Gesagte einen Fehler enthält, zum Beispiel:

Student: *I have to make my homework before I go out.*
Teacher: ***I have to MAKE my homework?*** (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)

Was meine ich mit *Selbstkorrektur*?

Als *Selbstkorrektur* wird jener Vorgang bezeichnet, bei dem Schüler*innen ihre Fehler selbst korrigieren.

Wie nachfolgend ersichtlich, ist eine Selbstkorrektur nur dann möglich, wenn das korrektive Feedback der Lehrperson nicht bereits die korrekte Form enthält:

Student: *I have to make my homework before I go out.*
Teacher: *I have to MAKE my homework?* (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)
Student: ***I have to do my homework before I go out.***

Teil 1 – Demografische Angaben & Unterrichtskontext

Zunächst würde ich Sie bitten, ein paar Fragen zu Ihrer Person und Ihrem Unterrichtskontext zu beantworten.

1. Mit welchem Geschlecht identifizieren Sie sich?

- ☐ Männlich
☐ Weiblich
☐ Anderes

2. Wie alt sind Sie?

- ☐ Unter 30 Jahre
☐ 30-39 Jahre
☐ 40-49 Jahre
☐ 50 Jahre oder älter

3. Was ist Ihre Muttersprache?

4. Wie viele Jahre Erfahrung haben Sie im Unterrichten von Englisch als Fremdsprache?

- ☐ Weniger als 5 Jahre
☐ 5-10 Jahre
☐ 11-20 Jahre
☐ Mehr als 20 Jahre

5. An welchen Schultypen unterrichten Sie derzeit? (Mehrfachnennungen sind möglich.)

- ☐ (Neue) Mittelschule – (N)MS
☐ Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule – AHS (Sekundarstufe I)
☐ Allgemeinbildende höhere Schule – AHS (Sekundarstufe II)
☐ Berufsbildende mittlere Schule – BMS
☐ Berufsbildende höhere Schule – BHS

6. Welche anderen Fächer unterrichten Sie neben Englisch?

7. Sind Sie in Ihrem Lehramtsstudium bzw. einer anderen Weiterbildung, die Sie besucht haben, mit dem Thema dieser Studie in Berührung gekommen? Wenn ja, erläutern Sie dies bitte kurz.

Teil 2 – Sprachenerwerb und korrekatives mündliches Feedback im EFL-Klassenzimmer

In diesem Abschnitt geht es um Ihre Einstellungen zum Sprachenerwerb und zu korrekativem Feedback im EFL-Klassenzimmer.

8. Bitte lesen Sie sich folgende Aussagen zum Sprachenerwerb im EFL-Klassenzimmer durch. Welcher der drei Aussagen würden Sie am ehesten zustimmen?

- ☐ Der Erfolg beim Erlernen der englischen Sprache wird in erster Linie von den **angeborenen Fähigkeiten** der Schüler*innen bestimmt.
- ☐ Der Erfolg beim Erlernen der englischen Sprache wird in erster Linie vom **eigenen Einsatz** der Schüler*innen bestimmt.
- ☐ Der Erfolg beim Erlernen der englischen Sprache wird sowohl von den **angeborenen Fähigkeiten** der Schüler*innen als auch deren **eigenem Einsatz** bestimmt.

Bitte begründen Sie Ihre Antwort in wenigen Sätzen.

9. Wie wichtig ist es Ihrer Meinung nach für den Sprachenerwerb im EFL-Klassenzimmer, dass Schüler*innen korrekatives Feedback zu ihren Fehlern erhalten?

☐	☐	☐	☐
Sehr wichtig	Eher wichtig	Eher nicht wichtig	Nicht wichtig

Bitte begründen Sie Ihre Antwort in wenigen Sätzen.

10. Wie wichtig ist es Ihrer Meinung nach für den Spracherwerb im EFL-Klassenzimmer, dass Schüler*innen die Möglichkeit erhalten, ihre Fehler selbst zu korrigieren?

☐ Sehr wichtig	☐ Eher wichtig	☐ Eher nicht wichtig	☐ Nicht wichtig
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Bitte begründen Sie Ihre Antwort in wenigen Sätzen.

11. Bitte lesen Sie sich folgende Aussagen zur Selbstkorrektur im EFL-Klassenzimmer durch. Inwieweit stimmen Sie den Aussagen jeweils zu?

Aussage 1: Die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass Schüler*innen neue Formen verinnerlichen, ist größer, wenn sie korrekatives Feedback erhalten, das sie zur Selbstkorrektur ihrer Fehler anregt, als wenn der/ie Lehrer*in die Korrektur der fehlerhaften Aussagen übernimmt.

Aussage 2: Wenn Schüler*innen die Möglichkeit zur Selbstkorrektur bekommen, werden sie dazu ermutigt, Verantwortung für ihren Lernprozess zu übernehmen.

Aussage 3: Die Entscheidung darüber, welche korrektive Feedbackstrategie eingesetzt wird, sollte darauf basieren, welches Sprachniveau die Lernenden haben. Nur Schüler*innen, die ein hohes Sprachniveau haben, können ihre Fehler selbst korrigieren.

	Stimme sehr zu	Stimme eher zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu
Aussage 1	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aussage 2	☐	☐	☐	☐
Aussage 3	☐	☐	☐	☐

Wenn Sie Anmerkungen zu dieser Frage haben, tragen Sie diese bitte hier ein.

12. Bitte sehen Sie sich folgende Lehrer*innen-Schüler*innen-Interaktion an. Wie effektiv sind Ihrer Meinung nach die verschiedenen korrektiven Feedbackstrategien für den Spracherwerb im EFL-Klassenzimmer?

Teacher: *What did you do yesterday?*

Student: *I play basketball with my friends.*

Teacher says:	Sehr effektiv	Eher effektiv	Eher nicht effektiv	Nicht effektiv
1. <i>No, not play, played.</i>	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. <i>You played basketball. Okay.</i>	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. <i>Can you say that again, please?</i>	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. <i>You need to use the past tense.</i>	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. <i>Yesterday, I...?</i> (pausing with rising intonation)	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. <i>I PLAY basketball?</i> (stressing the mistake with rising intonation)	☐	☐	☐	☐

Wenn Sie Anmerkungen zu dieser Frage haben, tragen Sie diese bitte hier ein.

13. Bitte sehen Sie sich folgende Situationen an. Wie effektiv ist es Ihrer Meinung nach für den Spracherwerb im EFL-Klassenzimmer, Schüler*innen in den jeweiligen Situationen die Möglichkeit zur Selbstkorrektur zu geben?

	Sehr effektiv	Eher effektiv	Eher nicht effektiv	Nicht effektiv
1. Ein/e Schüler*in macht einen Grammatikfehler.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Ein/e Schüler*in macht einen lexikalischen (= den Wortschatz betreffenden) Fehler.	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. Ein/e Schüler*in macht einen Aussprachefehler.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Ein/e Schüler*in macht einen Inhaltsfehler.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Ein/e Schüler*in spricht Deutsch, wenn die Verwendung von Englisch erwartet wird.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Wenn Sie Anmerkungen zu dieser Frage haben, tragen Sie diese bitte hier ein.

Teil 3 – Verhalten im EFL-Klassenzimmer

Im letzten Abschnitt dieses Fragebogens würde ich gern mehr zu Ihrem Verhalten im EFL-Klassenzimmer erfahren. Bitte denken Sie bei der Beantwortung der Fragen an den Unterricht mit jenen Schüler*innen, die im Zuge meiner Studie beobachtet wurden!

14. Bitte sehen Sie sich die in Frage 12 dargestellten korrektiven Feedbackstrategien noch einmal an. Welche zwei Strategien verwenden Sie tendenziell am häufigsten im EFL-Unterricht mit der beobachteten Schüler*innengruppe? Geben Sie die Nummern (1-6) an.

Bitte erklären Sie kurz, warum Sie diese Feedbackstrategien tendenziell am häufigsten verwenden.

15. Bitte sehen Sie sich folgende Unterrichtsaspekte an. Wie wichtig ist der jeweilige Aspekt, wenn Sie entscheiden müssen, welche korrektive Feedbackstrategie Sie im EFL-Unterricht mit der beobachteten Schüler*innengruppe einsetzen?

	Sehr wichtig	Eher wichtig	Eher nicht wichtig	Nicht wichtig
1. Sprachniveau der Schüler*innen	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Zeitdruck	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Art von Fehler	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Art von Unterrichtsaktivität	☐	☐	☐	☐

Wenn Sie Anmerkungen zu dieser Frage haben, tragen Sie diese bitte hier ein.

16. Würden Sie gerne etwas an Ihrem derzeitigen Umgang mit korrektivem Feedback im EFL-Unterricht mit der beobachteten Schüler*innengruppe ändern?

☐ Ja	☐ Nein
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Wenn ja, erläutern Sie dies bitte kurz.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme!