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Language Teacher Cognition and Corrective Feedback:

A Study Investigating the Cognitions Underlying
Norwegian EFL Teachers' Corrective Practices

Språklæreres kognisjoner og rettende tilbakemelding:
En undersøkelse om norske engelsklæreres rettende praksiser

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Abstract

The following research project focuses on the cognitions underlying Norwegian EFL teachers' oral corrective practices. The present study utilised a survey in form of a questionnaire in order to gather information about cognitions concerning aspects of oral correction and preferences and opinions towards corrective feedback. 31 teachers with different professional backgrounds participated in this research project. This allowed for investigation of differences in cognitions depending on formal English education, years of teaching experience and year level taught. This study found that generally, the participating teachers were driven by pedagogical concerns in providing oral error correction. This included considerations of e.g. pupils' skills, abilities and proficiency levels, the aims set by the current curriculum reform (LK06), and the context in which the participants were teaching. A prominent characteristic of the sample's cognitions was an emphasis on the ability to communicate in oral English practice. With regards to corrective feedback, three implicit types (recasts, elicitation and clarification requests) and one explicit type (metalinguistic feedback) were found preferable and thus likely to be used if and when providing oral corrective feedback. Ignoring an error was generally found to be more preferable than providing explicit correction and repetition. With regards to cognitions based on professional backgrounds, the differences were not statistically significant. However, some patterns emerged: Cognitions were similar between teachers with no and lower levels of education (15 to 30 credits) and teachers with higher levels of education (60 and excess of 75 credits). Novice teachers' cognitions regarding pupils' oral accuracy and the provision of oral correction differed from those of experienced and very experienced teachers. With regards to practice of year level, primary school teachers were found have a higher tolerance for ignoring errors than secondary school teachers, and the latter may have a tendency for providing more varied types of corrective feedback.

Sammendrag

Dette forskningsprosjektet undersøkte norske engelsklæreres kognisjoner (tanker, meninger og kunnskap) om muntlig rettende tilbakemelding. Studien brukte en spørreundersøkelse for å samle informasjon om engelsklæreres kognisjoner om generelle deler av muntlig engelskundervisning, så vel som mer spesifikke preferanser rundt muntlig rettende tilbakemelding. 31 deltakere med ulik profesjonell bakgrunn deltok i forskningsprosjektet. Dette førte til at studien kunne undersøke om kognisjoner varierte basert på formell engelskutdanning, mengde erfaring som praktiserende lærere, og hvilket årstrinn lærerne underviste på. Denne studien fant at deltakerne generelt var drevet av pedagogiske betraktninger i valgene om å gi muntlig rettende tilbakemeldinger. Dette inkluderte blant annet elevenes evner og språkkunnskap, kompetansemålene i LK06, så vel som konteksten de underviste i. En fremtredende karakteristikk i lærernes kognisjoner var et sterkt fokus på fremheve elevens evner til å kommunisere på engelsk. I forhold til muntlig rettende tilbakemelding fant denne studien at tre implisitte typer (*recasts*, *elicitation* og *clarification requests*) og en eksplisitt type (*metalinguistic feedback*) var vurdert som gunstige i forhold til muntlige rettepraksiser. Studien fant også at lærerne heller ville ignorere en språkfeil enn å bruke *explicit correction* og *repetition*. Studien fant ikke statistisk signifikante forskjeller i kognisjoner basert på lærernes profesjonelle bakgrunner, men noen mønster var likevel fremtredende: kognisjonene var mer like mellom de lærerne som hadde 0 til 30 studiepoeng i engelsk og de som hadde 60 til mer enn 75 studiepoeng i engelsk. Videre fant studien at mindre erfarne læreres meninger og kunnskap skilte seg ut fra mer erfarne læreres meninger og kunnskap. I forhold til hvilket årstrinn lærerne underviste på fant studien at lærere på mellomtrinnet hadde en høyere toleranse for å ignorere språkfeil, mens lærere på ungdomstrinnet muligens hadde en tendens for å bruke flere typer rettende tilbakemelding.

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Declaration

I hereby declare that I have developed and written the enclosed Master thesis by myself, and that I have not used other people's work unless otherwise stated. Every effort has been made in order to indicate this clearly, e.g. by means of reference to studies both in the text and in the reference list. This thesis is approved as part of my education at Bergen University College, but the institution does not attest claims made or conclusions drawn.

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1. Introduction

This Master thesis is an investigation of language teachers' cognitions regarding oral corrective practices in year levels 5 to 10 in the Norwegian EFL context. As such, the aim is to investigate beliefs and knowledge that may influence the decisions made in Norwegian classroom practices, and not actual practices with regards to oral error correction. The present study investigated cognitions about six types of corrective feedback, i.e. explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, recasts, elicitation, clarification requests and repetition. The data were collected by means of a survey in the form of a questionnaire, with 31 participating respondents.

1.1 Background

In the past two decades, the study of language teacher cognition has become a contemporary field of interest in SLA research (Borg, 2012). As a key explanation for this surge of interest, Borg (2006, p. 1) cites the central role in understanding teaching played by teachers' decision-making, knowledge and beliefs. Investigations of e.g. the relationship between cognitions and practice have been made, and there is general consensus that the two influence each other, although stated beliefs and actual practices may not always match (e.g. Borg, 2006; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Phipps, 2009; Watson, 2015). Studies have also found that input from education and research is unlikely to affect language teachers' cognitions if prior beliefs and knowledge are not made explicit, discussed and challenged (e.g. Borg, 2003; Borg & Albery, 2015).

SLA research in recent years has also been characterised by a growing focus on the effectiveness and role of corrective feedback in second language development. This topic has been widely studied, with investigation focusing on e.g. whether to correct errors, what errors to correct, how to correct them and when to correct them (Ellis, 2009, p. 3). The issue of *how* to correct errors has created debate and controversy, and much effort has been directed at ascertaining the degree to which *different* types of corrective feedback may have an effect on second language

development. Some (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997) have found that explicit types of feedback are more effective in target language development, but that implicit types are more commonly used, while others (e.g. Li, 2010; Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001) argue that implicit types can be just as effective. The general stance is that feedback types that prompt learners to self-correct are more effective than feedback types that provide the correct form (e.g. Lochtman, 2002). Roothoof (2014) suggests that implicit types, particularly recasts, are more commonly used because teachers are concerned with trying to avoid interrupting students and thereby provoking negative affective responses.

1.2 Aims and scope of the present study

The aim of this thesis is to investigate Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions concerning oral language proficiency in general, and corrective feedback in particular. Furthermore, this study seeks to investigate potential differences between groups of teachers based on their professional backgrounds, which includes variables such as formal English education, years of teaching experience and current practice of year level, i.e. whether their current practice is situated in a primary school or in a lower secondary school. These aims are furthered in the research questions and hypotheses presented below.

Research questions and hypotheses:

1. What characterises Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions regarding oral grammatical proficiency and correcting oral language output?
 - i. How do Norwegian EFL teachers evaluate different types of corrective feedback?
2. Are there any differences in the cognitions between groups of teachers based on their professional backgrounds?

Research question 1 sets out to examine the state of Norwegian teachers' cognitions about correcting language and their general preferences towards the different types of corrective feedback. Thus, this research question includes the whole of the sample and does not aim to look at differences between certain groups of teachers, as is the aim of the second research question. Furthermore, this research question includes

three components: 1) Beliefs and knowledge concerning pupils' oral language proficiency and correcting language, 2) evaluation of and preferences towards six types of corrective feedback, and 3) general preferences towards implicit or explicit feedback. Thus, the aim of this research question is also to examine considerations Norwegian EFL teachers make in deciding to correct erroneous oral output. As other studies have found that implicit corrective feedback, due to its less invasive manner, are more preferred by teachers, this research question further generated the following research hypothesis:

A. Norwegian EFL teachers prefer implicit feedback types

Research question 2 seeks to investigate whether there are any differences in the cognitions and preferences of different groups of teachers. This research question includes the same components as the first, i.e. it first investigates more general beliefs of error correction before moving on to investigating more specific preferences. The participants will be examined according to their professional backgrounds as teachers, which in the present study include formal English education, years of teaching experience, and year level currently taught. As other research has shown that cognitions are influenced by practice and that differences in cognitions occur depending on level of experience, this research question yields the following research hypothesis:

B. There are differences in the cognitions of Norwegian EFL teachers depending on their professional backgrounds.

1.3 Relevance of the present study

According to Roothoof (2014, p. 67), inquiries into teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback have received relatively little attention compared to studies that have investigated the effectiveness of feedback types. Roothoof (2014, p. 67) further states that studies of teacher beliefs and feedback can contribute both to the field of SLA research and to the field of second language pedagogy, in that it can "bridge the gap between theory and practice" and furthermore "be a useful starting point for language teachers to reflect on their own feedback practices and to improve their teaching by making more conscious and informed decision" when faced with erroneous oral output. Thus, the present thesis is centrally located in the field of

teachers' cognitions on corrective feedback, as it aims to investigate teachers' beliefs on whether and how to correct in order to facilitate Norwegian learners' language development in English. Furthermore, it provides new data aiming to shed light on the degree to which teachers in the Norwegian context reflect on the importance of oral error correction in the EFL classroom.

1.4 Methodological approach

Both quantitative and qualitative methods have been applied in modern studies on language teacher cognition (Borg, 2012). The present study utilised a survey design in order to gather information about the cognitions of 31 teachers in the Norwegian EFL teaching context, as opposed to just a few. However, the survey was not purely quantitative, as it also contained qualitative elements in the form of evaluations of statements aimed at eliciting beliefs and knowledge on more general aspects of oral error correction.

Since language teacher cognition is a non-observable concept, some variables derived from the constructs of knowledge and beliefs were created. Knowledge and beliefs have been found to be difficult to investigate separately (e.g. Woods, 1996). Thus, on the basis of Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis' (2004, p. 244) definition of beliefs, i.e. "statements teachers [make] about their ideas, thoughts and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of 'what should be done', 'should be the case' and 'is preferable'", the variables chosen for investigation were preferences and opinions. These were elicited through the use of four different evaluation approaches: a Likert scale for each individual type of corrective feedback, two comparisons of the feedback types when appearing collectively, and lastly a rank order in which the participants were to rank the feedback types from what they believed to be most correct and suitable (7) to what they believed to be least correct and suitable (1) according to their own practices. The collective evaluation types also included the option to ignore an error. This means that Norwegian EFL teachers' preferences towards corrective feedback were investigated by means of four types of evaluation item, and these combined generated a more rounded understanding of their cognitions. This is an important measure to take when examining constructs, as one cannot fully rely on one evaluation item being accurate (cf. e.g. Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 76). With regards to eliciting cognitions about more general aspects of oral

correction, the participants were asked to evaluate statements regarding pupils' oral proficiency and the degree to which they actually would correct oral errors. These statements also required qualitative explanations, and these items combined constituted the foundation for investigation into more general cognitions on corrective practices.

1.5 Structure of thesis

This thesis comprises six chapters. The present chapter has served as an introduction to the background and relevance of the present study, as well as explained the aims and illustrated the method of investigation. Chapter 2 situates the thesis theoretically by providing an account of the concepts of language teacher cognition and corrective feedback, as well as presenting theories of second language acquisition relevant to these concepts. Furthermore, it presents some key issues in teaching a second language in a Norwegian context. Chapter 3 presents the method used and describes how the data were coded and analysed, and it also addresses limitations of the research design. The findings of the present study and the results of the analyses are presented in chapter 4. In chapter 5, the results are interpreted in light of the theoretical background provided in chapter 2. Finally, chapter 7 concludes the thesis and also suggests potential further research endeavours.

2. Background and theory

This chapter is aimed at defining and examining topics central to the present study, namely language teacher cognition, corrective feedback and second language teaching and learning. The following sections will discuss each topic in terms of definitions and background as well as previous and current research. Section 2.1 will deal with the concept of language teacher cognition and is aimed at explaining the constructs most often associated with this concept. Furthermore, this section will elaborate on previous research in this field as well as include particular research endeavours relevant for the present study. Section 2.2 gives an overview of definitions regarding corrective feedback and this field of research in general. Finally, section 2.3 is aimed at explaining relevant theories concerning second language

acquisition, and furthermore at elaborating on teaching oral English in a Norwegian context. This chapter sets the base for the data presented in chapter 4 and the discussions in chapter 5, and thus only includes definitions and previous research relevant to the present study.

2.1 Language teacher cognition

Studies into language teacher cognition investigate what “teachers think, know and believe” (Borg, 2006, p. 1) and how this manifests in and influences teachers’ classroom practices. Teacher cognition further includes theories, assumptions and attitudes about all aspects of a teacher’s practice (Borg, 1999; 2006). In this context, teachers’ *theories* are defined as an “implicit personal understanding of teaching and learning which teachers develop through educational and professional experiences”, which have proven to have a powerful influence on their instructional decisions (Borg, 1999, p. 157). That is, one may say that teachers’ cognitions are personally-held, often unspoken systems of mental constructs which are defined and redefined on the basis educational and professional experiences, and which cover the effect and co-dependency of experiences and instructional practice (Borg, 2006, p. 35). The mental constructs most often associated with teacher cognition are knowledge and beliefs, which will be elaborated on in the immediately following sub-section.

These definitions lay the foundation of the present study, namely to investigate Norwegian EFL teachers’ beliefs and knowledge about correcting pupils’ oral output and whether differences in educational background and practice have different influences on cognitions regarding corrective moves. The following sub-sections will elaborate on this field of research, as well as include studies relevant to this research project.

2.1.1 About language teacher cognition

Research into language teacher cognition first arose approximately 40 years ago, when the influence of thoughts on actions was recognised as a key to understanding how the teacher’s actions could influence language learning (Borg, 2006, p. 6). This strand of research soon developed into investigating how cognitions could help facilitate more effective teacher preparation and development (Borg, 2006, p. 9). Still, one considers the surge of research appearing in the mid 1990’s to the early 2000’s

as the modern starting point for the research into language teacher cognition today (Borg, 2003, p. 83). In recent years, the study of language teacher cognition has become increasingly popular in SLA research, as one seeks to understand teaching. Borg (2006, p. 1) explains that teachers are “active, thinking decision-makers who play a central role in shaping classroom events”, which means that understanding how cognitions influence actions can help us explain the processes and mechanics of teaching.

Previous research on language teacher cognition has been characterised by different approaches to both themes and method, and there has been little to no attempt at replica studies, thus making this field of research diverse and largely fragmented (Borg, 2006, p. 45; Borg, 2012). Traditionally one has been concerned with investigating teachers’ thoughts, knowledge and beliefs, but in recent years themes such as attitudes, identities and emotions have gained attention as well (Borg, 2012, p. 11). The present study, however, focuses more on the traditional constructs of language teacher cognition, namely *knowledge* and *beliefs*. These will be elaborated on in the following paragraphs.

Teacher knowledge can be defined both in technical, pedagogical and practical terms. Knowledge that consists of explicit ideas that are created from deep reflection or empirical investigation in the teaching profession is considered *technical* (Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004, p. 246). *Pedagogical* knowledge is that which the teacher has acquired “about the teaching act (e.g. its goals, procedures, strategies) that serves as the basis for his or her classroom activities and behaviour” (Gatbonton, 1999 as quoted in Borg, 2006, p. 48). Knowledge that is generated by teachers as a result of experiences and reflections upon experiences in the teaching profession is considered *practical* knowledge (Meijer et al, 1999 in Borg, 2006, p. 49). While teacher knowledge can be defined according to its technical, pedagogical or practical nature, it is essentially grounded in educational and professional experiences.

As Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) point out, attempts at defining teacher beliefs have been plentiful, and Borg (2006) states that there is little consensus as to what the term actually denotes. Nevertheless, the definition adopted in this study describes beliefs as “statements teachers [make] about their ideas, thoughts and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what ‘should be done’, ‘should be the case’, and ‘is preferable’” (Basturkmen et al, 2004, p. 244). As is

evident from this definition, the two terms of *teacher knowledge* and *teacher beliefs* are difficult to separate. Thought attempts have been made at studying these separately (e.g. Grossman, Wilson & Shulman, 1989; Alexander, Schallert & Hare, 1991; Woods, 1996), one has concluded that it is impossible to study one without including the other. Verloop, Van Driel & Meijer (2001, p. 446) explain that the reason behind this is that “in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined”.

The constructs of knowledge and beliefs are thus what this study considers to be the essence of teacher cognition. In order to attempt to make these constructs more concrete, the present study considers preferences and opinions as variables to be investigated. This matter will be further discussed in chapter 3.

The following sub-section will discuss how cognitions develop and how cognitions may vary depending on an individual’s level of experience and education.

2.1.2 Influences on language teacher cognition

This sub-section will elaborate on different stages of a teacher’s life that may influence the development of cognitions, primarily involving the stages of education. Teachers’ cognitions are unique in that they have formed and developed not only through professional experiences, but also through personal educational experiences.

The first stage to be considered is *the apprenticeship of observation*, which explains how learning experiences that teachers have from an early age and throughout their schooling influence their own practices as professional teachers (Lortie, 1975 in Borg, 2003, p. 86). The teaching profession is unique in the sense that the trained professionals, i.e. teachers, have acquired knowledge and beliefs of that teaching should entail from the moment they started their own primary education. If one aims to unlearn and challenge the fixed ideas that are embedded in a teacher’s belief systems from an early age, which is necessary in order to acquire new knowledge input from education, it is necessary to explore and openly reflect upon the beliefs one has when embarking on becoming a teacher (Borg & Albery, 2015).

The second stage to be considered is logically that of formal education in training to become a teacher. Those training to become teachers are more commonly

referred to as pre-service teachers (Borg, 2006). In his review of research on language teacher cognition, Borg (2003) explains that trainee teachers' cognitions are often characterised by inappropriate, naïve and unrealistic expectations and beliefs as to what the teaching profession actually entails. Still, as many of the studies in the review point to, these cognitions will in many cases remain unchanged if not challenged, reflected upon and discussed adequately (Borg, 2003).

As trainee teachers become practicing teachers, i.e. in-service teachers, there is still need for further education or short courses in order to follow current language learning theories, methods and proficiency aims. Borg and Albery (2015, p. 36) argue that in-service teacher education often has limited impact due to the fact that it tries to implement new ideas without considering teachers prior cognitions, which may be very deeply embedded and can block new learning if not made explicit and reflected upon beforehand. When Orafi and Borg (2009) examined the implementation of a new communicative English language curriculum in Libya, they found that the teachers were not meeting the major demand of adjusting thinking and practices that this reform required. As the teachers had not understood thoroughly what the new reform entailed, they had merely “[filtered] the content and pedagogy of the new curriculum according to what they felt was feasible and desirable in their context” (Orafi & Borg, 2009, p. 250).

The issue stated in Orafi and Borg's (2009) research in Libya can in some ways be compared to the introduction of the Knowledge Promotion (LK06) in Norway. Mellegård and Pettersen (2012) examined Norwegian English teachers' reactions to the new curriculum. Some of the participating teachers emphasised the lack of time and resources as a problem when trying to implement and adapt the competence aims to their teaching, explaining that the ideal world outlined in the curriculum conflicted with the complexity of the real world (Mellegård & Pettersen, 2012, p. 213). Moreover, with the freedom of LK06 came more responsibility, which teachers were “reluctant to take on and with which they [were] not sufficiently confident” (Mellegård & Pettersen, 2012, p. 217). Still, Mellegård and Pettersen (2012, p. 217) state that the teachers “clearly demonstrate[d] a strong will to fulfil the obligations imposed by the national curriculum”.

Several studies have researched the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and their actual practices, and particularly on the issue of whether beliefs match practices (e.g. Phipps & Borg, 2009; Watson, 2015). Some have also found

discrepancies between stated beliefs and practices (e.g. Mowlaie & Rahimi, 2010). Phipps (2009, p. 144) explains that if one has conflicting beliefs about a particular issue, e.g. believing both that language learning occurs through meaningful interaction and that one should provide explicit focus on grammar through language drills, the tensions between these beliefs will sometimes result in a teaching practice which appears to conflict with stated beliefs.

2.2 Corrective feedback

When faced with pupils' erroneous output, teachers have a range of options that they can use in order to respond to and treat the error. Feedback to errors can be categorised in two primary types, either positive or negative. What characterises positive feedback is that it "affirms that a learner response to an activity is correct" (Ellis, 2009, p. 3). As Ellis (2009) points out, positive feedback has typically received more attention in pedagogical theory than in SLA research, presumably due to the fact that this type of feedback tends to be vague and ambiguous as to what part of a learner's utterance it is actually directed at. Negative feedback, on the contrary, signals in some way "that the learner's utterance lacks veracity or is linguistically deviant" (Ellis, 2009, p. 3), thus making it corrective in nature. This section will elaborate on one type of negative feedback, i.e. corrective feedback, and discuss its implications for teaching.

2.2.1 About corrective feedback

Corrective feedback is defined as "responses to a learner's nontargetlike L2 production" (Li, 2010, p. 309). The growing body of research accumulated in this field of research during the past decade has found that the teacher's provision of corrective feedback plays an important role in the learner's second language development and growth (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013, p. 1).¹

When investigating corrective feedback, it is necessary to consider distinctions of implicitness and explicitness as this has caused much debate in this field of research, particularly regarding the effect of implicit versus explicit feedback on language learning. The present study has based degrees of explicitness on the

¹ This is something to be discussed further in sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3.

definitions set forth in Li's (2010) meta-analysis concerning the effectiveness of corrective feedback. In this, *implicit feedback* is defined as "any corrective move that does not overtly inform the learner of the unacceptability of his/her erroneous production" (Li, 2010, p. 337). Conversely, *explicit feedback* is defined as "any type of feedback that overtly indicated that the learner's L2 output was not acceptable" (Li, 2010, p. 323) and that draws the learner's attention to the error committed.

The distinction between explicit and implicit feedback can sometimes be difficult to make, as all feedback can be ambiguous, i.e. have some component of explicitness or implicitness to them. To exemplify, recasts do not directly point to the error of a student's utterance, but still provide the correct form.

2.2.2 Types of corrective feedback

Six types of corrective feedback are used in the present study. These will be presented below, and are identical to the categories Lyster and Ranta's (1997). The distinction between implicitness and explicitness for each type is based on Li's (2010) explanation, which was presented above.

Explicit correction clearly points out or states that a student's utterance is wrong or flawed. This type of corrective feedback is characterised by the provision of the correct form or answer to the student's erroneous utterance, such as if e.g. Tommy utters "I are going to school today", the teacher would reply "You should say *am*". Because this type of feedback overtly indicates that the utterance was not grammatically acceptable, it is considered explicit feedback.

Metalinguistic feedback is characterised by the provision of comments, information or questions related to the correctness of a student's utterance. This provision may come in the form of grammatical terminology, or by pointing out the nature of the error by eliciting information about its grammatical properties. For instance, if a girl utters "I want to be an actor", the teacher would reply "That is the masculine form of the word". Metalinguistic feedback can be ambiguous regarding explicit- or implicitness, but is in the present study considered explicit in conformance with Li's (2010) distinction. This type of feedback, although not explicitly providing the correct form, generally states that an error occurred in the student's utterance, thus making it explicit.

Recasts are a form of corrective feedback in which the teacher reformulates a student's erroneous utterance, but excludes the error in order to correct it. An example of such feedback could be if a student utters "She are nice", and the teacher reformulates the sentence by saying "She is nice". Recasts are generally implicit, in that they do not contain comments that explicitly point to the error.

Clarification requests are, like recasts, implicit because they do not explicitly point to the error or provide the correct form. This type of feedback indicates to the pupil that the utterance is incorrect in some way, or that the utterance was misunderstood. To exemplify, the teacher would say 'Pardon me' or 'What do you mean by...?' as a response to the error.

Elicitation, also an implicit feedback type, refers to the action of directly trying to elicit the correct form following an error, while not explicitly pointing to the error. This type of feedback is characterised by at least three techniques that teachers utilise in order to elicit the correct form. These may be in the form of questions, as in 'How do we say x in English?', in requests to complete the teacher's own utterance, as in 'It's a...', or alternatively asking the student to reformulate their own utterance.

Repetition, the final feedback type, is most commonly combined with other feedback types. However, it does appear in isolation in cases where the teacher repeats a student's error. It often appears with a slight adjustment in intonation so as to highlight the error. Repetition is implicit, as it does not provide the correct form to the student.

This sub-section has presented the six types of corrective feedback used in the present study, as defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997). The following sub-section will present results from different studies and meta-analyses on the effectiveness of corrective feedback, both in laboratory settings and in classroom settings.

2.2.3 The effects of corrective feedback on L2 development

Investigations into the effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback on L2 learning have been plentiful (e.g. Li, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster & Saito, 2010). However, in spite of the many endeavours in this field of research, studies have yet to yield evidence of definite connections between the provision of corrective feedback and actual language learning (Li, 2010). Still, the majority of the studies conducted have found links between corrective feedback and learner uptake, i.e. the

learner's noticing of or response to a corrected error, which in turn may facilitate or lead to language development (Li, 2010; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Moreover, there is general consensus in the field of SLA research that corrective feedback can positively affect second language development (Roothoof, 2014, p. 65). This will be discussed further in section 2.3.1.

Li's (2010) meta-analysis of studies concerning the effectiveness of corrective feedback concluded that explicit feedback (i.e. metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction) worked better short-term, while implicit feedback (i.e. recasts, clarification requests, elicitation and repetition) worked better long-term and therefore may be more robust. It should be noted, however, that many of the studies included in this meta-analysis were conducted in laboratory settings, and thus one must take precaution when generalising these findings to classroom settings. Lyster, Saito and Sato (2013) discuss differences in effectiveness when corrective feedback is provided in laboratory settings compared to when it is provided in classroom settings. Generally, corrective feedback has proven to be more effective on facilitating L2 learning when it appears isolated in laboratory settings, rather than when it is provided in classroom settings, where distractions tend to occur more frequently (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013; Li, 2010).

Many of the studies in this research area have investigated the differences between recasts and other types of feedback and their effects on and suitability for L2 development (e.g. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001). General patterns that have emerged on the basis of such studies are that feedback types that do not provide the correct form but rather prompts learners to self-correct by giving attention to errors in other ways (i.e. metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification requests and repetition) are more beneficial to second language development, because the act of self-correction leads to learners noticing the gap between their flawed interlanguage and the target language (Lochtman, 2002). Feedback types that provide the correct form, such as recasts, are generally considered more suitable to communication flow, because they are less disruptive (Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001). However, because of the implicitness of recasts, researchers state that learners may have difficulty noticing their correctional intent, an ability that is furthermore considered especially difficult for learners of low proficiency, which may mistake recasts as comments to meaning rather than comments to form (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada, 2001; Sheen, 2004).

Moreover, one must not neglect the importance of other variables influencing how effective corrective feedback is. These include learner abilities and proficiency levels, maturity and age, as well as learning aims, the context in which feedback is given and class sizes (Nicholas et al, 2001; Sheen, 2004). Kennedy (2010) investigated one ESL teacher's provision of corrective feedback to child ESL learners divided into two groups based on proficiency level. This study found differences in the types of errors produced by the two groups as well as differences in how the teacher treated errors, i.e. the type of corrective feedback provided to each group. In terms of error types, both groups mainly produced errors of form (Kennedy, 2010, p. 39). However, the low proficiency group produced more content errors than the mid/high proficiency group (Kennedy, 2010, p. 39). Kennedy (2010) explains that this may be a result of low proficiency learners having weaker abilities to understand oral English. In terms of the teacher's provision of feedback, "both groups received similar amounts of total feedback on errors of form" (Kennedy, 2010, p. 41). Moreover, the low proficiency group received more feedback providing the correct form (i.e. recasts), and the mid/high proficiency group received more prompts that did not provide the correct form (Kennedy, 2010, p. 41). Following correction, the mid/high proficiency group responded more often (i.e. uptake) than the low proficiency group.

Sheen (2008) investigated whether classroom language anxiety affected learners when corrected in the form of recasts and whether this anxiety would also affect how learners produced modified output following recasts. The findings of this study showed that recasts were only shown to be effective for low-anxiety learners (Sheen, 2008, p. 864). These learners produced high levels of modified output and more repair than the other group following recasts, thus "suggesting that language anxiety is a factor influencing not only whether recasts lead to modified output and repair but also whether they promote learning" (Sheen, 2008, p. 864).

2.2.4 Preferences and perceptions of corrective feedback

As this study is aimed at examining Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions about correcting oral output, it is prudent to include findings from studies that have investigated similar issues.

A significant number of studies investigating corrective feedback practices have found recasts to be the type that is most commonly used across a variety of

different teaching contexts (e.g. Brown, 2016; Roothoof, 2014; Sheen, 2004; Lyster et al, 2013; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Possible reasons as to why this is, as well as other studies concerning the frequency of corrective feedback, will be elaborated on in the following paragraphs.

Brown's (2016) very recent meta-analysis on the provision of oral corrective feedback in L2 classrooms shows more clearly the findings of contemporary research in this field of research. This meta-analysis found that the most commonly used feedback type is recasts (accounting for 57% of all corrective feedback) and that prompts were used 30% of the time (Brown, 2016, p. 436). Furthermore, this analysis showed that grammatical errors received the greatest proportion of corrective feedback, followed by lexical errors and phonological errors (Brown, 2016, p. 446). The analysis also suggests that there was a tendency to focus more on lexical errors and less on phonological errors the more teaching experience one has (Brown, 2016, p. 447). There was also a general tendency for moderating oral corrective feedback to contextual factors such as "student proficiency, teacher experience, and second/foreign language context" (Brown, 2016, p. 436). In terms of student proficiency, the meta-analysis found that adults and elementary-level students received similar amounts of recasts/prompts (Brown, 2016, p. 447).

Nikoopour and Zoghi (2014, p. 231) found that lexical errors received most corrective feedback, and furthermore that the feedback type most associated with these kinds of errors were explicit correction. Nikoopour and Zoghi (2014, p. 231) claim that this could be a result of a) learners' desire to having lexical errors rather than grammatical errors corrected, and b) that the learners in the present study were at intermediate levels of proficiency, thus were more motivated to be informed about their lexical errors. Furthermore, the researchers found that phonological and grammatical errors mostly received recasts and explicit correction. Lastly, they found that the feedback type that resulted in the greatest amount of learner uptake was elicitation.

Roothoof (2014) investigated the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs about oral corrective feedback and their actual practices. This study was conducted in Spain with teachers of adult EFL learners, and thus cannot be directly linked to the context of the present study. However, Roothoof's findings are important to the present study, as it is one of few that have investigated teachers' cognitions about corrective feedback in a Western European context. The results of this study showed

that overall, recasts were the most used feedback type, followed by explicit correction and elicitation. Feedback types such as clarification requests, repetitions and metalinguistic feedback were rarely observed (Roothoof, 2014, p. 70). Roothoof (2014) states that overall, the participants showed a preference for providing the correct form, i.e. through recasts or explicit correction, rather than using other feedback types in order to prompt the students to self-correct. Despite the fact that recasts were most commonly used, this type of corrective feedback was not considered the most preferable type of correction, thus showing a gap between practice and beliefs.

Four of the teachers believed that using prompts was more effective, two of the teachers preferred more indirect feedback because it is “constructive”, and the remaining four found that a combination of techniques might be best, and that the provision of feedback types depends on the student (Roothoof, 2014, p. 71). Moreover, Roothoof (2014, p. 70) found that most of the sample expressed concerns about student’s affective responses to correction and about interrupting the flow of communication, even though the entire sample believed that providing corrective feedback to improve the students’ oral production was important. The study also found that many of the teachers commented on the importance of promoting fluency and confidence, the students’ reactions and personality, and also the timing of giving feedback with regards to their beliefs about oral feedback. Interestingly, the sample saw too much corrective feedback as being incompatible with promoting fluency and confidence (Roothoof, 2014, p. 71). Moreover, the study found that many of the participants were not aware of the amount of feedback administered, though they had “clear opinions about how many and what kinds of errors they should focus on” (Roothoof, 2014, p. 74). The types of errors to receive attention were generally those that interfered with communication.

Furthermore, this study found that some teachers placed emphasis on their perceptions of their students’ individual personalities and feelings, which Roothoof (2014, p. 74) explains “leads some to opt for less intrusive and more indirect feedback-methods, even when they believe prompts to be more effective”. However, these beliefs were found not to be entirely consistent with the corrective practices. As Roothoof (2014, p. 74) states “most of these teachers far from neglect accuracy and provide feedback on a great number of their students’ mistakes, even if these do not obstruct communication”. Still, recasts, which interfere minimally with the students’

flow of conversations, were the most used feedback type (Roothoof, 2014, p. 74). Lastly, Roothoof (2014) concluded that doubts and difficulties occur when giving feedback, even though both students and teachers see this as part of a teacher's job.

Numrich's (1996) analysis of diary studies conducted with novice ESL teachers showed that initially, student teachers were preoccupied with creating safe and supportive learning environments, as they had benefitted from this in their own L2 learning (Nunan, 1996, p. 135). However, when examining this concern later, they realized that valuable language learning opportunities might have been neglected as a result of trying to create such an environment.

This study, similar to others, also found that the teachers would reject some and include some teaching techniques that they had found benefitted them in their own second language learning experiences. The techniques that were included were e.g. integrating a cultural component and giving students a need to communicate, whilst the techniques that were rejected were e.g. correcting errors and teaching grammar explicitly (Numrich, 1996, p. 138). Some in particular did not use error correction because they felt that this had "inhibited them from speaking" and "turned them off to language learning because they felt so humiliated and uncomfortable being corrected" (Numrich, 1996, p. 139). Several teachers stated that they did not want to "interrupt their students' flow of speech in the classroom" and thus chose not to correct errors (Numrich, 1996, p. 139). One teacher explained that he feared error correction might intimidate the students, or that his "correction might be wrong or too negative" (Numrich, 1996, p. 139). This particular teacher later realised that his students wanted to be corrected, but still felt "uneasy about correcting them" (Numrich, 1996, p. 139).

Mori (2011, p. 451), investigating the cognitions of two EFL teachers in Japan, found that these were engaged with promoting learners' "confidence, independence and the ability to communicate reasonably well" in their language teaching. With regards to providing corrective feedback, this depended somewhat on contextual factors such as "instructional focus, time constraints, the frequency of occurrence of errors, student personality, and the level of student communication ability" (Mori, 2011, p. 464). Furthermore, their "prior experiences as language learners and EFL professionals exerted a powerful influence on how they conceptualized CF" (Mori, 2011, p. 464).

Kamiya (2014) investigated the cognitions of four ESL teachers with varying degrees of experience. Generally, their beliefs about oral corrective feedback conformed well to their actual classrooms practices. However, the participating teachers did not evaluate oral corrective feedback as a very important part of their language teaching. Furthermore, the teachers emphasised creating a comfortable environment for the learners, and thus “refrained from using explicit correction which could potentially humiliate learners, and instead opted for a more implicit type of OCF, recasts” (Kamiya, 2014, p. 1). Moreover, in terms of cognitions and practice, “the most inexperienced teacher did not have any concrete ideas about OCF”, and one of the most experienced teachers showed discrepancies between cognitions and practice, thus “indicating that teaching experience cannot be exclusively relied upon as an indicator of classroom practice” (Kamiya, 2014, p. 1).

Finally, a study conducted by Noor, Aman, Mustaffa and Seong (2010) is worth noting in relation to providing feedback in general. These researchers examined Malaysian primary school teachers’ verbal feedback practices, and the study furthermore discussed the appropriateness and quality of verbal feedback. Noor et al (2010, p. 399) state that verbal feedback “should be seen as a constructive approach on [sic.] improving students’ performance”. The study emphasises that verbal feedback should “focus on concepts and facts rather than on the learner’s efforts” (Sadler, 1998), that too much feedback can be harmful to students’ learning (Hattie and Timperly, 2007), that feedback should be planned and specific (Herschell, Greco, Filcheck & McNeil, 2002), and lastly that feedback should be based on the principles of formative assessment, which includes focus on errors as well as what can be improved at a later stage (all citations and indirect citations in Noor et al, 2010, pp. 399-400). The findings of this study showed that corrective feedback was only used two times, both times by the same teacher (Noor et al, 2010). The type of verbal feedback most frequently used was evaluative feedback, which is essentially positive evidence. Noor et al (2010, p. 404) state that although this type of feedback is valuable to interaction because of its positive connotations, it does “not entirely provide support for learning”.

2.3 Second language teaching and learning

This section is aimed at creating a theoretical frame of reference for SLA teaching, as it will discuss theories of second language acquisition that support the use of corrective feedback. Furthermore, it will discuss practical discourses in Norwegian EFL teaching, which is valuable as these arguably influence the participating teachers' cognitions about correction pupils' oral language output.

2.3.1 Theories of second language acquisition

This sub-section will elaborate on theories of second language acquisition and development central to the themes of the present study. As this study is aimed at examining beliefs about corrective feedback and correcting oral language in general, it is relevant to examine theories which have recognised corrective feedback as important and valid, namely Long's *interaction hypothesis*, Swain's *comprehensible output hypothesis*, and Schmidt's *noticing hypothesis*. This section will also elaborate on the *interlanguage hypothesis*. However, in order to explain these theories properly, one must first examine some conflicting views.

In the 1980's, the general consensus in SLA research was that second language acquisition developed through a learner's innate abilities to acquire language, and thus that humans are born with a special language asset that is difficult or possibly useless to intervene with, what is more commonly referred to as the nativist perspective (Macaro, 2003, p. 24). Thus, the general belief was that the assets you were born with were more important than the environment you were interacting in. Researchers such as Stephen Krashen believed that language acquisition was an unconscious act and thus it was fruitless to try and teach e.g. grammar that the learner was not ready for (Macaro, 2003, p. 25). Krashen later developed the *comprehensible input hypothesis* which indicated that in order for learners to produce language output, the teacher needed only adapt language input roughly to the comprehension level of the learner (Macaro, 2003, p. 28). Furthermore, Krashen believed that as language acquisition follows a natural order imbedded in the learner's brain, the learner would "fill in the missing bits and understand any new language items" through the comprehensible input that was provided in the context (Macaro, 2003, p. 28). Krashen also stated that the only other necessary condition for language acquisition to take place was that the learner was

open and ready for acquisition, and thus had a low 'affective filter' (Macaro, 2003, p. 28).

The *interaction hypothesis* developed as a countermove to the comprehensible input hypothesis (Macaro, 2003, p. 184–85). Long, who developed the interaction hypothesis in 1983, basically agreed that comprehensible input was necessary for language acquisition, but believed that the learner would need to interact with other speakers in order to reach mutual comprehension of the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 43–44). This meant that one should not merely simplify language input to the learner's comprehension level, but rather work together in interaction in order to gain comprehension. This further meant that in order to reach comprehension, the interlocutors (i.e. the proficient or native speakers in the interaction) would make use of the interaction to spot ways of keeping the conversation going and thus make their input comprehensible (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 43). The logical assumptions underlying Long's original interaction hypothesis was that "interactional modification makes input comprehensible and comprehensible input promotes acquisition, therefore interactional modification promotes acquisition" (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 43). When Long revised the interaction hypothesis in 1996, the importance of modifying comprehension was maintained, but an increasing focus was placed on the importance of providing corrective feedback in interaction (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 44). The belief was that although cooperation in order to reach mutual comprehension is beneficial, difficulties will sometimes occur, thus the interlocutor must 'negotiate for meaning' for instance by providing feedback that will prompt the learner to adapt the output to make it comprehensible, thus "this negotiation is seen as the opportunity for language development" (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 44). This thinking is also linked to Swain's *comprehensible output hypothesis*, which includes the notion that when learners are prompted to produce output that is comprehensible to the other speaker, they will most likely be aware of the limits in their language production and thus "need to find better ways to express their meaning" (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 44). Swain suggested that the need to produce comprehensible output would thus "'push' learners ahead in their development" (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 44). As noted in section 2.2, there is general consensus that corrective feedback is a useful tool in prompting learners to self-correct and thus this "pushes" them ahead in their language development, as Swain suggests.

Another theory that aligns well with the beliefs central to corrective feedback research is Schmidt's *noticing hypothesis*. As this hypothesis states, "nothing is learned unless it has been noticed" (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 44). This does not necessarily mean that noticing will automatically lead to language acquisition, but it is considered an "essential starting point" (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 44). After experiencing that noticing of certain language features benefitted his own language learning, Schmidt stated that "second language learners could not begin to acquire a language feature until they had become aware of it in the input" (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 45). Embedded in this belief is that language learning begins to take place when learners notice features that are different from what they already know or expect (Gass, 1988 in Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 45). As was discussed earlier in this chapter, there is some dispute as to which types of corrective feedback are beneficial when it comes to noticing errors. Some say that feedback types that prompt learners into self-correction, such as clarification requests, elicitation, repetition and metalinguistic feedback or clues, are more suitable than those that provide the correct form following an error, such as recasts and explicit correction. However, as was also mentioned, the noticing of an error relies heavily on the learner's abilities, proficiency level, maturity and age, as well as on learning aims, context and class size.

Finally, this sub-section will elaborate on a theory that in many ways sums up the importance of providing corrective feedback, namely the *interlanguage hypothesis*. This hypothesis states that on the way to developing complete proficiency in the target language, the learner has an *interlanguage* that is comprised of characteristics influenced by previously learned languages, such as the L1, and some characteristics of the L2, i.e. of the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 80). Analyses of interlanguage have found that there are some shared general patterns, e.g. the omission of function words and grammatical morphemes. As such, one may say that an interlanguage is systematic, but is it also dynamic in that it continues to evolve as the learners receive more input and continue to change their understanding of the second, or target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 80). In order to avoid *fossilization* of the interlanguage, i.e. a standstill where certain features no longer develop, it is important to provide instruction and feedback so as to show differences between the features of the target language and the interlanguage (Lightbown & Spada, 2011, p. 80).

The above theories concerning second language acquisition have shown the benefits and importance of providing corrective feedback in order to develop learners' second language proficiency. The following sub-sections will focus on teaching English as a second language in the Norwegian context.

2.3.2 Proficiency aims in Norwegian primary and lower secondary schools

As the present study seeks to investigate Norwegian teachers' cognitions about correcting pupils' oral output, it is necessary to consider the framework to which they relate their corrections, i.e. the Norwegian competence aims for the English subject curriculum. This sub-section will thus present the main objectives of the current curriculum (LK06) as well as the competence aims for upper primary and lower secondary year levels. This sub-section will furthermore touch on which standards one should follow with regards to oral proficiency in an international perspective.

As the present study focuses on correcting oral language output, it is only necessary to investigate the parts of the curriculum reform that mention language learning and oral communication (speaking, listening and interacting). Generally, the language learning part of the curriculum reform focuses on the ability to spot differences between English and one's native language, knowledge about the language and its usage, and furthermore on insight into one's own language development (Utdanningsdirektoratet [Udir], 2013, p. 3). The part of the curriculum that covers oral communication involves the ability to understand and use the English language, to listen, speak and converse, and furthermore to apply suitable communication strategies (Udir, 2013, p. 3). This part also focuses on the importance of developing a vocabulary, and the ability to use idiomatic structures and grammatical patterns when speaking and conversing, and furthermore that one should learn to speak clearly and to use the proper intonation (Udir, 2013, p. 3). With regards to basic skills, the LK06 lists listening, speaking and interacting as central oral skills, and furthermore emphasises that the development of these should be characterised by "gradually using more precise and nuanced language in conversations and in other kinds of oral communication" (Udir, 2013, p. 5).

The first competence aims to be considered are those that pupils should master after year 7, thus this includes pupils in years 5, 6 and 7 of primary school. With regards to language learning pupils should be able to "describe his/her own

work in learning English” and “identify some linguistic similarities and differences between English and one’s native language” as well have the ability to use different learning strategies in reaching these aims (Udir, 2013, p. 7). With regards to oral communication, the competence aims focus on understanding vocabulary and the main content of oral texts, both related to familiar topics (Udir, 2013, p. 8). The aims also note the importance of adapting communication to different contexts, for instance by using “expressions of politeness and appropriate expressions for the situation” (Udir, 2013, p. 8). Lastly, the competence aims after year 7 regarding oral communication state that pupils should be able to “use basic patterns for pronunciation, intonation, word inflection and different types of sentences in communication” (Udir, 2013, p. 8).

The competence aims after year 10, concerning pupils in year 8, 9 and 10 of lower secondary school, are understandably more complex than the ones stated above. With regards to language learning, apart from the fact that pupils should employ learning methods and strategies suitable for their own language development, the competence aims state that pupils should be able to “comment on [their] own work in learning English” and furthermore to “identify significant linguistic similarities and differences between English and one’s native language and use this knowledge in one’s own language learning” (Udir, 2013, p. 8–9). With regards to oral communication, pupils should have the ability to “understand and use a general vocabulary related to different topics”, “listen to and understand variations of English from different authentic situations”, “express oneself fluently and coherently, suited to the purpose and situation”, “express and justify own opinions about different topics” and finally “use the central patterns for pronunciation, intonation, word inflection and different types of sentences in communication” (Udir, 2013, p. 9).

Based on the competence aims presented both after year 7 and year 10, it is evident that the expected accuracy in language output is higher after year 10. To exemplify, there is no mention of fluency or coherence with regards to oral communication for pupils in primary year levels. However, there is a common denominator in the competence aims for primary and lower secondary school pupils, namely the focus on being able to communicate, express opinions and taking responsibility for one’s own language learning by utilising different learning strategies suitable for the individual learner. The lack of explicitness in the competence aims, especially regarding grammatical accuracy, indicates that the act of communication is

regarded as more important than e.g. conjugating verbs correctly in oral speech. Still, there is little explanation in the competence aims as to what communicating well actually entails in a practical sense, but this is generally true for all the competence aims in the Knowledge Promotion reform. The only competence aim that suggests something of the like is that which states that pupils should be able to use basic patterns of the English language. However, in the introduction to the English subject curriculum, it is stated that in order to communicate in English, it is necessary to develop vocabulary and skills that conform with systems of the English language, hereby phonology, orthography, grammar, and sentence structures (Udir, 2003, p. 2). Furthermore, LK06 states that the basic skills of speaking, listening, interacting and conversing are key to oral communication. Still, there is little explicit explanation as to how well one should be able to e.g. speak or interact, only that these skills should gradually develop. This means that it is the teacher's task to evaluate how well a learner communicates based on the level of the pupils' acquired skills.

The prominent focus on the ability to communicate leads to the related question of what oral proficiency in English actually entails. To be more specific, what is a proficient speaker of English? One possible answer to this question is given in the introduction to the English language curriculum, which states that the English subject should "build up general language proficiency through listening, speaking, reading and writing" and thus develop communicative language skills (Udir, 2013, p. 2). This implies that if one can listen, speak, read and write in English, one will become a proficient speaker of English. Still, the question remains as to which standard one should follow when teaching oral English. This issue will be elaborated on in the following paragraphs.

The role of English

As the Knowledge Promotion reform states, English is a universal language that we encounter in many aspects of our lives, and thus we need English in order to communicate (Udir, 2013, p. 2). However, the Knowledge Promotion reform does not explain if communication involves solely relaying meaning or if it also includes speaking in a native-like and grammatically correct manner. When embarking on this question, one must first consider some ideas about the role of English in the world today.

English is a *lingua franca*, which means that it is a language that is used as common ground for speakers of different language backgrounds, be it domestically or internationally (Kirkpatrick, 2007). In an educational perspective, English has commonly been classified either as a native language (ENL), a second language (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL). ESL countries are traditionally those in which English has an official role but is not the primary language of the general population (Kirkpatrick, 2007). In contrast, EFL countries are traditionally those in which English does not have an official role, nor is usually spoken or written. As English is expanding rapidly across the globe, it is becoming increasingly difficult to determine the distinction between ESL and EFL countries. This is also true for the Norwegian context. To say that Norwegian learners are not faced with English on a daily basis would be false. This remark is supported by Munden (2014), who states that English is widely heard and spoken in Norway today. The expansion of social media arguably closes the gap between the language that pupils learn in school and the language they are faced with outside of school.

Kirkpatrick (2007) explains that many countries, Norway included, have chosen to teach English by an exonormative native speaker model, typically meaning a British or American standard variety. Generally, Kirkpatrick (2007) finds, this is due to the prestige and legitimacy these varieties bring. Kirkpatrick (2007) further argues that we tend to opt for a native variety of English because we are interested in portraying cultural backgrounds related to this variety when we teach, and further suggests, rather adamantly, that this choice also stems from linguistic prejudice. An exonormative model implies the benefit of being coded, i.e. having grammars, dictionaries and reference tools to follow, and more importantly being accepted as a standard model according to which learners can be tested and evaluated both domestically and internationally (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Moreover, by choosing an exonormative native speaker model, Governments can claim to ensure that their learners are taught an internationally recognised and intelligible variety (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Having a standard to follow in teaching English as a second language thus has its benefits, but this does not necessarily mean that teachers should aim to have their pupils produce native-like oral output. Munden (2014, p. 59) argues that instead of speaking in a native-like manner, pupils should aim to speak clearly and listen carefully. She further states that it is important for teachers to speak English even if their language is not perfect, so as to send a signal that “real communication is more

important than perfection” (Munden, 2014, p. 65). Kirkpatrick (2007, p. 189) states that the goal should be for learners to “communicate effectively across linguistic and cultural boundaries”, a belief which is also embedded in the Knowledge Promotion reform, and further supports that learners do not need to speak in a native-like manner. Finally, Munden (2014) suggests that because the English language is expanding rapidly across the globe, native speakers should adapt their speech and listening manner when communicating with a person who’s L1 is not English.

2.3.3 Teaching a second language in a Norwegian context

Norwegian curriculum reforms

As the present study investigates the cognitions of teachers with different levels (i.e. years) of experience, it is useful to consider how the teaching of Oral English has changed and developed during the past decades. In 1969, the Education Act set forth that all pupils had to learn English before entering lower secondary school. (Drew & Sørheim, 2009, p. 28). However, teaching of Oral English was more or less neglected because it was considered difficult to teach and because most teachers of this era possessed low oral proficiency (Drew & Sørheim, 2009). Later, when the M74 reform passed, more emphasis was placed on the importance of being able to understand and speak the English language (Drew & Sørheim, 2009). However, as the teaching methods of this era were primarily characterised by the grammar-translation method and the audio-lingual approach, more focus was placed on written skills, drills and learning by heart than on oral communicative skills (Drew & Sørheim 2009; Munden, 2014). As a result of these teaching methods language production was fairly unnatural, and less focus was placed on creative language production because, in many cases, pupils were told what to say (Drew & Sørheim 2009; Munden, 2014). Furthermore, as many teachers still lacked oral language skills, teaching methods were mostly restricted to the relatively safe methods of vocabulary testing, reading aloud and translation (Drew & Sørheim, 2009).

Thirteen years later, when the M87 curriculum reform passed, more emphasis was placed on real communication, which resulted in more focus on oral activities and creativity (Drew & Sørheim 2009). This reform also introduced the notion that learning was to be more learner-centred, and thus complexity and exercises were to be adjusted to each individual pupil. In contrast to the beliefs embedded some twenty

years earlier, where teachers were encouraged to correct errors at all times, errors in output were now seen as a natural part of the language learning process (Drew & Sørheim, 2009). Moreover, M87 had less focus on explicit grammar teaching and there was general consensus that pupils could learn to speak correctly without being taught every grammatical structure, and furthermore that a mechanical approach to language learning could undermine the communicative ability one was hoping to achieve (Drew & Sørheim 2009).

The L97 reform introduced some key features that can be recognised in the current curriculum reform (i.e. LK06). The focus on communication remained, but the new aim was that pupils should be able to communicate in English with people from other parts of the world, and to have knowledge about the diversity of language in different and real contexts (Drew & Sørheim, 2009). The teaching of English should enable pupils to use both oral and written English, and L97 considered varied language input through a diversity of texts as key to achieving this aim (Det Kongelige Kirke-, Utdannings- og Forskningsdepartementet [KKUF], 1996; Drew & Sørheim, 2009). Moreover, L97 placed a stronger emphasis than before on pupils taking responsibility for their own learning, which is clearly manifested in the aims for each year (KKUF, 1996).

The Knowledge Promotion reform (LK06) was introduced ten years ago, and set out to educate Norwegian learners as intellectual individuals that are part of a greater society. More so than its predecessor, it not only focuses on pupils taking responsibility for their own language learning, but also highlights the importance of developing learning strategies and methods suitable for the individual's needs (Udir, 2013). The main difference between the current curriculum reform and L97 is that LK06 employs more freedom in choosing between teaching methods and materials, as it has more general competence aims as opposed to L97, where aims and teaching materials for each year level were explicitly written down (KKUF, 1996; Udir, 2013). This means that the teacher's autonomy is not restricted and thus the teacher can choose to employ teaching strategies methods and materials that will benefit each individual pupil. Munden (2014) highlights the teacher's autonomy as a key characteristic of teaching in Norway today, and argues that there is no consensus as to which teaching method is best, generally due to the great focus on the individual learner's needs, skills and abilities. Didactical and pedagogical notions related to

teaching a second language, such as adapted education, scaffolding and the pupil as an agent, will be discussed in the following section.

Didactical and pedagogical aspects of second language teaching

As the Knowledge Promotion reform includes a strong emphasis on the individual learner's needs, it is necessary to consider the principle of adapted education. Adapted education can take many forms, but put simply the key is to adapt these forms, i.e. teaching methods, principles, materials, organisations and styles to the individual pupil's needs, abilities and proficiency level (Mikalsen & Sørheim, 2012). Mikalsen and Sørheim (2012) researched teachers' perceptions of and practices connected to adapted education. The researchers found that the respondents generally stress the importance of opportunity for success and achievement when teaching, as well as "adjusting the level of input and individualising the teaching to each pupil's needs" (Mikalsen & Sørheim, 2012, p. 195). Mikalsen and Sørheim (2012, p. 203) also found that generally, LK06 had made teachers more aware of different ways of implementing adapted education, in terms of varying both materials and methods. In a report published recently, Sandvik and Buland (2013) found that pupils experience the transition from primary to lower secondary school as quite challenging, one reason being that they are faced with new ways and forms of English teaching. According to Munden (2014), one of these new forms includes a greater emphasis on the ability to communicate orally in class. Sandvik and Buland (2013) emphasises the need to create a safe and supportive environment for pupils starting lower secondary school in order for them to continue exploring the English language. Munden (2014) suggests that teachers should try to implement teaching methods typical and more similar to lower secondary teaching in order to close this gap.

Mikalsen and Sørheim's (2013) study also found that the provision of feedback was also considered part of implementing adapted education. Some teachers explained that through close dialogue and interaction with pupils, they were able to come to a mutual understanding of the individual pupil's ability level and thus could give feedback based on this that would help them reach new goals (Mikalsen & Sørheim, 2012, p. 201). Some teachers also believed that "adapted education means everyone has something to strive for" (Mikalsen & Sørheim, 2012, p. 201). This is of

particular relevance to the next paragraphs, which will elaborate on the theories of the zone of proximal development and scaffolding.

Vygotsky's theory on the zone of proximal development entails that in every stage of a learner's development, problems occur that the learner is on the verge of mastering, and in such case, the teacher needs only provide structure and encouragement (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 76). However, some problems are out of reach for the learner to master himself, and this is explained as the zone of proximal development. In the zone of proximal development, the learner needs support from the teacher or from peers in order to solve the problems he encounters (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 76). Such support could for instance be presented as scaffolding.

Scaffolding is part of the socio-cultural perspective on learning (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 74). Although this theory does not explicitly apply to second language learning, it has commonly been used in describing the role of the teacher as a facilitator in helping learners to develop their language. Scaffolding essentially means that the teacher is to support and assist learners in their problem solving way of building knowledge, e.g. in their interlanguage on the path to becoming proficient speakers of English (Woolfolk, 2010). This support may consist of clues, examples, reminders, and encouragements or by dividing a problem into smaller parts that are comprehensible to the learner (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 74). Woolfolk (2010) notes that scaffolding needs to happen at the right time, under the right circumstances and in an appropriate scope. This may include adapting input and problems to the learner's abilities, demonstrating one's own skills and thought processes, guiding step-by-step through a complicated problem or helping to solve parts of a problem, giving detailed feedback and allowing the learner to try again, and lastly to ask questions that will draw the learner's attention to a different approach (Woolfolk, 2010, p. 76). These are all techniques that are comparable to many of the types of corrective feedback mentioned in section 2.2.2.

The last pedagogical aspect to be considered in relation to teaching a second language is learner motivation. Motivation is a complex notion, but can be defined as the internal force which drives our general behaviour in terms of our pursuits, decisions and efforts, and that furthermore lets us endure when faced with challenges. Drew and Sørheim (2009, p. 21) state that motivation is "probably one of the most important factors determining success in a second language". Learner motivation thus relies on the teacher's approach to materials and methods, and in

order to increase and maintain motivation it is necessary to create a “supportive atmosphere in which [the pupils] feel at ease” (Drew & Sørheim, 2009, p. 21). Lastly, Drew and Sørheim (2009, p. 22) explain, the teacher can contribute positively to learners’ motivation and self-confidence through “encouragement, guidance and constructive feedback”. With regards to the investigations of the present study, this raises questions as to how much emphasis one should place on speaking in a grammatically correct manner, how much one should correct, and furthermore which, if any, of the corrective feedback types will contribute to creating an environment in which pupils are motivated to learn English. The provision of oral error correction may influence pupils’ motivation or will to learn in a positive or negative manner, depending on the pupils’ standpoint and beliefs. However, it is not the aim of the present study to investigate if this is the case, but rather to investigate if the participating teachers believe that error correction may affect pupils’ motivation to learn.

The Norwegian teaching profession

Finally, the role of the teacher in second language teaching relates to a prominent issue in Norway today, namely the ongoing debate concerning the lack of acquired formal credits in the basic subjects of Norwegian, mathematics and English with practicing teachers. Many teachers, who are responsible for ensuring pupils’ subject development, do not hold the necessary subject matter knowledge acquired from formal education, and in the view of the current education minister, Torbjørn Røe Isaksen, Norwegian learners are suffering due to this lack of qualified teachers (Røe Isaksen, 2016). Røe Isaksen states that in addition to being an educator and a supervisor, the teacher must also possess a strong subject matter specialisation (Røe Isaksen, 2016). In an attempt to improve the quality of learning in Norwegian schools, the Norwegian Government has introduced a new demand stating that teachers need a minimum of 30 credits to teach a basic subject in primary school and a minimum of 60 credits to teach a basic subject in lower and upper secondary school, a demand which is to be fulfilled within the time limit of ten years (Ruud, 2015; Schjetne, 2014). Furthermore, students starting their professional training to become teachers in 2017 will be the first to embark on a teacher education that entails a compulsory Master’s degree (Røe Isaksen, 2016). The aim of this *competence lift* is to ensure that pupils learn more, and as Røe Isaksen states,

proficient and knowledgeable teachers are the single most important factor in achieving this aim (Røe Isaksen, 2016).

This issue is worth noting because it relates to the investigations made in this thesis. That is, to investigate knowledge and beliefs about correcting oral language output and the emphasis one should place on this aspect of teaching. Nine of the participating teachers in the present study do not hold any form of formal English education, and thus it is interesting to see if these teachers' cognitions differ significantly from the cognitions of those who do hold general language competence in a formal sense.

3. Method

3.1 Introduction

Historically, both qualitative and quantitative methods have been used in investigating language teacher cognitions. In recent years, a clear tendency for a mixed-method approach has emerged, combining the use of surveys and semi-structured interviews (Borg, 2012, p. 25). As the present thesis aimed at investigating the cognitions of several teachers rather than a few, the data were retrieved by means of a survey, in form of a questionnaire. A questionnaire is useful when the aim is to collect self-report data from individuals of a population, as is the aim of the present study (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 74). As described by Dörnyei and Csisér (2012, p. 74), the idea behind utilising surveys is that one can recognise and describe "the characteristics, opinions, attitudes and intended behaviours" of a large population based on questioning a fraction of that population. In the case of the present study, this method is used to collect data from thirty-one Norwegian teachers of EFL. The survey created did, however, include both quantitative and qualitative items, thus allowing the researcher to somewhat mimic the purpose of an interview.

This chapter will present and explain the methodological choices made in conducting the present study, and furthermore comment on certain aspects concerning its limitations, validity and reliability.

3.2 Research design

This section will present and discuss the content and structure of the instrument used for data collection, namely the questionnaire.

In designing the questionnaire, the following steps were taken in order to ensure validity and reliability, in accordance with the guidelines in Dörnyei & Csisér (2012). Firstly, the contents of the question items were theory driven, i.e. based on examples as defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and distinctions of explicitness and implicitness as defined by Li (2010). Secondly, variables critical to the research questions and hypotheses were addressed. To exemplify, this includes variables such as background data, preferences and opinions. Thirdly, the questionnaire was not too long and moreover did not cover items of peripheral interest (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 78).

In order to investigate the cognitions of Norwegian EFL teachers concerning oral language proficiency and language correction in general, and corrective feedback in particular, the questionnaire at hand was designed to cover of several types of evaluation. In addition to background data, which was later used to compare groups of teachers, the questionnaire included

- Several statements to be evaluated;
- A five-point Likert scale used to evaluate these statements;
- Two open-ended response items;
- A seven point rank of what the participants believed to be least correct (1) to most correct (7) with regards to using specific feedback types when teaching;
- Two question items of choosing the single feedback type found most appropriate or suitable and the three feedback types found most appropriate or suitable

The scales and items were mixed up in order to create a sense of variety and to prevent the respondents from simply repeating their evaluations (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 78). As most professional surveys primarily consist of closed-ended items such as a Likert scale, this was also utilised in the present study (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 76). However, as the sample was fairly small, the researcher could also

include two open-ended items, which served the purpose of eliciting deeper cognitions.

The questionnaire served several purposes, including eliciting responses as to what constitutes the general beliefs of the participants regarding oral correction and oral proficiency, eliciting specific preferences and beliefs towards corrective feedback, and also eliciting information about the educational backgrounds of the participants.

The design was mostly made up of statements to be evaluated. For each of the separate feedback types an example from a classroom situation including the particular feedback type was presented, as well as a statement, which was the following: "I would use this feedback type when teaching". The choice to include separate items for each feedback type was made in order to examine separate preferences (Ellis, 2009). As was the case with all the statements, the participants were asked to rate this according to a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5), where the option to be neutral was also included in order to not force the beliefs of the participants.

The other statements used were aimed at investigating more general beliefs towards oral language proficiency and correctness and the emphasis one should put on correcting pupils' oral language. This choice of design allowed the researcher to gain more insight into the participants' cognitions and, to a certain degree, analyse the beliefs underlying the preferences towards corrective feedback. The statements to be evaluated, and later commented on, were the following:

1. That pupils speak in a grammatically correct manner is important to me
2. In oral English practice, pupils should be made aware of all the errors they make

In order to elicit true, honest and somewhat concrete explanations, the statements were formulated somewhat provocatively. Needless to say, one should not make pupils aware of every error they make. Arguably, this is not the intention of corrective feedback, nor is it the view of this researcher. It is my belief that these statements elicited honest concrete cognitions compared to what more neutral, open-ended questions such as "What is your stance on correcting pupils' erroneous output?" would have elicited. Due to the length of the responses to these statements, as well

as their content concerning pedagogical discourse, the researcher further believes the use of these statements gave considered responses. The structure, and to some degree, the content of these statements were borrowed from an established questionnaire (i.e. Brown & Rodgers, 2014, p. 121), which makes the items more trustworthy as they have usually been through piloting and thus tend to have “a certain track record” (Dörnyei & Csisér 2012, p. 77).

The open-ended response items were used as tools in which the teachers could comment on and explain their evaluations of the above statements regarding oral proficiency and oral correction. In the case of these items, the participants were simply asked to explain their evaluations. If interviews had been conducted, the researcher would have had more of an opportunity to understand the stated beliefs underlying the participants’ cognitions about corrective feedback. The researcher would have had an opportunity to ask more about the participants’ past and education in order to understand the choices they make, and the beliefs they hold. However, the open-ended response items used in the present study do, to some extent, provide insight into the cognitions of Norwegian EFL teachers. Moreover, as explained previously, this design choice allowed the researcher to look at the cognitions of several teachers rather than a few.

Still, the use of interviews could perhaps have helped clear up the some of the slightly ambiguous overall evaluations of the feedback types. However, if these were to be conducted, one would lose the insurance of complete anonymity in the survey. This point will be further discussed in section 3.3.

In measuring and assessing abstract cognitions such as beliefs and attitudes, wording of the question as well as the use of different evaluation items is crucial (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, pp. 75–78). In all, four evaluation items were used for the various types of corrective feedback. This includes evaluation of statements by use of the Likert scale, evaluation of the feedback types considered least correct (1) to most correct (7) when teaching, and two closed-ended items where the participants were given options to first choose the one feedback type they found preferable, and subsequently choose the three feedback types to be most preferable. Four types of items were included with the purpose of gaining thorough overall evaluations of the different types of corrective feedback. To include only one evaluation item for each measurable factor, in this case for each feedback type, is risky, as one cannot fully rely on a single evaluation item being accurate (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 76). With

regards to smaller scale studies such as the present one, a minimum of four evaluation items is suggested (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 76). As a result, the present study utilised four items of evaluation of each feedback type, as well as evaluation of more general statements.

3.3 Data collection

This section will describe the process of collecting the data used in this thesis.

3.3.1 Sampling

When gathering participants for the present study, the following criteria were set:

- The participants needed to be practicing teachers of English as a foreign language in Norway
- The participants should have been practicing teachers of EFL for a minimum of six months;
- The participants should teach upper primary school (year levels 5 to 7) or lower secondary school (year levels 8 to 10).

These criteria are very broad, but they do reflect the second purpose of the study, namely to investigate cognitions of practicing EFL teachers in Norway that have different professional backgrounds. When recruiting teachers to participate in the present study, a non-probability sampling procedure was used. The opposite procedure to non-probability sampling is probability sampling, which is scientifically sound but also assumes complex and expensive procedures (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, pp. 80–81). Probability sampling is useful when one wishes to generalize the results found to the wider population (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p. 153). Non-probability sampling, on the other hand, will only investigate a particular group of the wider population, thus cannot make claims regarding generalization (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 153). This procedure is considered appropriate for smaller scale studies, where the researcher does not have the resources to collect a sample that is truly representative for the population in question (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 81; Cohen et al, 2011, p. 155). Instead, measures may be taken to achieve a “reasonably

representative sample while using resources that are within the means of the ordinary researcher” (Dörnyei & Czisér, 2012, p. 81). In the case of the present study, this includes what is commonly referred to as convenience or opportunity sampling. This means that when recruiting participants, the convenience and resources of the researcher was key (Dörnyei & Czisér, 2012, p. 81). Other factors that influenced the sampling were the participants’ availability at the time and if they held characteristics “related to the purpose of the investigation” (Dörnyei & Czisér, 2012, p. 81).

When collecting data, the researcher chose to call the heads of several schools as well as team leaders for primary and secondary years. The general idea was to gain permission in terms of the availability of their teachers. In turn, the researcher hoped that these leaders were to further information about the study and the questionnaire to relevant teachers who had the opportunity to participate. This process was time-consuming and did not yield enough participants, as many of the schools contacted were not interested in or able to participate. Furthermore, as the researcher had a limited known network of teachers to contact, a decision was made to use social media in the final stage of collection. In this respect, friends, family and fellow Master’s students of the researcher furthered the information about the questionnaire to possible participants. This approach yielded approximately ten of the participants included in the final sample.

3.3.2 Ethical considerations

When asked to participate in the study, the teachers were given complete freedom in deciding to participate, and they were also given the opportunity to withdraw at any given time. Out of the forty-two participants who initially responded to the questionnaire, only thirty-one completed it. Furthermore, the participants were given insurances that their participation would be completely anonymous. Data collection for this study was carried out by means of an online questionnaire. The participants were anonymised by the software used. This meant that the researcher did not gain any access to the participants and could not trace them on the basis of the information given from the site, such as IP addresses. Furthermore, the background information received about each participant was not considered to be enough to discover the identities of the participants.

After data collection was completed, information and further data were deleted from the website. The data retrieved from the questionnaire were safely stored at a password-protected personal computer. After the necessary analyses were completed, the data were permanently deleted from the computer.

3.3.3 Limitations

There are some limitations to the method used and the data collection, which will be discussed below.

In the case where the participants were asked to choose the three feedback types found most preferable, the formulation could have been clearer. Out of the thirty-one participants, only thirteen chose three feedback types, while five participants chose two feedback types and the remaining thirteen chose one feedback type. As is evident from the results, one can speculate if the participants understood that they were to choose three alternatives, rather than up to three alternatives. This leads to questioning whether this question item actually elicited valid results. If a pilot study had been conducted, this problem might have been avoided. However, such “errors” are strongly reliant on personal understanding, thus a pilot study could not ensure to a strong degree that it would have been avoided.

The second limitation to be discussed is that which occurred towards the end of the data collection process. Whilst the use of social media can be productive in terms of collecting a sufficient number of participants, the prominent question is whether the respondents were actually practicing teachers of EFL in Norway. As the questionnaire was set up to be completely anonymous for ethical reasons, one cannot validate that all the respondents fit the criteria specified in section 3.3.1. However, the researcher paid close attention to the data collected after distributing the questionnaire via social media. It is the belief of the researcher that these data, both in terms of background information and the qualitative results, were in fact given by practicing teachers of EFL. The background information was highly specific with regards to e.g. type of education, years of education, year of completion of education and years of teaching practice. The latter two conformed well to one another. In terms of the qualitative results, these were specific but also grounded in pedagogical discourse. Moreover, when one chooses to employ complete anonymity, one can never be a hundred per cent certain that the target population is being met.

The third limitation is that of the research design. In hindsight, the researcher found that if the participants had been given the opportunity to comment on their perceptions of each individual feedback type, as opposed to merely showing their preferences towards these, this study would have yielded a clearer view on the processes behind providing certain types of corrective feedback.

3.4 Processing and analysis

3.4.1 Preparing the data

After data were collected, each participant was labelled according to gender (male or female) and the order in which they appeared in the raw data, e.g. F1 for the first female who responded and so on. Furthermore, the participants' background data were sorted and labelled according to formal English education, years of teaching experience and current teaching of year level. In terms of education, the participants were grouped according to acquired credits in University-level English. The participants holding no formal credits were placed in one group, the participants with 15 to 30 credits in the second group, the participants with 60 credits in the third group, and the participants with more than 75 credits in the final group. The choice was made to separate those of no credits and those of 15 to 30 credits, as some amount of credits arguably could have an effect on cognitions. With regards to experience, the participants were grouped as novice (0.5 to 4 years), experienced (7 to 12 years) and very experienced (16 to 25 years). These groupings were based on previous research (e.g. Sharabyan, 2011; Borg, 2006). The respondents were also grouped according to the year level taught. Primary school teachers (year levels 5 to 7) were grouped as one, and secondary school teachers (year levels 8 to 10) as one.

3.4.2 Coding

With regards to the qualitative data, the first step was to translate the results of the open-ended items. As translation from one language to another is to a great extent a personal and individual matter, translation of the free-response results in the present study was re-done by a fellow master's student and later cross-checked. The second translator translated the results, which were written in Norwegian, without having seen the researcher's translations. The two attempts at translations were then

compared and rated according to similarity. The initial translations resulted in an agreement of 78.3%. The main dissimilarities had to do with vocabulary rather than structure. To exemplify, one chose to translate to 'mistakes' and the other to 'errors'. The two attempts at translations were later combined in order to ensure reliability.

In coding the qualitative data, the researcher read through the translated results in order to look for general tendencies or recurring themes. These, which will be presented in chapter 4, allowed for investigation of recurring pedagogical concerns in the cognitions of the participating teachers. To exemplify, one theme commonly found was that of *adapted education*. This included that the teachers would adapt their focus to the individual pupil in ascertaining the degree in which to focus on accuracy and correction. Thorough explanations of all the themes are available in appendix 8.4. In order to ensure reliable data and avoid researcher bias, a fellow master's student was asked to code the participants' qualitative answers into the pre-selected themes created by the researcher. Descriptions of each theme as well as what the researcher regarded the theme to include were given to the second rater. After the second rater had finished, the findings of themes were compared. The initial calculations of themes regarding the first general statement, "That pupils speak in a grammatically correct manner is important to me", resulted in an agreement of 46.4%.

The same process was made for the second general statement, i.e. "In oral English practice, pupils should be made aware of all the errors they make". Initial calculations made for this item resulted in an agreement of 49.5%.

As the researcher's and the second rater's choices only matched by approximately half for both question items, the researcher re-evaluated her initial findings of themes to those of the second rater's, and to some degree merged the two. This resulted in an agreement of 83.5% for the first statement and 79.8% agreement for the second statement.

As for the quantitative data, the raw data were re-written from containing examples of feedback types to the actual feedback types. Furthermore, the feedback types were coded as implicit or explicit based on distinctions by Li (2010). This allowed the researcher to examine general tendencies, and it also laid the base for the following calculations.

The coding of the Likert scale data was fairly straightforward, as the scales were designed beforehand. As such, the website used to create the questionnaire

elicited percentages for each item. This was also the case for the rank order and for the preferences towards one and three feedback types respectively. In order to present measures of central tendency, the data were written down in Excel and calculations of medians and modes were made. These measures were taken for the complete sample as well as for the individual groups.

3.4.3 Tests of significance

In Borg's (2012) investigation of contemporary studies of teacher cognition, it was found that only a fraction of these studies included measures of inferential statistics such as tests of statistical significance. Borg (2012, p. 26) states that this is a weakness in this field of research. As a result, the present study utilised such measures with the aim to provide reliable results that, to some degree, could be checked and replicated.

In order to investigate differences between the groups in question, then, tests of statistical significance were conducted. Furthermore, these tests were conducted in order to avoid researcher bias, which in the case of the present study includes trusting results of other studies on teacher's cognitions and corrective feedback, as well as basing assumptions and final results solely on the descriptive statistics set forth.

As the data did not follow a normal curve of distribution, nonparametric tests were applied. For both tests the alpha level, i.e. "the predetermined cut-off point for establishing statistical significance" (Larson-Hall, 2012, p. 247), was set at 0.05.

When comparing two samples in terms of differences in feedback evaluations, e.g. primary and secondary teachers, the Mann-Whitney U test of significance was used. The Mann-Whitney U test compares "the number of times a score from one sample is ranked higher than a score from the other sample" (Bryman & Cramer, 1990, p. 129 as quoted in Cohen et al, 2011, p. 655).

When three or more samples (groups) were compared, the Kruskal-Wallis test of significance was applied. The Kruskal-Wallis test is an analysis of variance, and is very similar to the Mann-Whitney U test as this is also based on rankings (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 659). The Kruskal-Wallis test is appropriate when one is to compare three or more independent samples of different sizes, and the main objective of the test is to measure the difference in medians of the samples in question.

In calculating p-values, XLSTAT and Graph Prism 7 were used.

3.5 Validity and reliability

Threats to validity and reliability can never be completely removed, but one can take certain measures by giving attention to these threats through the course of the research (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 179). It is the belief of the researcher that necessary measures concerning data collection and analysis were taken in order to ensure valid and reliable results.

3.5.1 Validity

Validity has generally been categorized as the appropriateness of the instrument in yielding results, or more specifically, if the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 179). In the case of the present study, the question is thus if the questionnaire has in fact measured cognitions regarding correct oral proficiency and corrective feedback. In recent years, validity has taken on additional forms, for instance the honesty and richness of qualitative data, the objectivity of the researcher, and appropriate statistical treatments in the case of quantitative data (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 179).

Validity can further be divided as internal or external. A study's internal validity concerns whether the presented findings, discussions and conclusions can truly be sustained by the data, and furthermore, whether the findings accurately describe the phenomena being researched (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 183).

In terms of quantitative data, this may include what is referred to as type I and type II errors. The former means that one finds a statistically significant result where no such relation exists, and the latter include not finding statistically significant results where these actually exist (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 184). As part of the analyses, statistical tests of significance were conducted, as explained in section 3.4.3. In order to avoid such errors, the researcher has trusted the calculated p-values, test statistics and (in the Kruskal-Wallis tests) degrees of freedom and rendered differences as statistically significant if these did not exceed the alpha level (0.05).

Regarding qualitative data, the degree of internal validity is based on authenticity, the amounts of evidence required, and descriptiveness. In terms of authenticity and descriptiveness, the researcher made efforts to report as accurate

results as possible in translating the qualitative data, as discussed in section 3.4.2. As for the amount of evidence required, one may speculate whether two open-ended items were sufficient in examining cognitions.

Furthermore, in order to ensure validity, the following measures were taken regarding data collection and analysis:

- The instrument was designed in a such a way that it comprehensively covered all the items it was supposed to cover
- Constructs were operationalized in the form of using preferences, agreement and opinions
- Both the design and later coding were theory driven
- Researcher bias was avoided by utilizing a second rater for translation and coding, as well as calculating tests of statistical significance

3.5.2 Reliability

Reliability concerns the degree to which a study's results are consistent if re-examined by a second researcher (internal validity) or if one were to replicate the method using a similar context (external validity) (Brown & Rodgers, 2014, p. 241). Reliability also tells us whether the results are dependable, accurate and precise (Cohen et al, 2011). In quantitative research, reliability often concerns stability, equivalence and internal consistency (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 200). Measures of stability means that if one were to re-investigate the results of a sample using the same instrument, these would be the same over time. However, in researching language teacher cognition, this may not apply, as cognitions have been known to change if they are made explicit and reflected upon. In terms of equivalence, reliable data may be achieved through inter-rater reliability (Cohen et al, 2011, p. 200). With regards to the present study, this was achieved by allowing a second rater to categorise the qualitative data into themes, as was discussed above. The same process was, as mentioned, made for the translations of the qualitative results. Both of these measures helped strengthen the internal reliability.

3.5.3 Generalizability

The appropriate sample sizes for quantitative studies such as the present depends on the aims of the study, but generally, one go by the “the larger, the better” principle (Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 82). However, Hatch and Lazaraton (1991, as quoted in Dörnyei & Csisér, 2012, p. 82) has offered a rule of thumb, namely that one should aim to include thirty or more participants. As Dörnyei & Csisér (2012, p. 82) state, a smaller sample size can be compensated for by the use of non-parametric tests.

After eliminating incomplete data, i.e. the results from the participants who did not finish the questionnaire, the complete sample of this study consisted of thirty-one participants. However, the samples used when conducting statistical tests were grouped from the complete sample, and as such consisted of 4 to 14 participants. Moreover, few of the tests rendered statistically significant differences. Therefore, the results of differences between groups of teachers can hardly be generalised to the larger population.

As mentioned above, this study used non-probability sampling, thus the aim was not to be able to generalize the results to the larger population of EFL teachers in Norway, but merely to study cognitions of one part of the population.

3.6 Summary

This chapter has given an overview of the research design, data sampling, ethical considerations, limitations and analyses of the present study. Furthermore, it has aimed to explain considerations with regards to the study’s validity and reliability. In the following chapter, the results of data collection and analyses will be presented.

4. Results

This chapter will present the results retrieved of the investigation carried out in this Master’s thesis. Firstly, the results regarding research question 1 will be presented. These represent the results derived from the complete sample, including the qualitative part of the results, i.e. the answers given to the open-response items regarding oral language proficiency and oral correctness as well as a categorisation of themes retrieved from these results. Furthermore, evaluations of all the feedback types will be presented. Secondly, in light of research question 2, the results of the

different groups will be presented, including comparisons of these. Moreover, this chapter will report percentages, measures of central tendencies such as medians and modes, as well as tests of statistical significance calculated using the Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests. Lastly, patterns that emerged during data analysis will be discussed.

4.1 Stated beliefs about correcting oral language output

This section will present and examine the results regarding research question 1, where the main objective was to examine the cognitions of the entire sample. The sample consisted of 31 participants, out of which the majority (23) were female and the minority (eight) were male. The participants ranged from 23 to 52 years of age. The participants' years of teaching experience ranged from six months to 25 years, and formal English credits from 0 to in excess of 75 credits. Furthermore, the sample was evenly distributed between teachers of primary and secondary year levels (primary: fifteen, secondary: fifteen), but one participant was left out in comparison of cognitions as she taught both primary and lower secondary year levels.

The first research question to be investigated was the following:

What characterises Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions regarding oral grammatical proficiency and correcting oral language output?

How do Norwegian EFL teachers evaluate different types of corrective feedback?

This thus set out to examine the state of Norwegian teachers' cognitions about correcting language and their general preferences towards the different types of corrective feedback. Consequently, this research question included the entire sample and did not aim to look at differences between certain groups of teachers, as was the aim of the second research question. Furthermore, this research question included three components: 1) Stated beliefs concerning oral language proficiency and correcting language, 2) evaluation of and preferences towards the six types of corrective feedback, and 3) general preferences towards implicit or explicit feedback.

4.1.1 Open-response answers

In order to gain a more nuanced look into the cognitions of the participating teachers' cognitions about corrective behaviour (feedback), the participants were asked to evaluate two statements regarding oral grammatical correctness and correcting

pupils' oral language with the help of a Likert scale. In addition, the participants were asked to explain their reasons as to why they evaluated the statements in a particular way. The following sub-sections will present the results of these evaluations as well as a categorisation of the participants' explanations to these.

Speaking in a grammatically correct manner

The first statement to be evaluated was as follows:

That pupils speak in a grammatically correct manner is important to me.

Participants: 31
- (0.0%): 1 Strongly disagree
8 (25.8%): 2 Disagree
10 (32.3%): 3 Neither agree nor disagree
13 (41.9%): 4 Agree
- (0.0%): 5 Strongly agree

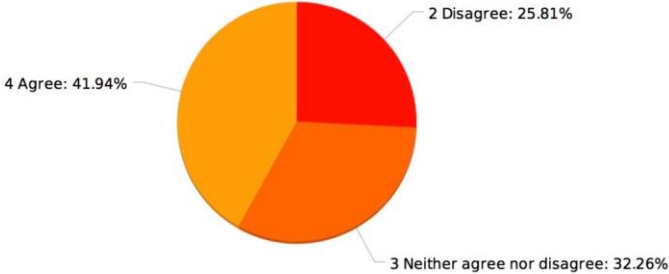


Figure 1: Speaking in a grammatically correct manner

Figure 1 illustrates the participants' evaluations of the statement above. 41.9% of the participants stated that they agreed with the statement, while 32.3% neither agreed nor disagreed. 25.8% of the participants disagreed with the statement. None of the participants strongly agreed nor disagreed with the statement.

The participants' explanations of their evaluation of the above statement have been categorised into themes. Each explanation could include elements of more than one theme. Figure 2 below presents the themes found in these explanations.

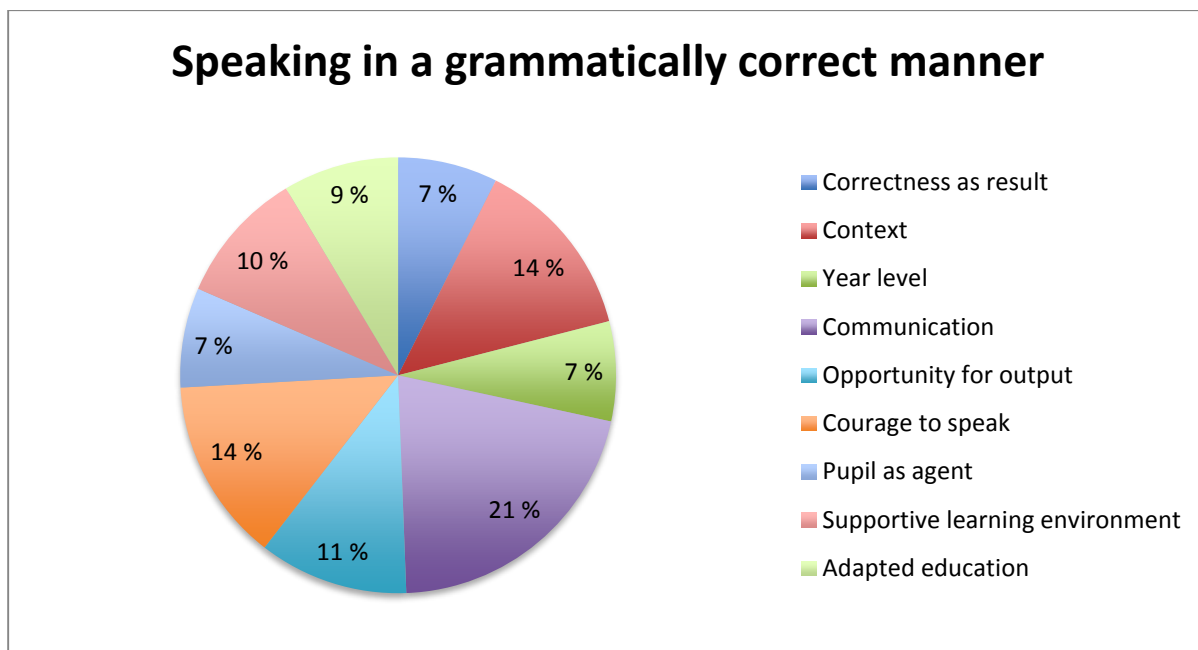


Figure 2: Themes derived from qualitative data (speaking in a grammatically correct manner)

Figure 2 illustrates the percentages of themes found in the qualitative results regarding the statement discussed above. 21% of the participants' explanations included the theme of communication. In short, this theme is explained as the teacher placing emphasis on being able to communicate well as the key factor in oral language learning. In turn, this means that the teachers focuses on being able to make oneself understood rather than to speak in a flawless manner. One participant who agreed with the above statement, explained:

The purpose of language is communication. Correct grammar is only on occasion important in order to communicate. Erroneous uses of grammar will only on relatively rare occasions contribute to misunderstandings between the sender and the recipient. However, faulty grammar leads to disturbances that steal attention. In addition, one may be taken less seriously.

(Participant M3, appendix 8.3).

The second most common themes found with regards to the statement of speaking in a grammatically correct manner are 'context' and 'courage to speak'. With regards to context, the teachers explain that the importance of oral correctness depends on the context in which the learner is speaking. Two participants emphasised that language output should be correct in settings where the pupils are formally evaluated, such as

in exams, and further noted that in informal settings or in classroom discussions, correct output was not as important (Participants F7 and F9, appendix 8.3).

The courage to speak theme includes teachers emphasising that daring to speak is an important factor in oral language learning, and that speaking in a grammatically correct manner should not affect this. One participant stated “If the focus rests too heavily on the grammar, the pupils will be hesitant to speak” (Participant M7, appendix 8.3), while a second participant stated that “to have the courage to speak is more important than speaking in a grammatically correct manner” (Participant F1, appendix 8.3). Another participants’ response was the following:

Many pupils dread speaking English in class because they are afraid of making errors. My aim is first to encourage them to DARE to speak and use the language actively. In turn, one can work on achieving grammatically correct output. If the pupils are exposed to read-aloud texts, parts of films and dramatization, the language will develop naturally [...]. My main focus is nevertheless; use the language! If one conjugates a word or two incorrectly, chances are one will still be understood by a native speaker of English.

(Participant F23, appendix 8.3).

This response embodies several themes, including ‘courage to speak’, ‘supportive learning environment’, ‘opportunity for output’ and ‘correctness as a result’. With regards to supportive learning environment, one secondary teacher explained the importance of letting pupils “explore and play with the language is a supportive arena, with possibilities for making mistakes and receiving constructive feedback” (Participant M5, appendix 8.3). Opportunity for output closely resembles that of courage to speak. However, the difference lies in the teacher, as s/he facilitates an environment where the pupils have the opportunity to speak as much English as possible. 7% of the responses to the above statement include that of ‘correctness as a result’. This theme was created as several of the participants stated that grammar and oral proficiency would come as a result of input and practice.

7% of the responses also included the theme ‘year level’. This theme embodies that the participants would distinguish the degree of corrective feedback

and the degree of focus on oral correctness based on which year level they teach. One teacher explained

Considering that I teach 5th grade, I cannot expect pupils to speak English in a grammatically correct manner. I want to create an interest for trying to speak rather than create barriers.

(Participant F3, appendix 8.3).

A second primary level teacher explained

Oral language should gradually be characterised by correct use of grammar. At this level, however, it is more important that the pupils are able to orally use the vocabulary they have. One may correct some of the more proficient pupils in this manner.

(Participant F16, appendix 8.3).

The last sentence in this participants' explanation leads to the two remaining themes found, namely 'pupil as agent' and 'adapted education'. These themes are quite similar, but the first theme concerns the knowledge the teacher has about each individual pupil and his/her needs and background, whilst adapted education also includes utilisation of different teaching methods. One participant explains the 'pupil as agent' theme well:

I basically agree that pupils should speak in a grammatically correct manner. However, I don't want to be completely rigid, as a large number of pupils have aversion towards English, and there must be some wiggle room for errors that do not affect the meaning [of the utterance].

(Participant M2, appendix 8.3).

A second participant emphasised the fact that some pupils struggle with acquiring a new language, and as such need a bit more wiggle room in terms of how correctly they speak (Participant 20, appendix 8.3). Other participants explained that they would adapt the degree of feedback to the pupils' curricular knowledge and proficiency. One of the secondary school teachers explained that "if I am confident

that the pupil will be able to handle feedback regarding errors, I will guide his/her attention to it [the error]” (Participant M8, appendix 8.3).

An aspect to be noted is that some participants regard vocabulary, pronunciation and intonation as more important than grammar with regards to oral proficiency. One participant even stated “I have nearly completely abandoned teaching grammar” (Participant M6, appendix 8.3), presumably explicitly.

The following statement, which emphasises many of the aspects discussed above, may serve to sum up the evaluations of speaking in a grammatically correct manner.

Good [suitable] feedback helps the pupil to acquire a more precise language. A good foundation is important. That the pupils want to speak even if the grammar is not always correct is also important. It is important to practice the language orally and to be active without constantly being interrupted. Good communication situations with lots of oral pupil activity are at least as important as the teacher’s feedback on one specific word.

(Participant F15, appendix 8.3).

Correcting pupils’ oral language

The second statement to be evaluated was the following:

Pupils should be made aware of all errors they make in oral English practice.

- Participants: 31
- 7 (22.6%): 1 Strongly disagree
- 17 (54.8%): 2 Disagree
- 4 (12.9%): 3 Neither agree nor disagree
- 3 (9.7%): 4 Agree
- (0.0%): 5 Strongly agree

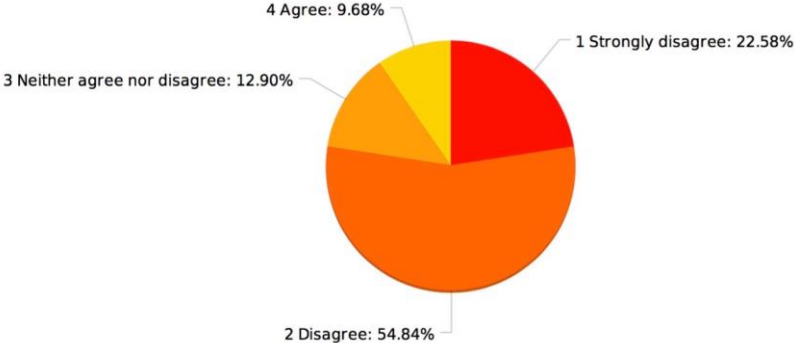


Figure 3: Attention to all errors

Figure 3 illustrates the participants' evaluation of the second statement. The results regarding this statement are slightly more nuanced than the former. However, the large majority of the participants disagreed with the statement: 54.8% disagreed, while 22.6% strongly disagreed. 12.9% neither agreed nor disagreed, while only 9.7% agreed with the statement. None of the participants strongly agreed.

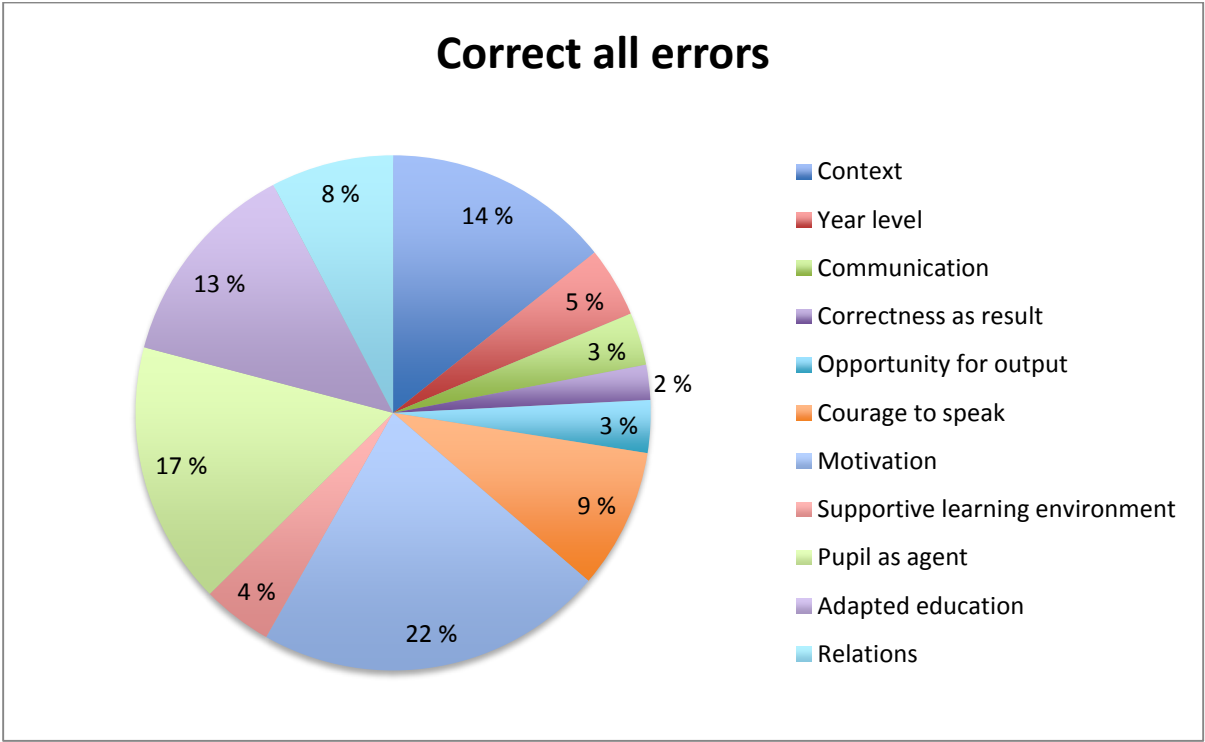


Figure 4: Themes derived from qualitative data (attention to all errors)

Figure 4 illustrates the themes found in the participants' responses to the statement of correcting all errors. The majority of the themes found in these responses match those of the former statement. However, two themes have been added, namely 'motivation' and 'relations'.

The theme of motivation was created as many of the participants seemed distressed by the statement of correcting all errors, and explained that error correction should be adapted so that it does not have a negative effect on the pupils' motivation, will to learn or confidence. One of the participants stated

Pupils should in no way be made aware of every error they make, regardless of teaching subject. Of course, they should be made aware of errors in order to learn these properly, but in my experience a strong focus on errors with regards to oral

communication is not beneficial. Many pupils experience that speaking a lot of English is scary, and too much correction will not help them.

(Participant F22, appendix 8.3)

A second participant explains that having all errors pointed out can have a demoralising effect (participant M4, appendix 8.3). A third participant believes that pupils should be made aware of the most severe errors, but to point out every error at the same time will possibly destroy their motivation (Participant M8, appendix 8.3). Another participant states “that one should not kill all motivation is self-explanatory” (Participant F13, appendix 8.3).

The other new theme found was, as mentioned, relations. One teacher’s response embodies several themes, including relations. The participant explains

Few people manage to focus on ‘all the errors’ they make at once. This may hinder the meaning of the utterance, and also remove some of the joy of communicating, namely receiving responses to the utterance. One may well respond to ‘all’ the grammatical errors pupils make. This way, they get a lot of concrete feedback that they can relate to. The problem, however, is that one focuses too much on the flaws. In addition, one must take the relationship one has with the pupil into account. Some pupils take poorly to errors being pointed out.

(Participant M3, appendix 8.3).

In terms of context, one participant explains that he only corrects errors that occur consistently. Furthermore, he states “pupils are often interested in as concrete feedback as possible” (Participant M6, appendix 8.3).

Regarding the themes of pupil as agent, adapted education and relations, one teacher explains:

Pupils must sometimes be made aware of the errors they make, but not always and not every time. It is the teacher’s job to know the pupil and to understand when correction is preferable. Some pupils take well to feedback often, while others become passive by being corrected.

(Participant M7, appendix 8.3).

A primary teacher states

It is more important to try to speak than what is being said is entirely correct. I do not want to embarrass anyone by pointing out his or her errors in front of the class, but if pupils have the ability and knowledge to understand, I can point out their errors one-on-one.

(Participant F1, appendix 8.3).

This participant further explains that she will correct errors relating to topics they have recently worked on. She also states “it is a shame to interrupt when a pupil is in the middle of a presentation or similar. In such cases, I will tell them afterwards”.

A second primary school teacher states that to correct all errors will “prevent or discourage them from speaking English. They will dread taking initiative towards me” (Participant F4, appendix 8.3).

Some participants also mention more general aspects of teaching with regards to their evaluation of the statement. One teacher mentions formative assessment as an opportunity when faced with errors. The participant explains that the formative assessment should include positive aspects and improvable aspects, and further states that this assessment “should be limited, ensuring that the pupil isn’t overwhelmed or discouraged” (Participant F12, appendix 8.3). Another participant states that she has no positive experienced with correcting all errors. She emphasises that pupils learn best when experiencing comprehension and, thus, “the teacher should choose what to give feedback on depending on focus, assessment criteria and each pupil’s curricular knowledge and abilities” (Participant F15, appendix 8.3).

Finally, one participant states:

It is more important to discover tendencies in the error made, so that the pupils can work systematically at understanding these. To get stuck on word-by-word or sentence-by-sentence without understanding the big picture does little use.

(Participant F14, appendix 8.3).

To sum up, many of the participants state that they differentiate and adapt the amount of feedback based on the pupil’s proficiency level, and furthermore focus on

correcting the most severe grammatical errors. It is somewhat unclear what is meant by 'the most severe errors'; however, many explain that these are related to topics that they have explicitly worked on in class. As is evident from the percentages shown in figure 4, many also consider the pupils' motivation when choosing to correct errors. The general consensus is that the teachers do not want to discourage the pupils, and moreover, do not want to correct in a manner that will lead to less oral activity.

4.1.2 Corrective feedback

This sub-section includes the results of four types of evaluations. Firstly, the respondents were asked to evaluate a statement aimed at ascertaining the degree to which they would use a specific feedback type when teaching. These evaluations were made separately for each feedback type in the form of a Likert scale. Secondly, the feedback types were evaluated collectively in a 1 to 7 rank order, where 1 equalled least correct and 7 equalled most correct in the views of the participating teachers. Thirdly, when presenting the feedback types collectively, the participants were asked to choose the one they found most preferable. Later, the participants were asked to choose three feedback types in the same manner. This sub-section will thus present the separate results for each type of corrective feedback according to a Likert scale. It will also show how these feedback types were evaluated when appearing collectively.

The feedback types below are presented according to their degrees of explicitness/implicitness. The two explicit feedback types will appear before the four implicit feedback types.

Explicit correction

The participants were presented with a scenario in which explicit correction appeared, and asked evaluate the following statement:

I would use this feedback type when teaching.

Participants: 31

7 (22.6%): 1 Strongly disagree

9 (29.0%): 2 Disagree

5 (16.1%): 3 Neither agree nor disagree

10 (32.3%): 4 Agree

- (0.0%): 5 Strongly agree

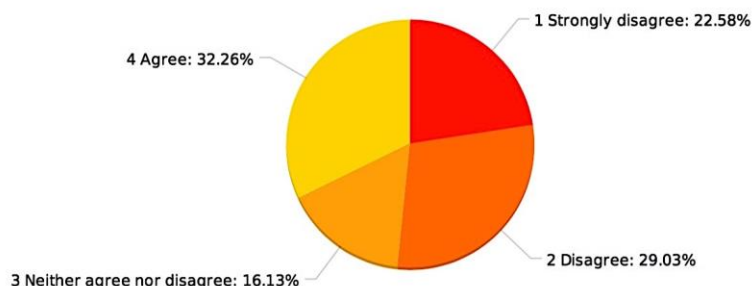


Figure 5: Explicit correction according to the Likert scale

As figure 5 shows, 29.03% of the participants disagreed with the statement concerning use of explicit correction (an explicit type of corrective feedback), and 22.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed. 32.3% of the participants stated that they agreed with using explicit correction. However, it must be noted here that one of the participants who evaluated explicit correction as '4 Agree' noted later that she would rather "have asked if we could use another word for 'land' in English" (appendix 8.2), which in essence is the feedback type elicitation. Whether this participant's evaluation of explicit correction is valid could thus be debated. Moreover, one participant who stated that she '2 Disagreed' with this feedback type noted "I would be careful using this form of correction in front of other pupils in the classroom. In front of other pupils, I would have repeated the content in the correct manner" (appendix 8.2). What the participant is essentially saying here is that the alternative choice of feedback she suggests, i.e. recasts, is more preferable in classroom interaction. This statement is interesting, as the participant has clearly taken a stance as to how her corrective manner should be perceived in the classroom. Furthermore, the participant evaluates how her choices affect the pupils. As is evident from figure 5, none of the participants stated that they strongly agreed with using this feedback type when teaching. 16.1% responded that they neither agreed nor disagreed, indicating that they were neutral in this matter.

As Likert scale data is considered ordinal, measures of central tendencies, the median and the mode, were calculated. To include a mean score would be meaningless, as there is no exact distance between each point on the scale. The median, i.e. the middle score of the distribution, was calculated at 2 (Disagree). The

mode, i.e. the typical score, was calculated at 4 (Agree), meaning that this was the answer most of the participants gave. However, the mode does not paint an accurate picture of the overall evaluations in this matter, as the two disagreement-points on the scale were considerably larger than the agreement-point. These results leave explicit correction as quite a non-preferable feedback type, and as such is something to consider when examining the collective evaluations presented later in this section.

Metalinguistic feedback

The second type of explicit corrective feedback evaluated in the present study is metalinguistic feedback. Figure 6 below shows the participants' evaluation of the following statement:

I would use this feedback type when teaching.

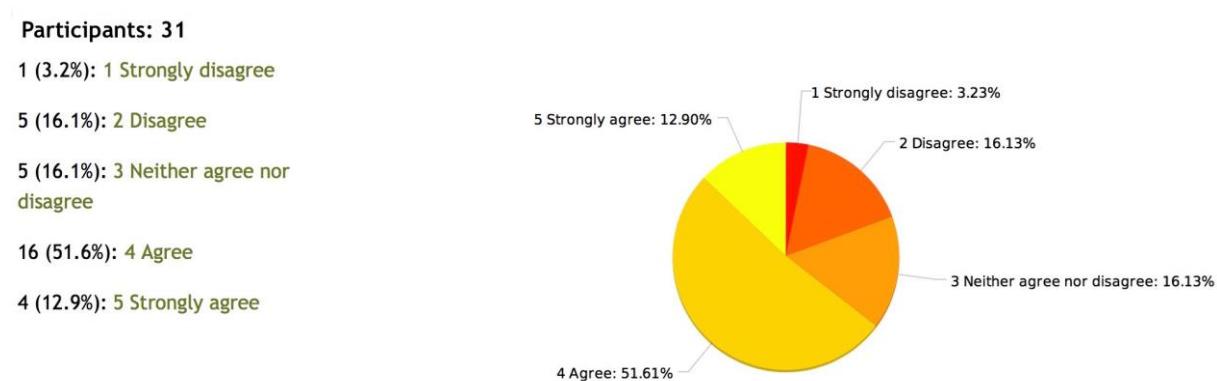


Figure 6: Metalinguistic feedback according to the Likert scale

In contrast to explicit correction, this feedback type obtained a combined agree score of 64.5%, out of which 12.9% (or four participants) strongly agreed. This means that over half of the sample agreed with using this type of corrective feedback when teaching. These percentages align well with the median and mode, which were both calculated at 4 (Agree). Only 19.3% disagreed with using this feedback type, out of which 3.2% (a single participant) strongly disagreed. 16.1% of the participants declared themselves neutral to this feedback type. These results indicate that metalinguistic feedback is quite preferable in the eyes of the teachers. Why this may be the case will be discussed in the next chapter.

Recasts

The following figure represents the participants' evaluation of the following statement:

I would use this feedback type when teaching.

Participants: 31

1 (3.2%): 1 Strongly disagree

5 (16.1%): 2 Disagree

6 (19.4%): 3 Neither agree nor disagree

18 (58.1%): 4 Agree

1 (3.2%): 5 Strongly agree

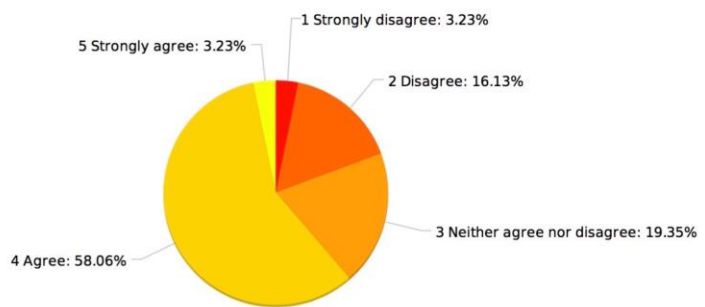


Figure 7: Recast according to the Likert scale

Figure 7 illustrates the participants' evaluation of the implicit feedback type recasts. Combining the agreement-percentages, we find that 61.3% of the participants agreed with the statement of using recasts when teaching (58.06% agreed and 3.2% strongly agreed). Combining the disagreement-percentages, we find that 19.3% of the participants disagreed with using this feedback type when teaching (16.13% disagreed and 3.23% strongly disagreed). The rest of the sample, i.e. 19.4%, was neutral in this matter. The calculated median and mode for recasts were 4 (Agree). As was the case with metalinguistic feedback, over half of the sample stated that they agreed with using this feedback type, leaving recasts as quite a preferable type of corrective feedback.

Clarification requests

Likewise to the preceding feedback types, the participants were asked to evaluate the following statement:

I would use this feedback type when teaching.

Participants: 30

1 (3.3%): 1 Strongly disagree

- (0.0%): 2 Disagree

8 (26.7%): 3 Neither agree nor disagree

20 (66.7%): 4 Agree

1 (3.3%): 5 Strongly agree

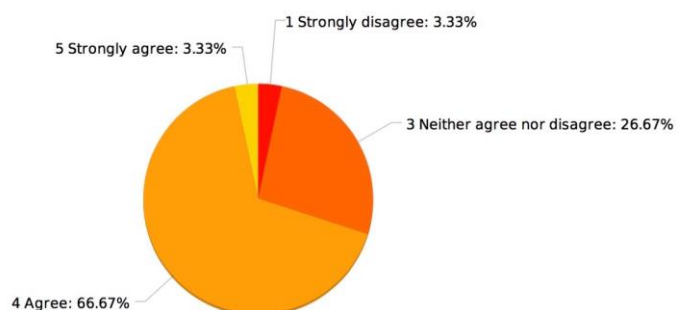


Figure 8: Clarification requests according to the Likert scale

Figure 8 illustrates the participants' evaluation of clarification requests, an implicit type of corrective feedback. As is evident from the figure, only 30 participants chose to evaluate this feedback type. The participant who declined to evaluate this feedback type responded that she would rather ask the pupil if s/he could "say that with a whole sentence" (appendix 8.2), which resembles another feedback type, i.e. elicitation. This should be noted when considering the following percentages, but is unlikely to make a crucial difference.

Combining the agreement-percentages, we find that 70% of the participants answered that they agreed with using this feedback type when teaching (66.67% agrees and 3.33% strongly agreed). 26.7% of the participants neither agreed nor disagreed with using this feedback type when teaching, and only 3.3% (one participant) strongly disagreed in this matter. The median and mode for clarification requests were both calculated to 4 (Agree). These measures leave clarification requests as the most preferable feedback type according to the Likert scale yet. Whether this is true when evaluating the feedback types collectively will be presented later in this section.

Elicitation

Figure 9 presents the participants' evaluation of elicitation in light of the following statement:

I would use this feedback type when teaching.

Participants: 31

1 (3.2%): 1 Strongly disagree

2 (6.5%): 2 Disagree

5 (16.1%): 3 Neither agree nor disagree

23 (74.2%): 4 Agree

- (0.0%): 5 Strongly agree

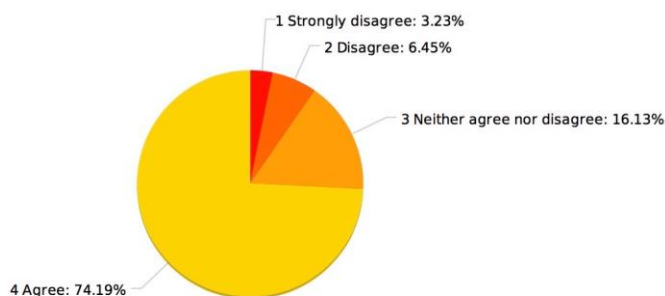


Figure 9: Elicitation according to the Likert scale

Figure 9 illustrates how the participants evaluated the implicit feedback type elicitation. As was the case with clarification requests, the majority of the participants, 74.2%, agreed that they would use this type of corrective feedback when teaching. 16.1% stated that they neither agreed nor disagreed with using elicitation, while only

9.7% disagreed. These percentages leave elicitation slightly more preferable than clarification requests. However, the median and mode are the same as those of metalinguistic feedback, recasts and clarification requests, i.e. 4 (Agree).

Repetition

The participants' evaluation of repetition, an implicit type of corrective feedback, is illustrated in figure 10. The following statement was evaluated:

I would use this feedback type when teaching.

Participants: 31

3 (9.7%): 1 Strongly disagree

13 (41.9%): 2 Disagree

10 (32.3%): 3 Neither agree nor disagree

5 (16.1%): 4 Agree

- (0.0%): 5 Strongly agree

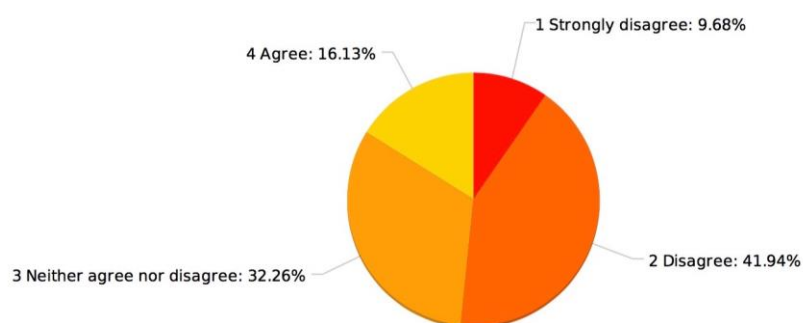


Figure 10: Repetition according to the Likert scale

When combining the disagreement-percentages, one finds that the majority of the participants (51.6%) disagreed with using repetition when teaching. 32.3% indicated that they were neutral in this matter, whilst only 16.1% agreed with using repetition. One possible explanation to this may be that repetition as a feedback type is rarely used in isolation, as it was presented in this survey. The median and mode for repetition were both calculated at 2 (Disagree). These results leave repetition as the weakest of all the feedback types with regards to teachers' preferences.

The preceding sub-sections have presented separate evaluations of all the feedback types. Whilst these results are valuable separately, they are not sufficient in determining the final evaluations. That is, in order to determine which of the feedback types that are considered most preferable by this sample, one must allow for several evaluations, as one cannot assert the final preference based on one evaluation item. In the following sub-sections, collective evaluations will be presented, which can further strengthen or potentially weaken the Likert scale results.

Choice of one feedback type

Participants: 31

1 (3.2%): Ignore the error

11 (35.5%): Recasts

14 (45.2%): Elicitation

- (0.0%): Explicit correction

- (0.0%): Repetition

5 (16.1%): Metalinguistic feedback

- (0.0%): Clarification request

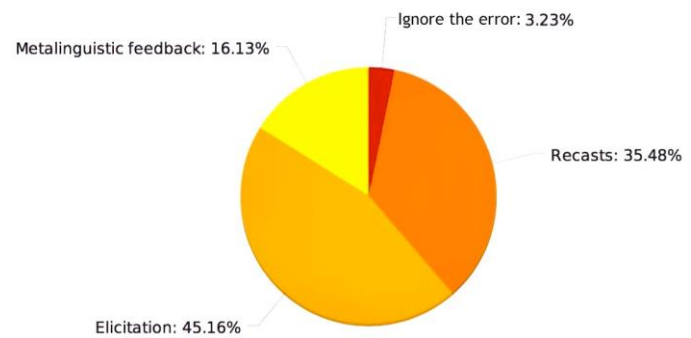


Figure 11: Choice of one feedback type

Figure 11 presents the participants' choices when asked to choose one of all the feedback types when appearing collectively. In this respect, elicitation was deemed most preferable at 45.2%, followed by recasts at 35.5%, metalinguistic feedback at 16.1% and ignoring the error at 3.2%. Interestingly, none of the participants chose explicit correction, repetition and clarification requests as preferable feedback types.

Choice of three feedback types

The participants were also asked to choose the three types of corrective feedback they found most preferable out of the six feedback types. The choice to ignore the error was also included as a possibility. In this particular task, only 13 of the participants chose three feedback types, while five participants chose two feedback types and the remaining 13 chose one feedback type. As was discussed in chapter 3, this could indicate that the task was inadequately phrased. Nevertheless, the results shown in figure 12 give an impression of how the participants who responded view the different types of corrective feedback.

Participants: 31

4 (12.9%): Explicit correction

22 (71.0%): Recasts

11 (35.5%): Clarification request

14 (45.2%): Metalinguistic feedback

5 (16.1%): Elicitation

- (0.0%): Repetition

6 (19.4%): Ignore the error

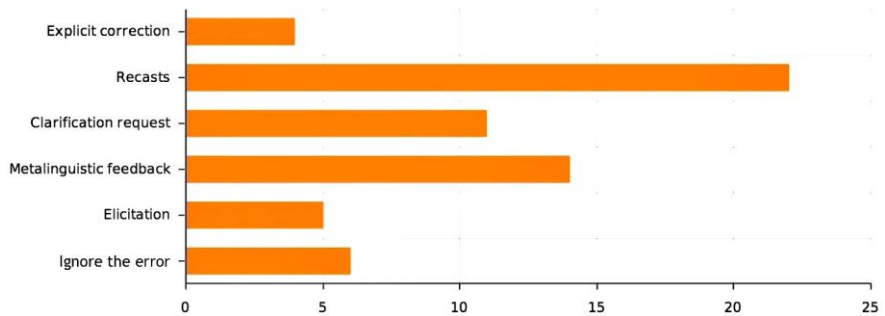


Figure 12: Choice of three feedback types

The most preferred feedback type is recasts at 71%, followed by metalinguistic feedback at 45.2%, clarification requests at 35.5%, ignoring the error at 19.4%, elicitation at 16.1%, explicit correction at 12.9% and finally repetition at 0%. Once again, it is apparent that the teachers who participated in the present study prefer to ignore the error rather than use certain types of corrective feedback. As was shown in the previous figure, explicit correction and repetition are not among the top choices of the collective group of participating teachers.

The results from figure 12 do, in addition, differ from those of figure 11 in several other respects. Elicitation, which was deemed the most preferable feedback type (at 45.2%) when the participants were asked to choose one feedback type, only achieved 16.1% in the choice of three feedback types. Moreover, recasts obtained 71% in the latter task, which is double of what it obtained in the former task. Metalinguistic feedback obtained 45.2% in the latter task compared to 16.1% in the former task. Finally, clarification requests obtained 35.5% in the latter task, compared to 0% in the former task. These results are somewhat ambiguous, in that they differ from one evaluation to the next. However, it is evident from these evaluations that the feedback types teachers are most likely to accept and use are recasts, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation and, to some degree, clarification requests. The next subsection will present the fourth and final evaluation type, namely a rank order of the feedback types.

Rank order

Figures 13, 14 and 15 represent the participants' rankings of the six types of corrective feedback, including the choice to ignore the error. The participants were

asked to rank the feedback types from what they believed to be least correct (1) to most correct (7) with regards to teaching. In order to gain a more comprehensible look at the rankings, the figures are separated according to explicit and implicit feedback, as well as ignore the error.

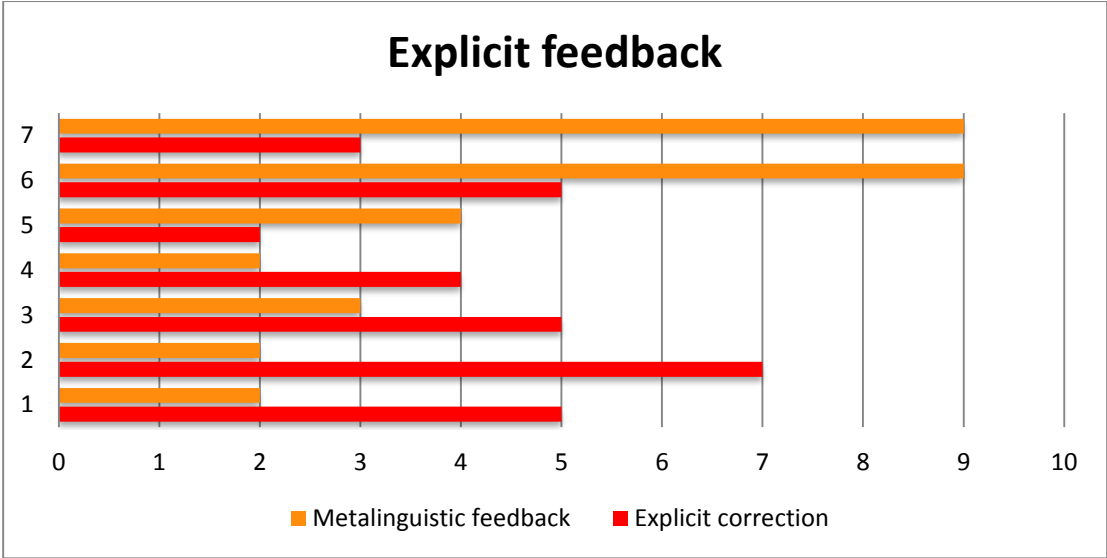


Figure 13: Rank of explicit feedback types

Figure 13 illustrates the sample’s evaluation of the explicit feedback types of metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction. As is evident from the figure, metalinguistic feedback has fairly high scores in terms of preference, with nine participants rating it as 6 or 7. This is also supported by the calculated median (middle score) of 6 and mode (typical score) of 6 and 7 (bimodal). Explicit correction is quite evenly distributed, but is not deemed preferable by the majority of the sample with a median of 3 and a mode of 2.

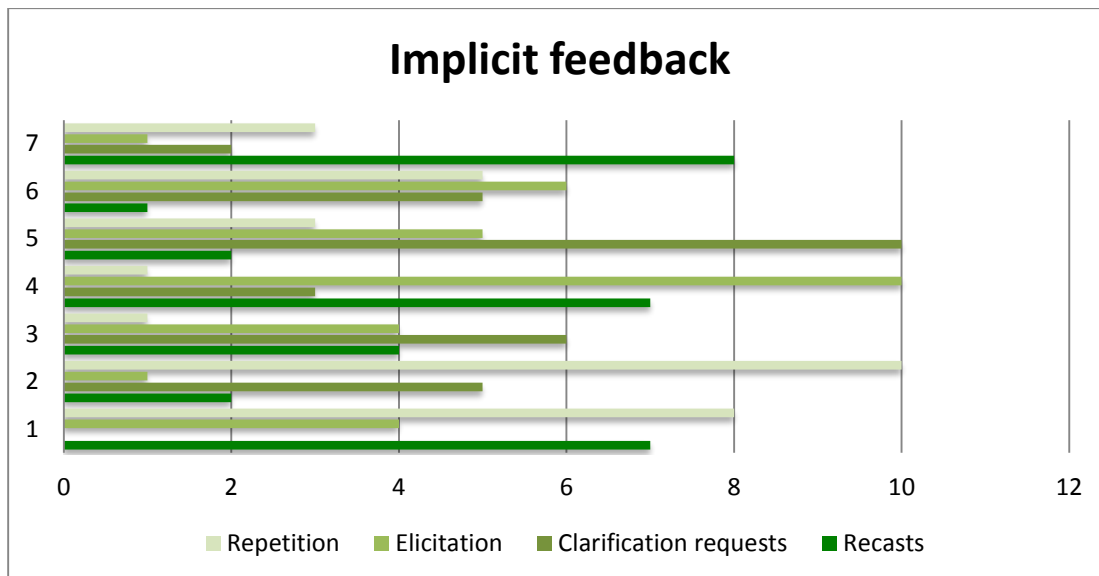


Figure 14: Rank of implicit feedback types

Figure 14 illustrates the participants' evaluation of the implicit types of feedback. According to this evaluation item, recasts have a median score of 4 and a mode score of 7. The median and mode for clarification request are both calculated at 5, while elicitation has a median and a mode of 4. Repetition scores lowest with calculated median and mode of 2.

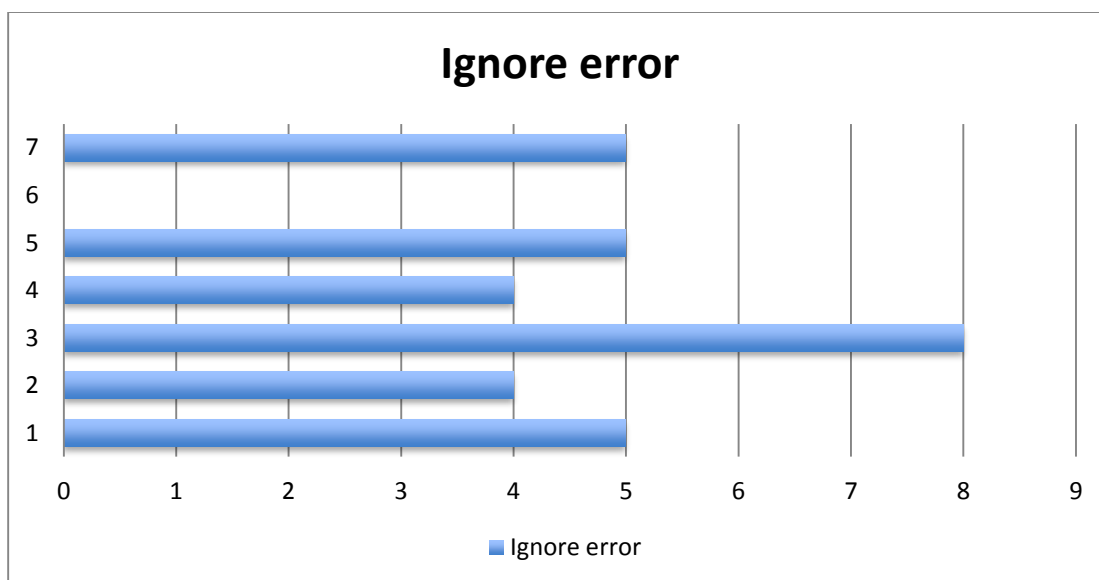


Figure 15: Rank of ignore error

Figure 15 illustrates the participants' rankings of the choice to ignore the error. The evaluations are quite evenly distributed, with five participants ranking it as 7, 5 and 1.

Still, eight participants ranked ignore error at 3, leaving 3 as the mode. The median was also calculated at 3.

4.1.3 Summary of evaluations

After evaluating the feedback types separately and collectively, the participants were given a brief explanation of explicit and implicit feedback, and furthermore asked to state which of the two they preferred. The results of these choices are illustrated in figure 16.

Participants: 31
26 (83.9%): **Implicit**
1 (3.2%): **Explicit**
4 (12.9%): **Unsure**

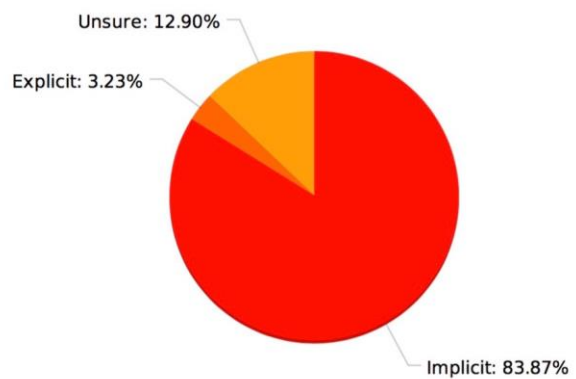


Figure 16: Stated preference of implicit or explicit feedback

Interestingly, the majority of the sample (83.9%) stated that they preferred implicit feedback, whilst a small share (12.9%) stated that they were unsure in this matter. Only one participant (3.2%) stated a preference towards explicit feedback. These results will be further discussed below.

Table 1 illustrates a summary of the four evaluation types utilised in the present study. The most preferable feedback type is placed at the top, and the least preferable at the bottom. In the Likert scale column, the choice to ignore the error was not included in the evaluation, and as such the column illustrates the six feedback types. Furthermore, the Likert scale column is ranked according to percentages of agreement, as the medians were quite even (for most calculated at 4). The middle two columns are based on the highest to lowest percentages, as these are nominal data, which cannot take measures of central tendencies. The rank column is based on medians. The feedback types in brackets were not chosen as

preferable in the second and third evaluations, but were included in the table for descriptive purposes.

Table 1 furthermore sets the base for calculating mean ranks for the feedback types. These mean ranks will be presented in table 2, and illustrate the general preferences towards the feedback types, based on the four evaluations they appeared in. Each evaluation column is considered a scoring board. The feedback types are given ranks from 6 (7) to 1 based on how preferable they were considered in each evaluation form. The scoring board counts from the top down, where the top (6 or 7) equals most preferable and the bottom (1) equals least preferable. If the feedback types were not chosen as preferable, such as instances in the middle two columns, they appeared in brackets and were given a rank of zero.

	Likert scale (rank score)	Option of one (rank score)	Option of three (rank score)	1 to 7 rank order (rank score)
Most preferable	Elicitation (6)	Elicitation (7)	Recasts (7)	Metalinguistic feedback (7)
	Clarification requests (5)	Recasts (6)	Metalinguistic feedback (6)	Clarification requests (6)
	Metalinguistic feedback (4)	Metalinguistic feedback (5)	Clarification requests (5)	Recasts, Elicitation (5)
	Recasts (3)	Ignore error (4)	Ignore error (4)	
Least preferable	Explicit correction (2)	(Clarification requests, Explicit correction,	Elicitation (3)	Ignore error, Explicit correction (3)
	Repetition (1)	Repetition) (0)	Explicit correction (2)	Repetition (1)

			(Repetition) (0)	
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Table 1: Summary of evaluations (complete sample)

Generally, implicit feedback types are evaluated as quite preferable according to the participating teachers. Elicitation is ranked as most preferable in two evaluations, but lower (third and fifth) in the remaining two. Clarification requests are ranked fifth in two evaluations, sixth in the fourth evaluation, but interestingly is not chosen as preferable in the evaluation where the participants were to choose the feedback type they would most likely use. Recasts are ranked third, sixth, seventh and fifth respectively. The exception in terms of implicit feedback types is repetition, which has the lowest agreement score in all four evaluations. As mentioned previously, this may be a case of it appearing in isolation in the present study, which it rarely does in reality.

As is evident from table 1, metalinguistic feedback is deemed quite preferable on a general basis, ranking fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh respectively. This is interesting, as only one participant explicitly stated a preference towards explicit feedback, as shown in figure 16. However, when considering the other explicit feedback type, explicit correction, the results from figure 16 are more understandable. Explicit correction is ranked in the bottom two of all the evaluations. These results do, however, lead to questioning whether the label of explicitness is the deciding factor in evaluating these two feedback types. Explicit correction is as explicit as a feedback type gets, by bluntly pointing out the mistake, whilst metalinguistic feedback is more of a softer and perhaps more pedagogical approach, as it gives hints about grammar and such. Perhaps pedagogical traits are key in determining a like or dislike towards a feedback type?

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5.5	Metalinguistic feedback
	5.25	Recasts Elicitation
	4	Clarification requests
Least	3.66	Ignore error
	1.75	Explicit correction

preferable	0.5	Repetition
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Table 2: Mean ranks for feedback types (complete sample)

Table 2 illustrates the mean rank for each feedback type. The mean rank was calculated by adding the rank score of each evaluation column, and dividing by the number of times a feedback type was evaluated (e.g. four times). The option to ignore the error only appeared in three of the evaluations, and thus the mean rank was calculated dividing by three.

Table 2 shows that the feedback type found most preferable by the complete sample was metalinguistic feedback, followed by recasts and elicitation. Clarification requests are a bit further down the rank, with a mean rank of 4. This summary also shows that the participating teachers find that ignoring an error is preferable to using explicit correction or repetition when teaching.

The results presented above are based on the complete sample of participants, and make no effort to look at differences between groups and relationships between variables. Such efforts will be made in section 4.2. The results presented thus far do, however, represent the cognitions of the entire sample of teachers who participated in the present study.

4.2 Differences between groups

This section will present the results subdivided according to three groupings of teachers. The participants from the complete sample are grouped according to formal English education, years of teaching experience and teaching of year level. This section will thus address to the second research question, namely if there are differences in how feedback types are perceived based on educational background. Firstly, however, brief summaries of how each of the group segments evaluated the statements of speaking in a grammatically correct manner and the degree to which one should give correction will be presented.

In each group segment a table will be presented with shortened versions of how the groups evaluated the feedback types. Each column illustrates one separate evaluation type and the order in which the feedback types were ranked, from most preferable at the top to least preferable at the bottom. The order in which the feedback types are ranked in each of the four evaluation types sets the base for a mean rank, which will illustrate the groups' overall preferences.

4.2.1 Formal English education

This section will present and investigate the sample's results when grouped according to number of achieved credits, i.e. according to level of formal English education. Nine participants had no formal credits, four participants had 15 to 30 credits, twelve participants had 60 credits, and six participants had in excess of 75 credits.

General cognitions regarding oral language proficiency and providing corrections

Groups	Speaking in a grammatically correct manner			Correcting all errors		
	Agree	Disagree	Median	Agree	Disagree	Median
0 credits	44.4%	22.2%	3 (Neutral)	22.2%	55.6%	2 (Disagree)
15 to 30 credits	75%	25%	4 (Agree)	25%	75%	2 (Disagree)
60 credits	33.3%	25%	3 (Neutral)	0%	100%	2 (Disagree)
More than 75 credits	33.3%	33.3%	3 (Neutral)	0%	66.7%	2 (Disagree)

Table 3: Evaluations of accurate oral output and correcting all errors (formal English education)

Table 3 shows how the participants evaluated the statements that one should speak in a grammatically correct manner and that the teacher should correct all errors in pupils' oral language production.

With regards to the first statement, the table shows that the groups' evaluations are quite similar, with the exception of the group containing teachers that have 15 to 30 acquired credits. This group agrees more with the statement than the other three, as is evident from the calculated median.

Table 3 furthermore shows that all groups generally disagree with the statement that teachers should correct all errors in pupils' erroneous oral output. However, there is a divide between those with zero to 30 acquired credits (i.e. the

first and second group) and those with 60 or more acquired credits (i.e. the third and fourth group). The latter two groups are similar in their cognitions regarding how much one should correct, as none of these agree with the statement.

These evaluations also yielded qualitative responses and associated themes, as presented in section 4.1.1. However, the differences found in these were not particularly noteworthy with regards to formal English education, and thus will not be presented again here. That is, in terms of those participants who believed that grammar and oral correctness would come as a result of input and practice, two had no acquired credits and two had 60 acquired credits.

4.2.1.1 0 credits

	Likert scale Percentage of agreement	Option of one Percentage of choice	Option of three Percentage of choice	1 to 7 rank order Median
Most preferable	Clarification requests (77.8%)	Elicitation (55.6%)	Recasts (29.4%)	Metalinguistic feedback, Ignore error (5)
	Recasts, Elicitation (66.7%)	Recasts (33.3%)	Clarification requests,	
		Metalinguistic feedback (11.1%)	Metalinguistic feedback (23.5%)	Recasts, Elicitation (4)
Least preferable	Metalinguistic feedback (55.6%)	(Clarification requests, Explicit correction, Repetition, Ignore error)	Elicitation, Explicit correction (11.8%)	Explicit correction, Clarification requests (3)
	Explicit correction (33.3%)			
	Repetition (11.1%)		(Repetition, Ignore error)	Repetition (2)

Table 4: Summary of evaluations (0 credits)

Table 4 is an illustration of the evaluations made by the group of participants that had no formal English education, and shows how the feedback types were ranked from most preferable at the top to least preferable at the bottom. Similar to the presentation in table 1, table 4 sets the base for calculating mean ranks for the feedback types for this group of participants, which will be presented in table 5. To exemplify, in the Likert column clarification requests was ranked as 6, recasts and elicitation as 5, metalinguistic feedback as 3, explicit correction as 2, and finally repetition as 1.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5.75	Recasts
	5.25	Metalinguistic feedback Elicitation
	3.75	Clarification requests
	2.33	Ignore error
Least preferable	2.25	Explicit correction
	0.5	Repetition

Table 5: Mean ranks for feedback types (0 credits)

Table 5 illustrates this sample’s combined evaluations of the feedback types and their calculated mean ranks, which are based on the preceding table. To exemplify, recasts was ranked as fifth, sixth, seventh and fifth in the four evaluations it appeared, all fairly high ranks yielding a high mean score.

As table 5 shows, recasts are the most preferable feedback type according to the group of participants that had no formal English credits, followed closely by metalinguistic feedback and elicitation. Clarification requests are a bit further down the preference rank. Furthermore, one sees that the option to ignore the error is more preferable than using explicit correction or repetition when teaching.

4.2.1.2 15 to 30 credits

	Likert scale Percentage of agreement	Option of one Percentage of choice	Option of three Percentage of choice	1 to 7 rank order Median	
Most preferable	Recasts, Clarification requests, Elicitation (100%)	Recasts (50%)	Recasts (50%)	Explicit correction (6.5)	
	Explicit correction, Metalinguistic feedback (75%)	(Clarification requests, Explicit correction, Repetition, Ignore error)	Metalinguistic feedback, Elicitation (25%)	Metalinguistic feedback (6)	
			Ignore error (16.7%)	Clarification requests (5)	
	Least preferable	Repetition (0%)	Ignore error)	(Elicitation, Explicit correction, Repetition)	Elicitation, Ignore error (3.5)
				Repetition (2.5)	Recasts (1)

Table 6: Summary of evaluations (15 to 30 credits)

Table 6 illustrates how the group of 15 to 30 formal English credits evaluated the feedback types. Here, many feedback types achieved the same percentage of agreement and choice as others. However, utilising the method of the scoring board, the feedback types were given fair ranks. In the Likert column, recasts, clarification requests and elicitation were ranked as 6, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback as 3, and repetition as 1. This method applies for all instances where feedback types are evaluated as equal.

Furthermore, we find that the feedback types are ranked quite consistently in the four evaluation columns, with the exception of recasts, which is ranked as least preferable in the last column.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5.25	Metalinguistic feedback Recasts
	4.25	Clarification requests
	4	Elicitation
Least preferable	3.33	Ignore error
	2.5	Explicit correction
	0.75	Repetition

Table 7: Mean ranks for feedback types (15 to 30 credits)

Table 7 shows the 15 to 30 credits group's preferred feedback types when listed according to mean ranks. This sample group has ranked recasts and metalinguistic feedback as most preferable, followed by clarification requests and elicitation. Identical to the previous group, this group evaluated the option to ignore the error as a more preferable tool than employing explicit correction or repetition when teaching.

4.2.1.3 60 credits

	Likert scale Percentage of agreement	Option of one Percentage of choice	Option of three Percentage of choice	1 to 7 rank order Median
Most preferable	Elicitation (83.3%)	Elicitation (50%)	Recasts (38.5%)	Metalinguistic feedback (6)
	Metalinguistic feedback (75%)	Recasts (41.7%)	Metalinguistic feedback (23.1%)	Recasts, Clarification requests (4.5)
	Clarification requests	Metalinguistic feedback	Clarification requests	

Least preferable	(58.3%)	(8.3%)	(19.2%)	
	Recasts (50%)	(Clarification requests,	Elicitation, Ignore error (7.7%)	Elicitation (4)
	Repetition (8.3%)	Explicit correction,		Ignore error (3.5)
	Explicit correction (8.3%)	Repetition, Ignore error)	Explicit correction (3.8%)	Repetition (3)
			(Repetition)	Explicit correction (2.5)

Table 8: Summary of evaluations (60 credits)

Table 8 shows how the group of 60 credits evaluated the feedback types, from most preferable at the top to least preferable at the bottom. In the Likert column, repetition and explicit correction are equal and were given a rank of 2. As for the rank order column, recasts and clarification requests are both ranked 6 as they have the same median, and elicitation thus as 4. Interestingly, this group found repetition to be more preferable than explicit correction in the final evaluation. However, this is unlikely to make a crucial difference to the mean ranks.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5.75	Metalinguistic feedback
	5.5	Recasts
	5.25	Elicitation
	3.75	Clarification requests
Least preferable	2.33	Ignore error
	1.25	Explicit correction
	1	Repetition

Table 9: Mean ranks for feedback types (60 credits)

In table 9, one sees that the sample of those with 60 acquired credits has ranked metalinguistic feedback highest, i.e. as most preferable, followed closely by recasts and elicitation. As was the case with the two preceding groups, this group favours

ignoring an error over using explicit correction and repetition. The only differences between the groups thus far are that the mean ranks for the most preferable feedback types differ slightly, however, in the larger scope of things, they all prefer the same feedback types in approximately the same order. The exception is that the group of 15 to 30 credits favour clarification requests over elicitation.

4.1.2.4 More than 75 credits

	Likert scale Percentage of agreement	Option of one Percentage of choice	Option of three Percentage of choice	1 to 7 rank order Median
Most preferable	Clarification requests (60%)	Metalinguistic feedback, Elicitation (33.3%)	Recasts (30.7%)	Metalinguistic feedback (6.5)
	Metalinguistic feedback, Recasts, Elicitation, Repetition (50%) [16.7%]	Recasts, Ignore error (16.7%)	Metalinguistic feedback, Ignore error (23.1%)	Clarification requests (5.5)
				Recasts (5)
		Clarification requests, Elicitation, Explicit correction (7.7%)	Elicitation, Explicit correction (7.7%)	Elicitation (4)
Least preferable	Explicit correction (50%) [33.3%]	correction, Ignore error)	(Repetition)	Explicit correction (3)
				Repetition, Ignore error (2)

Table 10: Summary of evaluations (More than 75 credits)

Table 10 shows how the group that had acquired 75 formal English credits or more evaluated the feedback types.

In instances where feedback types have obtained the same agreement percentages but different disagreement percentages in the Likert column, the

disagreement percentages are stated in square brackets. When the feedback types have the same percentages both in terms of agreement and disagreement, the latter percentage is not stated. This is a tool to show and explain why feedback types that may have the same agreement percentage are given different ranks. In the Likert column, clarification requests are ranked as 6, metalinguistic feedback, recasts, elicitation and repetition as 5, and explicit correction as 1 because it had a higher disagreement percentage than the other feedback types (33.3% compared to 16.7%).

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	6.25	Metalinguistic feedback
	5.5	Recasts
	5	Elicitation
	4.33	Ignore error
	4	Clarification requests
Least preferable	2	Explicit correction
	1.75	Repetition

Table 11: Mean ranks for feedback types (More than 75 credits)

Table 11 shows the mean ranks of the feedback types, based on the evaluations set forth in table 8 above. The group of participants that had acquired in excess of 75 formal credits differ from the other groups in that it evaluated clarification requests below choosing to ignore the error when teaching. The mean rank for metalinguistic feedback is also higher than the mean ranks calculated for the other groups.

4.2.1.5 Statistical tests

In order to investigate whether the differences between the groups' evaluations of the feedback types were statistically significant, the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to the Likert data (the second columns) and the rank ordered data (the fifth columns). The Kruskal-Wallis test is an appropriate tool of calculation when one is to compare three or more samples where the data do not follow a normal curve of distribution, which is true for all the data presented in this chapter. For a difference to be

considered statistically significant the calculated p-value must be lower than the alpha level set at 0.05.

The calculations were based on the groups' complete evaluations of each feedback type, and thus not on the summarized versions of the results presented above. Explained in more detail, the Likert data calculations consisted of a list of Likert items (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree), and the number of times each item was chosen. The same process was made with the rank ordered data, only this evaluation consisted of items ranging from 1 to 7.

When testing for statistical significance with regards to the Likert data, the Kruskal-Wallis calculated that none of the differences between the groups were statistically significant, as the p-values were all higher than the alpha level (see appendix 8.5). This means that although there are slight variations in how the four groups evaluated the feedback types separately, one cannot make any claims concerning generalizability and, furthermore, that the differences found are so slight that one cannot make anything out of them in a statistical significance sense.

With regards to the rank ordered data (columns five), the majority of the differences between the groups were not rendered statistically significant according to the Kruskal-Wallis test (appendix 8.5). The exception is that of recasts². If one examines the rankings for this feedback type in columns five, tables 3, 5, 7 and 9, one sees that the medians differ quite a lot. This result means that the participants' educational background may have had an impact on how they perceived recasts. However, as the difference in evaluation of recasts was only found significant in one of the tests, the researcher cannot draw any firm conclusions.

4.2.2 Teaching experience

This section will present the samples' results when grouped according to years of teaching experience. The three groups to be compared are novice teachers (with six months to 4 years of experience), experienced teachers (7 to 12 years of experience) and very experienced teachers (16 to 25 years of experience).

² p = 0.0425, test statistic = 8.176, df = 3.

General cognitions regarding oral language proficiency and providing corrections

Groups	Speaking in a grammatically correct manner			Correcting all errors		
	Agree	Disagree	Median	Agree	Disagree	Median
Novice (0.5 to 4 years)	37.5%	50%	2.5 (Disagree to neutral)	0%	87.5%	2 (Disagree)
Experienced (7 to 12 years)	36.4%	18.2%	3 (Neutral)	9.1%	81.8%	2 (Disagree)
Very experienced (16 to 25 years)	50%	16.7%	3.5 (Neutral to agree)	16.7%	66.6%	2 (Disagree)

Table 12: Evaluations of accurate oral output and correcting all errors (experience)

Table 12 shows the sample's evaluations of the statements of speaking in a grammatically correct manner and correcting all errors.

With regards to the first statement, the novice teachers disagree more than the experienced and very experienced teachers. This is also evident from the medians. The group of experienced teachers are more neutral, whereas the novice teachers are more on the disagreement side and the very experienced teachers more on the agreement side.

The evaluations of the second statement show that generally, all participants disagree that one should correct all errors in pupils' oral output, as confirmed by the medians. However, the group of very experienced teachers disagrees slightly less than the former two groups.

4.2.2.1 0.5 to 4 years of teaching experience

	Likert scale	Option of one	Option of three	1 to 7 rank order
	Percentage of agreement [disagreement]	Percentage of choice	Percentage of choice	Median

Most preferable	Elicitation (87.5%)	Elicitation (50%)	Recasts (33.3%)	Explicit correction (5.5)
	Clarification requests (62.5%) [0%]	Recasts (37.5%)	Clarification requests (27.8%)	Metalinguistic feedback, Ignore error (4.5)
	Metalinguistic feedback (62.5%) [12.5%]	Metalinguistic feedback (12.5%)	Metalinguistic feedback (22.2%)	
Least preferable	Recasts (50%)	(Explicit correction, Clarification requests, Repetition, Ignore error)	Ignore error (11.1%)	Recasts, Clarification requests (4)
	Explicit correction (25%)		Elicitation (5.6%)	
	Repetition (12.5%)	(Repetition, Explicit correction)	Repetition (3.5)	Elicitation (3)

Table 13: Summary of evaluations (0.5 to 4 years of teaching experience)

Table 13 sums up how the least experienced group of participants evaluated the feedback types. In the Likert evaluation, elicitation is ranked 6, clarification requests 5, metalinguistic feedback 4 (because of the higher disagreement percentage), recasts 3, explicit correction 2, and finally repetition 1. The option evaluations are quite straightforward in terms of ranks (the ones that were not chosen as preferable were given a rank of 0). In the 1 to 7 rank order evaluation explicit correction is ranked 7, which is quite surprising considering the low ranks it achieved in the other evaluations. Furthermore, metalinguistic feedback and the choice to ignore the error is ranked 6, recasts and clarification requests 4, repetition 2, and finally elicitation 1.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5	Metalinguistic feedback Recasts
	4.25	Elicitation
	3.75	Clarification requests
	3.33	Ignore error
Least preferable	2.25	Explicit correction
	0.75	Repetition

Table 14: Mean ranks for feedback types (0.5 to 4 years of teaching experience)

Table 14 illustrates the mean ranks for each feedback type, based on the evaluations and ranks made in table 13. These mean ranks show that the group of novice teachers have evaluated in such a way that they typically prefer to use metalinguistic feedback and recasts when teaching, followed by elicitation and clarification requests, and furthermore do not prefer to use explicit correction and repetition.

4.2.2.2 7 to 12 years of teaching experience

	Likert scale	Option of one	Option of three	1 to 7 rank order
	Percentage of agreement [disagreement]	Percentage of choice	Percentage of choice	Median
Most preferable	Elicitation (72.7%)	Elicitation (45.4%)	Recasts (42.9%)	Clarification requests (5)
	Clarification requests (63.6%) [0%]	Recasts (36.4%)	Metalinguistic feedback (19.1%)	Elicitation (4)
	Metalinguistic feedback (63.6%) [18.2%]	Metalinguistic feedback (18.2%)	Ignore error, Explicit correction, Clarification requests,	Metalinguistic feedback, Recasts, Ignore error (3)

Least preferable			Elicitation (9.5%)	
	Recasts (54.5%)	(Clarification requests,	(Repetition)	Explicit correction,
	Explicit correction (18.2%)	Explicit correction,		Repetition (2)
	Repetition (9.1%)	Ignore error)		

Table 15: Summary of evaluations (7 to 12 years of teaching experience)

Table 15 illustrates how the group of experienced participants (with 7 to 12 years of teaching experience) evaluated the feedback types. In the Likert evaluation, elicitation is considered most preferable and is ranked as 6, clarification request as 5, metalinguistic feedback as 4 (because of the higher disagreement percentage), recasts as 3, explicit correction as 2, and finally repetition as 1, leaving it as least preferable.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	6	Elicitation
	5.25	Recasts
	5	Metalinguistic feedback
	3.75	Clarification requests
Least preferable	3.33	Ignore error
	2.25	Explicit correction
	0.75	Repetition

Table 16: Mean ranks for feedback types (7 to 12 years of teaching experience)

Table 16 shows that this group of participating teachers, summed up, found elicitation as most preferable and thus as the feedback type most likely to be used when teaching, followed by recasts and metalinguistic feedback. Clarification requests and ignoring an error have fairly low ranks compared to the highest rank, but are still more preferable than choosing to use explicit correction or repetition. The

group of experienced teachers differ from that of novice teachers in that they prefer elicitation to recasts and metalinguistic feedback.

4.2.2.3 16 to 25 years of teaching experience

	Likert scale Percentage of agreement [disagreement]	Option of one Percentage of choice	Option of three Percentage of choice	1 to 7 rank order Median
Most preferable	Clarification requests (81.8%)	Elicitation (41.7%)	Recasts (31.8%)	Metalinguistic feedback (5.5)
	Recasts (75%) [8.3%]	Recasts (33.3%)	Metalinguistic feedback (22.7%)	Elicitation Clarification requests (5)
	Metalinguistic feedback (75%) [16.7%]	Metalinguistic feedback (16.7%)	Clarification requests (18.2%)	Explicit correction Recasts (3.5)
	Elicitation (66.7%)	Ignore error (8.3%)	Explicit correction, Elicitation, Ignore error (9.1%)	Ignore error (3)
	Explicit correction (50%)	(Clarification requests, Explicit correction, Repetition)	(Repetition)	Repetition (2.5)
Least preferable	Repetition (25%)	Repetition		

Table 17: Summary of evaluations (16 to 25 years of teaching experience)

Table 17 illustrates how the group of very experienced participants evaluated the feedback types. This group’s evaluations are somewhat ambiguous, particularly in

terms of recasts. However, this does not have an effect on the mean rank, as shown in table 18.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5.5	Metalinguistic feedback Recasts
	5	Elicitation
	4.25	Clarification requests
Least preferable	3.33	Ignore error
	2.5	Explicit correction
	0.5	Repetition

Table 18: Mean ranks for feedback types (16 to 25 years of teaching experience)

Table 18 shows that this group of participants has ranked metalinguistic feedback and recasts as most preferable followed by elicitation and clarification requests. Like the two preceding groups, this group prefers ignoring an error to using explicit correction or repetition. The only noticeable differences in terms of preference within the three groups are that the group of experienced teachers has evaluated elicitation as most preferable, whilst the group of novice and very experienced teachers prefer metalinguistic feedback and recasts the most.

4.2.2.4 Significance tests

The Kruskal-Wallis test was used in order to calculate whether the differences between the participants' evaluations were statistically significant. None of the calculated p-values were lower than the alpha level of 0.05. This means that none of the differences, neither in terms of the Likert data nor in terms of the rank ordered data could be considered statistically significant (appendix 8.5). This further means that the difference in preferences cannot be said to be a result of years of teaching experience.

4.2.3 Year level

This section will present the results of the sample when grouped according to current teaching practice, i.e. teaching of year levels. The participants were evenly

distributed between primary and secondary school teachers, with fifteen participants in each group. One participant was left as she taught both primary and secondary school levels.

General cognitions regarding oral language proficiency and providing corrections

Groups	Speaking in a grammatically correct manner			Correcting all errors		
	Agree	Disagree	Median	Agree	Disagree	Median
Primary	33.3%	40%	3 (Neutral)	13.3%	73.4%	2 (Disagree)
Secondary	53.3%	13.3%	4 (Agree)	6.7%	80%	2 (Disagree)

Table 19: Evaluations of accurate oral output and correcting all errors (year level)

Table 19 shows how the sample evaluated the statements when grouped according to teaching of year levels. With regards to the statements that pupils should speak in a grammatically correct manner, we find that secondary school teachers agree more than primary school teachers. This indicates that the level of expected correctness in pupils’ oral language production is higher in lower secondary school (years 8 to 10) than in upper primary school (years 5 to 7). In terms of how many errors one should correct, the cognitions of the participating teachers are fairly similar, although the secondary school teachers disagree slightly more with the statement.

The qualitative responses to these statements yielded some general themes. With regards to the first statement, 66.7% of the participants who explained that the degree of expected oral correctness depends on the year level the pupil is at were primary school teachers. This theme was also found with regards to the second statement. In this, all of the participants who explained that the degree or type of correction should be adapted to which year level the pupils are at, were primary school teachers.

Furthermore, in response to the second statement, 58% of the participants who stated that too much correction could negatively affect the pupils’ motivation were primary school teachers. Moreover, 71% of the participants who emphasised considering the importance of teacher-learner relations when choosing to correct

were secondary school teachers. Lastly, 69% of the participants who stated that they adapted the degree of correction to context were secondary school teachers.

4.2.3.1 Primary

	Likert scale	Option of one	Option of three	1 to 7 rank order
Most preferable	Elicitation (80%)	Elicitation (40%)	Recasts (39.3%)	Metalinguistic feedback (6)
	Clarification requests (71.4%)	Recasts (33.3%)	Metalinguistic feedback (25%)	Clarification requests (5)
	Recasts (66.7%)	Metalinguistic feedback (20%)	Clarification requests (21.4%)	Elicitation, Ignore error (4)
Least preferable	Metalinguistic feedback (60%)	Ignore error (6.7%)	Ignore error (7.1%)	Recasts, Explicit correction (3)
	Explicit correction (33.3%)	(Clarification requests, Explicit correction, Repetition)	Explicit correction, Elicitation (3.6%)	Repetition (2)
	Repetition (13.3%)	Repetition)	(Repetition)	

Table 20: Summary of evaluations (primary)

Table 20 shows how the group of primary school teachers evaluated the feedback types. Each evaluation column is quite straightforward in terms of ranks, and there is general consistency in how the feedback types are evaluated. The only discrepancies are those of elicitation and recasts. Elicitation is fairly highly ranked, with the exception of the third evaluation, where it is ranked third. Recasts are ranked fourth, sixth and seventh, and third.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5.25	Metalinguistic feedback Elicitation
	5	Recasts Ignore error
	4	Clarification requests
Least preferable	2	Explicit correction
	0.5	Repetition

Table 21: Mean ranks for feedback types (primary)

Table 21 shows the mean ranks for the feedback types, based on the evaluations set forth in table 20. The primary school teachers prefer to use metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and recasts. Slightly surprisingly, they have also evaluated ignoring an error to be more preferable than using clarification requests. Explicit correction and repetition are ranked lowest, and are the least preferable feedback types according to the primary school teachers.

4.2.3.2 Secondary

	Likert scale Percentage of agreement [disagreement]	Option of one Percentage of choice	Option of three Percentage of choice	1 to 7 rank order Median
Most preferable	Clarification requests (73.3%)	Elicitation (46.7%)	Recasts (31.2%)	Metalinguistic feedback (6)
	Elicitation (66.7%) [13.3%]	Recasts (40%)	Metalinguistic feedback (21.9%)	Clarification requests (5)
	Metalinguistic feedback (66.7%) [20%]	Metalinguistic feedback (13.3%)	Clarification requests (15.6%)	Elicitation, Recasts (4)
Least preferable	Recasts	(Clarification	Elicitation	Ignore error,

	(60%)	requests, Ignore error, Explicit	(12.5%)	Explicit correction (3)
	Explicit correction (26.7%)	correction, Repetition)	Explicit correction Ignore error (9.4%)	Repetition (2)
	Repetition (20%)		(Repetition)	

Table 22: Summary of evaluations (secondary)

Table 22 illustrates how the secondary school teachers have evaluated the six feedback types and the option to ignore an error.

	Mean rank	Feedback type
Most preferable	5.5	Metalinguistic feedback
	5.25	Recasts Elicitation
	4.25	Clarification requests
Least preferable	2	Explicit correction Ignore error
	0.5	Repetition

Table 23: Mean ranks for feedback types (secondary)

Table 23 shows that the secondary school teachers mostly prefer to use metalinguistic feedback, recasts and elicitation. In contrast to the primary school teachers, clarification requests are ranked higher than ignoring an error. Moreover, explicit correction and ignoring an error have received the same rank, i.e. are equally preferable. This is an interesting finding compared to the primary school teachers, and something to be discussed in chapter 5.

4.2.3.3 Significance tests

In order to calculate whether the differences in evaluations of the feedback types between primary and secondary school teachers were statistically significant, the

Mann-Whitney U test was applied. The Mann-Whitney U is suitable when comparing two samples where the data do not follow a normal curve of distribution, such as the data in the present study.

With regards to the Likert data, the Mann-Whitney calculated that none of the differences could be considered statistically significant, as the p-values for all the feedback types were higher than the alpha level (appendix 8.5). This was also true for the 1 to 7 rank ordered data (appendix 8.5). This means that the evaluations made by the primary and secondary participating teachers in the present study do not differ in such a way that one can make any grand claims concerning the reasons behind the differences found.

4.3 General patterns

During this data analysis, some patterns have emerged that will be further discussed in the following chapter.

Firstly, one would assume that the rank order, which was the final evaluation form, would have summarized or be in line with the previous evaluations. However, this has proven not to be the case. In fact, there are some major discrepancies throughout the evaluations. This leads to questions whether the participants in the present study have reflected upon their cognitions concerning their corrective practices. This could of course be the result of poor study design, however, it is an issue worth discussing further as this has historically been an issue with language teacher cognition studies.

Secondly, the results have shown that generally, the participants in the present study prefer to use one explicit type of feedback (metalinguistic feedback) and three implicit types of feedback (recasts, elicitation and clarification requests). What is more evident, moreover, is that the majority of the participating teachers would prefer to ignore an error rather than to use explicit correction or repetition when teaching. When evaluating explicit correction, one teacher stated that s/he would refrain from using explicit correction in front of other pupils in the classroom. This leads to question whether the use of certain feedback types could be linked to the timing of feedback, to a feedback type's character/traits, or to more pedagogical issues such as motivation and classroom environment. These issues will be further discussed in the following chapter.

Thirdly, the qualitative answers show that a large number of the participating teachers believe that being able to communicate is more important than speaking in a flawless manner. What this includes, what this means in a Norwegian EFL context and how this links to correcting oral output is a key issue to be discussed in the next chapter.

Lastly, the results regarding differences between groups of teachers based on their educational background have been slim to none in a statistical significance sense. However, there are some important issues between certain groups' evaluations of the feedback types that are related to the qualitative responses regarding oral proficiency and oral correctness. Despite the fact that this could be due to randomness, they are interesting when examining how language teacher cognition may have developed.

4.4 Summary

Summing up, the sample typically prefers to use the same feedback types when teaching, and in approximately the same order. Generally one finds that metalinguistic feedback, recasts and elicitation are slightly more preferable than clarification requests when examining the mean ranks, and more evident, that ignoring an error is more preferable and likely to be carried out than using explicit correction or repetition.

Generally, the sample agrees that pupils should speak in a grammatically correct manner, but is somewhat reluctant to pointing out errors. Seen in relation to the most and least preferable feedback types, it is not surprising that many do not prefer to use less pedagogical feedback types such as explicit correction and repetition.

5. Discussion

The present study set out to examine the cognitions of EFL teachers in Norwegian (upper) primary and lower secondary schools. This chapter will discuss the findings of chapter 4 in light of the studies and theories presented in chapter 2. The structure of this chapter will follow that of the research questions, in that it will first address oral

language proficiency and correcting oral language output for the complete sample, before turning to look at the differences found between Norwegian EFL teachers based on their professional backgrounds, including variables such as education, experience and current practice.

Before this discussion can commence, however, some important issues should be remembered. First, the present study does not claim that the knowledge and beliefs portrayed here are in accordance with the actual practices of the participating teachers. The present study is simply an investigation of cognitions that may influence these EFL teachers' practices. Second, while this is a study of cognitions, i.e. personally held knowledge and beliefs, it is prudent to debate whether the cognitions found (regarding correcting oral output) are in line with current SLA research or with pedagogical discourse.

5.1 General characteristics of Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions regarding oral correction

The first research question was the following:

3. What characterises Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions regarding oral (grammatical) proficiency and correcting oral language output?
 - ii. How do Norwegian EFL teachers evaluate different types of corrective feedback?

It was also hypothesised that Norwegian EFL teachers prefer to use implicit types of feedback when correcting erroneous oral output. This section will examine the cognitions that have come forth viewed in relation to pedagogic principles of teaching, to the Norwegian EFL teaching context, and to current SLA research and theories.

5.1.1 Oral language proficiency and the extent of oral correction

The participating teachers in the present study generally agreed that pupils' oral output should be produced in a grammatically correct manner, but explained that other considerations are more important in oral language development. These, as

well as more general issues regarding language teacher cognition, will be discussed below.

One of the key issues relating to the present study is how much and in which manner one should correct in order to promote and facilitate learners' oral proficiency, and furthermore, what oral proficiency actually entails. Only one participant explicitly mentioned that it was important for pupils to speak in a grammatically correct and native-like manner because one needs a standard to follow. Others, however, believed that faulty grammar was unlikely to result in misunderstandings in communication with native speakers of English, a statement supported by e.g. Munden (2014) and Kirkpatrick (2007). Thus, the aim of the majority of teachers was not to promote flawless output, but to promote the ability of relaying messages in communication. The insistent focus on the importance of communication shows that the participating teachers' cognitions conform well with the competence aims and the notion of creating world citizens, as proposed in the Knowledge Promotion reform. Whether their cognitions conform to SLA research will be discussed later in this section.

A general belief within this sample's cognitions was thus that communication is more important than flawless output, which also influenced their beliefs about error correction. Generally, this study found that teachers would refrain from interrupting pupils in communicative settings. Similar beliefs were found in a study conducted Basturkmen et al (2004). One of the participants in that study believed that "communicative lessons should not be about accuracy" and that he was "very suspicious to error correction" due to the fact that he wanted his pupils to feel safe (Basturkmen et al, 2004, p. 259). Many of participants in the present study emphasised that errors should only be corrected if they interfered with meaning, and that the provision of correction should not interrupt pupils in their fluency work. This is a belief found in many studies on cognitions regarding corrective practices (see section 2.2.4). To exemplify, Oliver and Mackey (2003, p. 525–526) found that opportunities for providing correction were nearly twice as high in interactional settings where the focus was on communication than in settings focusing on content, management or explicit language, but that the actual provision of feedback was significantly larger in contexts focusing on explicit language.

However, the belief that one should not interrupt pupil in communicative settings may not always be in accordance with actual practices. To exemplify, the

teacher mentioned in Basturkmen et al (2004) actually corrected far more errors relating to accuracy than he initially stated. Thus, cognitions, stated practices and actual practices may not always match. One may therefore wonder whether the participants in the present study actually pay as little attention to oral grammatical errors as they state they do. This issue was not explored in the data sampling of the present study, but is still an important point to recognise when examining language teachers' cognitions.

Furthermore, with regards to promoting oral proficiency, there was general agreement that expected accuracy, and thus correction, should be adapted and differentiated in accordance with the pupils' current abilities, knowledge and comprehension level, a view also found in e.g. Nicholas et al (2001) and Sheen (2004). This aligns well with the principles set forth in the Knowledge Promotion reform. In relation to this consideration, teachers emphasised creating safe and comfortable learning environments, with plenty of opportunities for practicing the English language, which arguably shows that the participating teachers value the theory of scaffolding (section 2.3.3). That learning environments should promote learners' oral activity and confidence was also found by Mori (2011) in a study of EFL teachers in Japan, thus showing that this principle is valued across countries and contexts.

Another prominent issue in the cognitions of the participating teachers was the approaches they would use in ensuring pupils' oral language development. Generally, they emphasised creating opportunities for pupils to practice the English language as much as possible. One experienced teacher (participant F23, with 7 to 12 years of teaching experience), however, stated that pupils' oral language proficiency would develop through input from a wide variety of written and read-aloud texts, a view that was more prominent in the L97 curriculum reform than in the current one. Although this is also mentioned in LK06, the concept of *text* in the current curriculum reform includes much more than written material (Udir, 2013, p. 2). This raises the question of whether this particular teacher's cognitions have developed at all during the past ten years since the Knowledge Promotion reform was introduced, or if her beliefs with regards to teaching English are at a standstill.

The incorporation of LK06 provided teachers with many new challenges, one of them being more freedom and autonomy in choosing teaching methods and materials. Many felt that that they were not ready for the new responsibilities this

entailed (e.g. Mellegård & Pettersen, 2012). Perhaps this was also true for this teacher, forcing her to rely on known and already incorporated methods of teaching. The cognitions of this teacher provides a potential example of how cognitions may fail to develop in line with new educational input and guidelines if these are not brought to the surface and examined beforehand (see also Orafi & Borg, 2009). In some ways, language teachers' development of cognitions can be compared to learners' interlanguage in becoming proficient speakers of the target language. What this means is that learners' *affective filter* (see section 2.3.1) may inhibit them from learning language if they are not ready for it. The same can be said for teachers: if they are not ready for new input and make an effort at examining their existing beliefs, new input will not have an effect on their cognitions.

Some of the participants stated that accuracy and correctness in oral output would develop mainly as a result of input and practice. These beliefs somewhat resemble that of Krashen's *comprehensible input hypothesis* (as introduced in section 2.3.1), in that these teachers believed that input targeted to the learners' comprehension levels would be sufficient for them to thrive in their second language development. These beliefs also conflict with the affirmed principles underlying studies of corrective feedback. Thus, one may question whether these participants truly value the effects corrective feedback may have on second language development, and furthermore, whether they are aware of current SLA research.

Ellis (2013) found a mismatch between pedagogical discourse and SLA research. The general consensus found in language pedagogical literature, some of which directly conflicts with research on corrective feedback, was e.g. that positive feedback is more important than negative (i.e. corrective) feedback, that correction should not have a negative impact on learners, that corrections or interruptions should be kept at a minimum or preferably be postponed during oral fluency work, and that teachers should be selective in the errors they correct so as not to *over-correct* (Ellis, 2013, p. 6). All of these pedagogical principles were found in the cognitions of the participating teachers. This suggests that the participating teachers are more driven by pedagogy than by SLA research, and perhaps also that their education has failed in incorporating central findings of SLA research. This also suggests that the participating teachers are more driven by pedagogical and practical knowledge than by language theoretical knowledge in their decision-makings. Similar findings were found in Sanchez and Borg's (2014) study, thus supporting the

statement that teaching strategies are often motivated by pedagogical concerns. Vásquez and Harvey (2010) found that when teachers were given the opportunity to see the positive effects of corrective feedback through participation in research, their cognitions changed and they were more inclined to appreciate input from research. For the Norwegian context, this means that current research should be incorporated in a relevant way in educational programmes, so that trainee and practicing teachers may value this input more, and thus try to close the gap between pedagogical practice and SLA research.

5.1.2 Corrective feedback

As mentioned in the section above, the present study is not only concerned with cognitions about issues *how much* one should correct, but also *the manner* in which one should correct in order to promote and facilitate learners' oral language proficiency. Therefore, this section will focus on discussing the cognitions found about different types of corrective feedback in relation to those found about the amount of correction.

The teachers participating in the present study found three implicit feedback types (recasts, clarification requests and elicitation) and one explicit feedback type (metalinguistic feedback) preferable if and when providing corrective feedback. Moreover, their evaluations of corrective feedback showed that ignoring errors is considered more preferable than providing explicit correction or repetition. The *most* preferable type was metalinguistic feedback and the *least* preferable type was repetition. Interestingly, when informed of the definitions of implicit or explicit feedback, only one participant stated a preference for explicit feedback. This finding will be further discussed below. The following paragraphs will discuss important matters regarding correcting pupils' erroneous output, as found in the cognitions of the participating teachers.

Several participants explained that they would refrain from correcting a pupil in front of the class, on account of avoiding embarrassment and negative effects on motivation. These reasons were also found by teachers participating in Numrich's (1996) and Roothoof's (2014) studies, as discussed in section 2.2.4. Some of the participants stated that if they believed that pupils had the ability to understand why they were being corrected, they would tell them after they had finished speaking or

after class. As Ellis (2013) mentioned, to delay feedback is a common principle found in pedagogical literature, which further supports the statement that many of the teachers in the present study value pedagogical knowledge. Thus, the timing of feedback as well as a consideration of pupils' affective responses seems to be important factors when teachers decide when and how to provide corrective feedback.

Another recurring theme worth mentioning is that of pupils' language anxiety levels. Several teachers stated that they would take their experiences and relations with pupils into account when choosing whom to correct and how to provide correction. Issues such as the teachers' perceptions of pupils' aversions to English and their reactions to correction were mentioned as determining factors. The notion that the teacher should adapt degree and form of correction to pupils' abilities and anxiety levels is supported by Rassei (2015). This study found that learners with low language anxiety benefitted from both metalinguistic feedback and recasts, but more so from the former, whereas learners with high language anxiety benefitted more from recasts than from metalinguistic feedback concerning second language development.

The consideration of learners' affective responses and anxiety levels shows that error correction in classroom contexts is a complicated matter, and thus not as straightforward as many studies suggest. To exemplify, Fagan (2015) found that when providing corrective feedback, the teacher would e.g. adjust eye gaze depending on which type she used. When providing recasts, the teacher's eye gaze would remain on the pupil being corrected so as to guarantee the pupil's attention, which would arguably more likely lead to uptake. When providing correction to more accuracy-based errors, the teacher would direct eye-gaze to others in the class than the pupil responsible for the error, so as to remove some of the attention to that learner.

Still, teachers' perceptions of learners' affective responses to feedback and learners' actual preferences towards being corrected may not always match. Studies examining this mismatch (e.g. Schulz, 2001) have found that learners appreciate being corrected, especially if they are made aware of the benefits from correction (e.g. Zhang & Rahimi, 2014) but that their teachers are more hesitant in providing correction as they fear this will affect their learners in a negative manner.

Several of the participants expressed that *constructive* feedback was important, but they did not elaborate on what this entailed in a practical sense. One participant believed that pupils are often interested in as concrete feedback as possible, while another believed that suitable feedback would help them to acquire more accurate and precise language. A third participant stated that he would correct the most severe errors. No definition or examples of “severe errors” were given, but this would presumably relate to the pupils’ expected proficiency at that time. Slemmen (2011) explains that constructive feedback is related to competence aims and to the pupils’ abilities and comprehension levels. However, the question remains whether corrective feedback is considered constructive feedback. In the paragraphs that follow, the discussion will address the different feedback types’ pedagogical traits and effectiveness.

One participant stated that she would be careful using explicit correction in front of other pupils, and would rather use recasts in classroom interaction. This belief was also found in Kamiya’s (2014) study, investigating cognitions about corrective feedback. The choice to opt for recasts rather than explicit correction could be due to the implicitness of recasts, as they are less disruptive in oral practice and fluency work (as mentioned in section 2.2.3). If this is a recurring issue in the beliefs of the rest of the sample as well, it may explain why explicit correction is not considered a preferable tool for correcting oral errors. Another explanation may be that explicit correction may sometimes bluntly provide the correct form without giving further explanations of why an utterance was incorrect. As the participating teachers are presumably driven by principles of pedagogical knowledge (as mentioned in the previous section), they may find that explicit correction does not conform to the ideals they value in their language teaching. Furthermore, these pedagogical values may explain why the vast majority of the participants explicitly stated a preference towards implicit feedback.

In this study, the rejection of explicit feedback in general conflicts with the findings of preferable feedback types (section 4.1.3). Metalinguistic feedback is explicit in form, as it points to the error in a flawed utterance. However, it may be considered less explicit than explicit correction. Moreover, one of metalinguistic feedback’s traits is that it gives hints about grammatical form or other linguistic features. Thus, a possible reason for the striking difference in preference between the two explicit feedback types may be that metalinguistic feedback is more

pedagogically suitable and perhaps a more gentle approach. The participants' assumed reliance on pedagogical knowledge might thus have an impact on the choice to opt for metalinguistic feedback rather than explicit correction.

As mentioned in section 2.2.3, research has shown that three of the most preferred feedback types (metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and clarification requests) are valuable in terms of prompting learners to self-correct and thus to notice the gap between their interlanguage structures and the target language structures. As such, one would assume that the teachers in the present study believe that these types of error correction are valuable in second language development. However, recasts are considered more preferable in fluency work, as it is less disruptive due to its implicitness. Still, recasts may be less effective in prompting self-correction as learners sometimes struggle with noticing their correctional intent (section 2.2.3). This depends somewhat on learners' abilities to spot the error treatment and understand that it is directed to their language rather than to the meaning they are trying to convey. That is, more proficient and mature learners may be more able to understand that they are being corrected than less proficient learners. However, the considerations regarding effectiveness do not seem to have a great impact on language teachers' cognitions about recasts, as this feedback type is considered second to best in the overall evaluations and furthermore yielded high agreement scores.

The beliefs and knowledge that teachers have accumulated through their own experiences as language learners may be one of the reasons behind their feedback preferences, in that they value methods of language teaching that were beneficial to their own second language development (i.e. the *apprenticeship of observation*, as introduced in section 2.1.2). However, what Moodie (2016) calls the *anti-apprenticeship of observation* may also be a deciding factor. This term denotes the significance of negative experiences as second language learners. Moodie (2016, p. 38) found that teachers' negative experiences motivated them to teach differently than what they had experienced themselves. Some of the participants in the present study did just this, namely avoid too much focus on error correction, as they had no positive experiences with that. Thus, if one were to rely solely these concepts, one would assume that the participating teachers have had positive experiences with metalinguistic feedback, recasts, elicitation and clarification requests, and negative experiences with explicit correction and repetition.

Lastly, it is prudent to discuss the discrepancies in evaluation of feedback types (e.g. table 1, section 4.3.1). These may indicate conflicting beliefs in cognitions, as mentioned by Phipps (2009). The noticeable contrast between metalinguistic feedback as the most preferable feedback type and a dislike towards the idea of explicit correction may also be a result of conflicting beliefs. It is also possible that these discrepancies are a result of limited prior technical knowledge about corrective feedback.

5.1.3 General remarks to the first research question

The proposed research hypothesis stating that Norwegian EFL teachers prefer implicit feedback types can only to some degree be verified, as the most favourable feedback type overall was metalinguistic feedback (explicit) and the least favourable was repetition (implicit).

In terms of general characteristics of Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions, this study found that pedagogical considerations are presumably very important in error correction. Choosing to correct a pupil is a multifaceted decision, based on context, perceptions of the pupils' abilities and affective responses, and learning criteria. However, due to the small sample of teachers in this study, the cognitions found cannot be said to apply to all Norwegian EFL teachers. Still, striking similarities were found compared to e.g. Roothooff's (2014) and Numrich's (1996) studies. This leads the researcher to wonder whether cognitions about error correction may be similar across a range of teaching contexts, and furthermore if this may be a result of pedagogical literature.

As mentioned in section 2.2, feedback to errors can take many forms. The types of corrective feedback preferred by this sample of Norwegian EFL teachers were metalinguistic feedback, recasts, elicitation and clarification requests. However, after investigating the more general beliefs about oral error correction, the question remains whether corrective feedback is truly a preferred method of oral error correction by the participating teachers. It is true that the feedback types mentioned here yielded great levels of agreement. Still, one must remember that the participants were explicitly made aware of these and asked to evaluate them in the present study. The researcher wonders whether these agreement rates are true representations of the participants' corrective practices, i.e. if these feedback types would be preferred if

the participants were not made aware of them. After all, as Noor et al (2010) found, corrective feedback was the least used type of feedback when compared to other types that are more associated with positive feedback. The inclusion of positive feedback was also valued by some of the participants in the present study, and as this is a common theme in pedagogical literature (see section 2.2), and as the sample generally appear to be driven by pedagogical principles, the researcher cannot be certain that corrective feedback in general is a preferred method of error correction. Still, this issue was not explicitly examined in the research design of the present study, and thus further research needs to be conducted on this matter in a Norwegian EFL teaching context.

5.2 Differences in cognitions based on professional backgrounds

The second research question was the following:

4. Are there any differences in the cognitions between groups of teachers based on their professional backgrounds?

This thus included both general cognitions about correcting erroneous oral output as well as more specific preferences towards different feedback types. It was further hypothesised that differences in e.g. formal English education, years of teaching experience and current teaching practice would show differences in cognitions regarding feedback preferences. After conducting statistical tests, none of the differences found could be considered statistically significant. This means that the differences are likely to be random as opposed to systematic, with regards to cognitions of the general population. However, they were still worth examining as they could portray an ever so slight insight into the role of education, degree of teaching experience and current teaching practice on these language teachers' cognitions. Although the investigations of the present study cannot be generalized to the entire population of Norwegian EFL teachers, they do provide unique insights into the cognitions of teachers in a Scandinavian language-teaching context.

5.2.1 Education

The first background variable to be considered was the degree of formal English education, where participants were grouped according to 1) no acquired credits, 2)

15 to 30 acquired credits, 3) 60 acquired credits and 4) in excess of 75 acquired credits. This grouping of participants was valuable because it allowed the researcher to examine whether cognitions about oral language proficiency and providing correction were fundamentally different based on the degree of education one has. The new competence lift proposed by the Norwegian Government states that teachers in primary schools should have at least 30 acquired credits in the English subject, and that teachers in secondary schools should have at least 60 acquired credits in the English subject (as mentioned in section 2.3.3). However, it would be incorrect to state that teachers with 15 credits do not hold any formal knowledge about the English subject, and thus they were grouped together with teachers with 30 credits. Moreover, the decision was made to separate those with exactly 60 credits from those with 75 credits or more, as the latter group arguably have a higher degree of subject matter knowledge, and as some had BA and MA degrees in English, these teachers could be assumed to be slightly more familiar with theories of SLA research. These were some of the reasons for the above groupings. The following paragraphs will present the differences found in cognitions based on the participants' formal English education, and discuss these in light of previous research.

With regards to the expected correctness of pupils' oral language, the medians showed similarities between the groups of 0 credits, 60 credits and 75+ credits. The medians of these groups showed that they were generally neutral to whether pupils should speak in a grammatically correct manner. The group with 15-30 credits, however, had a median of 4, illustrating that they agreed with this statement. However, this is probably attributable to randomness, as this group only accounted for four of the participants in the present study.

In terms of how much correction one should provide, all groups generally disagreed with the statement that one should correct all oral errors. However, there was a slight divide between teachers with 0 to 30 credits and teachers with 60 to in excess of 75 credits. The difference was that the latter did not agree at all (0%), whereas the former agreed slightly (22.2% and 25%). Thus, cognitions regarding this matter were more similar in terms of how many credits the participants had.

With regards to the preference of feedback types, the overall mean ranks showed that the groups were similar to one another in that they preferred ignoring errors to providing explicit correction and repetition. However, the group with the greatest number of credits (75+) also preferred ignoring an error to using clarification

requests, which stands in contrast to the other groups who generally found clarification requests as fairly preferable. Also, in spite of the fact that repetition was the least preferable feedback type in all groups, the tolerance for it increased slightly from the first to the fourth group (mean ranks 0.5 – 0.75 – 1 – 1.75). In terms of the *most* preferable feedback type, the group with no credits preferred recasts, the 15-30 credits group preferred recasts and metalinguistic feedback, and the two remaining groups (60 and 75+ credits) were identical in that they preferred metalinguistic feedback the most. Thus, a shift can be seen from preferring implicit feedback (recasts) to preferring explicit feedback (metalinguistic feedback) the more formal knowledge the teachers have of the English language and possibly of existing research through their education.

However, as the present study did not investigate the effects of research on language teacher cognitions, this statement cannot fully be validated. Furthermore, little research has been published regarding differences in levels of education, and consequently, these results do not have any ground for comparison.

Generally, the present study found that cognitions regarding corrective practices did not differ significantly based on level of education. This could be due to the rather small sample size gathered, or it could be connected to the development of cognitions. According to Woods and Cakir (2011, p. 388), theoretical knowledge derived from education is generally highly valued and considered “correct”, but rarely related to teachers’ own experiences. This could thus support why the differences found are so slight. As presented in section 2.1.2, education does not have an influence on cognitions if prior beliefs and knowledge are not made explicit by the individual, that is, if the individual’s mind-set is not made readily available for new input that may or may not conflict with existing beliefs (e.g. Borg & Albery, 2015). This also connects to the apprenticeship of observation, in that prior beliefs derived from one’s own experiences may overshadow new input. The ever so slight differences leads to questioning whether the cognitions of the participants with actual formal education (to various degrees) are formed from education or from own experiences as L2 learners and as teacher professionals. It also leads to question whether the participants were ready for new input and forced to discuss their prior knowledge and beliefs before receiving their formal English education.

Furthermore, the findings related to this variable suggest that if the Norwegian Government is to succeed in the attempt to better the quality of teaching and ensure

more knowledgeable and proficient teachers through more subject matter education, it must also endorse that before doing so, teachers need to discuss their prior cognitions and make these explicit.

5.2.2 Teaching experience

The second background variable to be investigated was that of years of teaching experience. The participants were grouped as novice (0.5 to 4 years), experienced (7 to 12 years) and very experienced (16 to 25 years) teachers. Differences in cognitions based on amount of teaching experience has been the interest of many research endeavours (as discussed in section 2.1.2), and a common finding is that novice teachers' cognitions are often less nuanced and more naïve than experienced teachers. Whether this is true for the sample in the present study will be discussed below.

With regards to whether pupils should speak in a grammatically correct manner, a gradual tendency was evident: disagreement from novice teachers to agreement from very experienced teachers. That is, all groups were somewhat neutral, but the novice teachers leaned more towards disagreement, the experienced teachers were neutral, and the very experienced teachers leaned more towards agreement. Whether these differences result from naivety and unrealistic expectations (as suggested by Borg, 2003) in novice teachers or simply from more nuanced knowledge and beliefs created from more years of experience will be discussed below.

As concerns the amount of correction one should provide to pupils' oral erroneous output, all groups generally disagreed that one should correct all errors. However, the experienced and very experienced teachers disagreed slightly less than the novice teachers. This finding is similar to that of Rahimi and Zhang's (2015) study, which found that experienced teachers favoured error correction more than novice teachers.

The above paragraphs have mentioned that novice teachers' cognitions differ from experienced and very experienced teachers with regards to more general views on oral error correction. However, this was not the case in terms of preferences towards corrective feedback. Here, novice and very experienced teachers had identical mean ranks, whereas the group of experienced teachers stand out. This

group ranked elicitation as the most preferable feedback type, compared to the other two who ranked recasts and metalinguistic feedback as most preferable.

In terms of the assumed naivety and unrealistic expectations in novice teachers' cognitions, the present study cannot assert this as a fact. They may be more cautious with regards to stating that pupils should in fact speak in a grammatically correct manner and that the teacher should correct all errors, but this is possibly due to limited experience with actual learners, a statement supported by Rahimi and Zhang (2015). These researchers found that while novice teachers depended on their own language learning experiences as a source of their cognitions, the experienced teachers explained their teaching practice as background to their cognitions (Rahimi & Zhang, 2015, p. 115). Agudo (2014) found that trainee teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback likely stemmed from own experiences as language learners, as they had limited teaching experiences of their own to relate to. Although not all of the participants had recently completed their education, both the findings of Rahimi and Zhang (2015) and Agudo (2014) demonstrate the impact of the amount of years one has as a practicing teacher.

5.2.3 Current practice of year level

The last background variable to be investigated was that of teaching of different year levels. The participants were grouped according to whether they taught primary school (year levels 5 to 7) or lower secondary school (year levels 8 to 10).

Differences were found with regards to the statement that pupils should speak in a grammatically correct manner. The primary school teachers were neutral, whereas the secondary school teachers agreed. This indicates that the teaching focus in primary and lower secondary school differs, and that correct oral language output is regarded more important in lower secondary education than in primary education. This conforms well with the competence aims after year level 7 and year level 10, where a difference is evident in terms of how accurate and fluent pupils are expected to be.

With regards to how much one should correct, however, both groups were found to disagree with the statement that one should correct all oral errors, but the secondary teachers disagreed slightly more than the primary school teachers. Thus, compared to the above statement, accuracy is more important to secondary school

teachers but they do not necessarily believe that one should correct all errors in order to achieve this.

As mentioned in section 4.3.2 in the previous chapter, the differences in themes elicited from the qualitative explanations were most noticeable when the participants were grouped according to their current practices as either primary or secondary school teachers. In relation to the first statement, approximately 67% of the teachers who believed that oral correctness depends on the year level the pupils are at were primary school teachers. In relation to the second statement, all of the participants who believed that how much one should correct is based on the year level of the pupils were primary school teachers. Furthermore, a slight majority (58%) of the participants who believed that too much error correction could negatively affect pupils' motivation and will to learn were primary school teachers. The majority (71%) of the participants who emphasised teacher-learner relations when choosing to correct errors were secondary school teachers. Lastly, 69% of the participants who considered context when adapting the degree of correction were secondary school teachers.

Differences were also found in the two groups' evaluations of corrective feedback. In terms of preferences, the mean ranks showed that primary school teachers perceive metalinguistic feedback and elicitation as most preferable, followed by recasts and ignoring the error. Thus, refraining from correcting errors was considered more preferable than providing clarification requests, explicit feedback and repetition. The secondary school teachers, however, perceived metalinguistic feedback as the most preferable feedback type, followed by recasts and elicitation. Clarification requests were considered more preferable than ignoring errors and providing explicit correction and repetition. In fact, explicit correction and ignoring the error received the same low mean rank.

From these evaluations, it is clear that primary and secondary school teachers' cognitions differ in several aspects. Apart from the focus on correctness in output, the above also shows that perhaps secondary school teachers have more tolerance towards providing more varied corrective feedback than primary school teachers, and that primary school teachers have a higher tolerance for ignoring errors than secondary school teachers. Furthermore, it seems that primary school teachers are more influenced by considerations of the expected proficiency of learners in their particular year levels, when considering how accurate oral output should be and how

much one should correct. Moreover, both groups of teachers emphasised that error correction should not negatively affect learner motivations, though the slight majority were primary school teachers. The majority of teachers who considered relations and the context of oral interaction when choosing to provide corrective feedback were secondary school teachers.

As mentioned in section 2.3.2, oral language development should gradually be characterised by accuracy and fluency, but more so for learners in lower secondary schools than for learners in primary schools. The differences in cognitions between these two groups may thus be a result of the competence aims set forth by the Knowledge Promotion reform, as this generally seems to be an influencing factor on the sample's cognitions.

5.2.4 General remarks to the second research question

Based on the second research question and hypothesis, this discussion shows that there are differences in Norwegian language teachers' cognitions based on their professional backgrounds, but that these are not statistically significant.

In terms of education, this study found that the differences were so slight that it might be questioned whether subject matter education is the deciding factor in promoting knowledgeable and proficient EFL teachers. However, the present study cannot make any grandiose claims regarding this matter as a non-probability sampling was used and only 31 teachers participated. Thus, further investigations must be made concerning differences in cognitions based Norwegian teachers' formal English education.

In terms of experience, this study found that novice teachers might be more cautious than experienced and very experienced teachers with regards to stating that pupils should in fact speak in a grammatically correct manner. However, novice teachers and very experienced teachers had identical cognitions with regards to corrective feedback.

In terms of practice of year level, this study found that the participating primary school teachers have a higher tolerance for ignoring errors than secondary school teachers, and that the latter may have a tendency for providing more types of corrective feedback.

5.3 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings of chapter 4 in light of the studies, theories and contextual background provided in chapter 2. This thesis argues to have found that the participating teachers value pedagogical knowledge and contextual factors and guidelines (i.e. LK06) when evaluating their stance on learners' oral proficiency levels and the provision of oral correction. Moreover, the discussion regarding cognitions of corrective feedback in particular showed that explicit correction and repetition were the least favourable feedback types in relation to promoting learners' English language development. Lastly, cognitions based on professional background showed most differences when the participants were grouped according to whether they taught primary or lower secondary school. This suggests that teachers' current practice indeed has an influence on their cognitions regarding how much and in which manner one should correct.

6. Conclusion

The aim of this thesis was to investigate Norwegian EFL teachers' cognitions regarding expected oral proficiency and the provision of error correction in year levels 5 to 10 in primary and lower secondary school. As such, the thesis investigated the characteristics of the participating teachers' thoughts, knowledge, beliefs and preferences concerning what they perceived to be their corrective practices. This is the essence of teacher cognition.

By means of a survey in form of a questionnaire this study has found that, generally, the cognitions of the participating teachers are characterised by the belief that the pupils' needs should be put first. What this means is that the choice to correct erroneous oral output largely depends on the pupils' skills and understanding, but also on what the pupils are expected to know at their level. The majority of the participants stated that the ability to communicate is more important than speaking in a flawless manner. A large number of the sample also believed that having the courage and opportunity to speak is more important than grammatically correct output. In fact, one may state that the majority of the Norwegian teachers who participated in the present study believe that opportunities for practicing the English language orally are more important than speaking in a native-like manner. Thus, the

findings suggested that the teachers participating in the present study were largely driven by pedagogical concerns, more so than by SLA research.

These cognitions are also reflected in the evaluations of six types of corrective feedback. The feedback types that were perceived as most preferable and thus were most likely to be used if one were to employ corrective feedback were metalinguistic feedback, recasts, elicitation, and clarification requests. Thus, one may conclude that these feedback types were considered more suitable for Norwegian learners in their second language development than the remaining two feedback types (i.e. explicit correction and repetition). This is also evident in that the sample as a whole found that ignoring an error is more preferable than using explicit correction and repetition when teaching. Whether these two feedback types are actually less used in practice than the other four is an issue to be studied in another research project.

With regards to differences in cognitions based on professional backgrounds, the present study only found small variations. In terms of experience, the present study could not validate the idea that novice teachers have more naïve conceptions of error correction than more experienced teachers do. However, this could be an explanation of the differences found with regards to notions of oral proficiency and oral correction. In terms of education, slight differences were found between teachers with 0 to 30 credits and teachers with 60 to in excess of 75 credits. This indicates that teachers are similar in their cognitions irrespectively of level of formal subject matter knowledge. With regards to year level currently taught, the differences were slightly more substantial, but similarly to the differences found in the other groupings, this study cannot claim that professional background is a definite deciding factor: the result could be due to random variation. Thus, in order to examine the influences of professional background on cognitions in Norwegian EFL teachers more closely, further research must be conducted.

A prominent and current issue to be further researched is whether different levels of formal subject knowledge from education result in fundamental differences in cognitions regarding corrective practices or second language teaching in general. Although the present study touched tentatively upon this issue, more inquiries have to be made in order to investigate whether a higher level of education is a deciding factor in enhancing the quality of teaching English in Norwegian schools. Moreover, as previously stated, one must ensure that those who are already practicing teachers have the opportunity to challenge their previous deep-rooted cognitions.

Second, it would be interesting to investigate teachers' cognitions with regards more polarised year levels (i.e. lower primary compared to lower secondary). This could show the motivations teachers have in their second language teaching, and the considerations they make in facilitating their pupils' comprehension of the English language. It could also show whether teachers are mainly driven by pedagogical concerns, and whether these pedagogical concerns change at all concerning which year levels one teach.

As this was a small-scale study consisting only of 31 participants, the cognitions found cannot generalise to the general population of EFL teachers in a Norwegian context. Thus, more research is needed in such a context in order to ascertain whether the findings of this study are an accurate for a larger sample. With regards to further research here, the researcher would suggest a dual method approach of observations and interviews. This approach could examine in depth the preferences and cognitions underlying corrective moves, as well as examine whether cognitions and practice match.

7. References

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8. Appendices

8.1 Questionnaire

Målet med denne undersøkelsen er å kartlegge norske læreres preferanser til muntlig rettende tilbakemelding (oral corrective feedback) i engelskfaget. Svarene vil bli brukt i min masteroppgave.

Undersøkelsen er helt anonym.

Takk for din deltagelse!

1. Er du mann eller kvinne?

- Mann
- Kvinne

2. Er norsk ditt morsmål?

- Ja
- Nei

3. Hvor gammel er du?

Alder: _____ år

4. Hvilken type formell utdanning har du? (For eksempel allmennlærerutdanning, hovedfag eller lignende)

- Har ikke formell utdanning
- Fyll inn: _____

5. Hvor lang utdanning har du (år)?

Fyll inn: _____ år

6. Når var du ferdig utdannet?

Fyll inn årstall: _____

7. Hvilken type formell engelskutdanning har du? (For eksempel 60 studiepoeng i grunnskolelærerutdanningen)

- Har ikke formell utdanning i engelsk
- Fyll inn: _____

8. Når var du formelt ferdig utdannet i engelsk?

Fyll inn årstall: _____

9. Hvor lenge har du, til sammen, jobbet som lærer?

Fyll inn: _____ år

10. Hvilke(t) klassetrinn underviser du primært på? Kryss av flere.

- Femte
- Sjette
- Syvende
- Åttende
- Niende
- Tiende

Denne delen handler om valg du tar i klasserommet og dine holdninger og preferanser omkring det å rette elevens muntlige språkproduksjon.

11. Studer eksempelet nedenfor, og ta stilling til følgende påstand:

”Jeg ville ha brukt denne tilbakemeldingstypen i min undervisning”.

Kryss av i hvilken grad du er enig i påstanden.

Elev: 'Norway is a small land.'

Lærer: 'You should say country.'

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig
- 4 Enig
- 5 Helt enig

12. Evaluer påstanden: ”Jeg synes det er viktig at elevene mine snakker engelsk på en grammatisk korrekt måte”

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig
- 4 Enig
- 5 Helt enig

13. Vennligst skriv en begrunnelse for det forrige svaret

14. Studer eksempelet nedenfor, og ta stilling til følgende påstand:

”Jeg ville ha brukt denne tilbakemeldingstypen i min undervisning”.

Kryss av i hvilken grad du er enig i påstanden.

Elev: 'Why you don't like sushi?'

Lærer: 'Why don't you like sushi?'

Elev: 'I don't know, I don't like it'

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig
- 4 Enig
- 5 Helt enig

15. Hva gjør du helst når elever produserer en ytring med en grammatisk feil x? Velg tre alternativer.

- Direkte påpeker feilen, for eksempel ved å si 'You should say y' eller 'Oh, you mean y.'
- Omformulerer ytringen slik at den blir riktig
- Sier 'Pardon?' eller 'What do you mean by...?'
- Spør om eleven kan finne feilen, uten å si hva feilen er
- Spør hvordan man sier x på engelsk
- Gjentar feilen, gjerne med uthevende tonefall
- Ignorerer feilen

16. En elev sier 'I goed to see my aunt yesterday'. Hva hadde du helst gjort i denne situasjonen? Velg ett alternativ.

- Ignorert feilen
- Reformulert setningen: 'I went to see my aunt yesterday'
- Prøvd å få frem den rette formen: 'How do we say go in past tense?'
- Direkte påpekt feilen: 'You should say went'
- Gjentatt feilen, gjerne med annet tonefall: 'Goed?'
- Spurt 'Can you find the error in that sentence?'
- Sagt 'Pardon me?'

17. Evaluer påstanden: "I muntlig engelsktrening bør elever gjøres oppmerksomme på alle feil de gjør.

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig
- 4 Enig
- 5 Helt enig

18. Vennligst skriv en begrunnelse for det forrige svaret

19. Studer eksempelet nedenfor, og ta stilling til følgende påstand:

"Jeg ville ha brukt denne tilbakemeldingstypen i min undervisning".

Kryss av i hvilken grad du er enig i påstanden.

Lærer: 'How often do you play video games?'

Elev: 'Five.'

Lærer: 'Pardon me?'

Elev: 'Five hours.'

Lærer: 'What do you mean by five hours?'

Elev: 'Five hours a week.'

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig

- 4 Enig
- 5 Helt enig

20. Studer eksempelet nedenfor, og ta stilling til følgende påstand:

”Jeg ville ha brukt denne tilbakemeldingstypen i min undervisning”.

Kryss av i hvilken grad du er enig i påstanden.

Elev: 'She are my friend.'

Lærer: What form of *to be* do we use with *he, she* and *it*?

Elev: 'Is.'

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig
- 4 Enig
- 5 Helt enig

21. Ranger tilbakemeldingstypene fra det du mener er *minst* riktig (1) til *mest* riktig (7) i forhold til din egen undervisning

- Reformulere en elevs ytring slik at den blir riktig
- Be eleven om å reformulere ytringen sin
- Gjenta elevens feil, gjerne med uthevende tonefall
- Ignorere feilen
- Si 'Pardon?' eller 'What do you mean?' etter feil
- Direkte påpeke feilen
- Påpeke feilen ved å gi grammatiske hint, for eksempel si 'Is it past tense?'

22. Studer eksempelet nedenfor, og ta stilling til følgende påstand:

”Jeg ville ha brukt denne tilbakemeldingstypen i min undervisning”.

Kryss av i hvilken grad du er enig i påstanden.

Elev: 'I plays football.'

Lærer: 'Plays?'

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig
- 4 Enig

- 5 Helt enig

23. Studer eksempelet nedenfor, og ta stilling til følgende påstand:

”Jeg ville ha brukt denne tilbakemeldingstypen i min undervisning”.

Kryss av i hvilken grad du er enig i påstanden.

Elev: 'The clock is ten.'

Lærer: 'It's ten o'...'

Elev: 'Ten o'clock.'

- 1 Helt uenig
- 2 Uenig
- 3 Verken enig eller uenig
- 4 Enig
- 5 Helt enig

24. Eksplisitte rettemåter påpeker direkte at eleven har sagt noe feil, mens implisitte rettemåter gir oppmerksomhet til feilen uten å direkte påpeke den. Foretrekker du implisitte eller eksplisitte rettemåter? Kryss av ett alternativ.

- Implisitte
- Eksplisitte
- Usikker

8.2 Evaluations of corrective feedback types

Participant	Explicit correction	Recasts	Clarification request	Metalinguistic feedback	Repetition	Elicitation	Three most preferable feedback types	One most preferable feedback type	Rank of least correct (1) to most correct (7)	Stated preference
M1 No credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts	Elicitation	1 Metalinguistic feedback 2 Recasts 3 Clarification request 4 Elicitation 5 Ignore flaw 6 Explicit correction 7 Repetition	Unsure
M2 15 to 30 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Primary	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts	Elicitation	1 Elicitation 2 Recasts 3 Metalinguistic feedback 4 Clarification request 5 Repetition 6 Explicit	Implicit

									correction 7 Ignore flaw	
M3 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	Explicit correction, recasts, ignore flaw	Recasts	1 Explicit correction 2 Clarification request 3 Ignore flaw 4 Elicitation 5 Repetition 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Recasts	Implicit
M4 No credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	2 Disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Clarification request, metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	1 Repetition 2 Explicit correction 3 Ignore flaw 4 Recasts 5 Elicitation 6 Clarification request 7 Metalinguistic feedback	Implicit
M5 60 credits	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	Recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	1 Metalinguistic feedback 2 Clarification request	Implicit

Novice (0.5 to 4) Secondary									3 Elicitation 4 Recasts 5 Repetition 6 Explicit correction 7 Ignore flaw	
M6 15 to 30 credits Very experienced (26 to 25) Secondary	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Metalinguistic feedback	Metalinguistic feedback	1 Recasts 2 Ignore flaw 3 Repetition 4 Explicit correction 5 Clarification request 6 Elicitation 7 Metalinguistic feedback	Unsure
M7 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	1 Strongly disagree	5 Strongly agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	Recasts, clarification request, elicitation	Recasts	1 Explicit correction 2 Repetition 3 Elicitation 4 Ignore flaw 5 Clarification request 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Recasts	Unsure

M8 More than 75 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	2 Disagree	Explicit correction, recasts, metalinguistic feedback	Metalinguistic feedback	1 Ignore flaw 2 Repetition 3 Explicit correction 4 Clarification request 5 Elicitation 6 Recasts 7 Metalinguistic feedback	Implicit
F1 More than 75 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	³	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	Recasts, metalinguistic feedback, ignore flaw	Ignore flaw	1 Elicitation 2 Ignore flaw 3 Recasts 4 Explicit correction 5 Metalinguistic feedback 6 Repetition 7 Clarification request	Implicit
F2 No credits	2 Disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	1 Strongly disagree	4 Agree	Recasts,	Recasts	1 Ignore flaw 2 Repetition 3 Clarification request	Implicit

³ In this case I would perhaps ask: 'Could you say that with a whole sentence?'. The pupils would then be reminded of the error and correct themselves.

Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary									4 Elicitation 5 Explicit correction 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Recasts	
F3 No credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary	2 Disagree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	Recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	1 Elicitation 2 Metalinguistic feedback 3 Clarification request 4 Recasts 5 Ignore flaw 6 Explicit correction 7 Repetition	Implicit
F4 60 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts	Elicitation	1 Ignore flaw 2 Clarification request 3 Explicit correction 4 Repetition 5 Recasts 6 Elicitation 7 Metalinguistic feedback	Unsure

F5 60 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Secondary	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	Recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback	Recasts	1 Explicit correction 2 Repetition 3 Ignore flaw 4 Metalinguistic feedback 5 Clarification request 6 Elicitation 7 Recasts	Implicit
F6 No credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Secondary	1 Strongly disagree	4 Agree	1 Strongly disagree	1 Strongly disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	1 Strongly disagree	Explicit correction	Elicitation	1 Recasts 2 Clarification request 3 Metalinguistic feedback 4 Explicit correction 5 Elicitation 6 Repetition 7 Ignore flaw	Implicit
F7 No credits Very experienced	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	2 Disagree	Recasts	Elicitation	1 Repetition 2 Explicit correction 3 Ignore flaw 4 Recasts 5 Clarification	Implicit

d (16 to 25) Secondary									request 6 Elicitation 7 Metalinguistic feedback	
F8 No credits Very experience d (16 to 25) Primary	4 Agree ⁴	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	Clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation	Metalinguistic feedback	1 Repetition 2 Explicit correction 3 Ignore flaw 4 Recasts 5 Elicitation 6 Clarification request 7 Metalinguistic feedback	Implicit
F9 60 credits Experience d (7 to 12) Secondary	1 Strongly disagree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts	Recasts	1 Repetition 2 Explicit correction 3 Clarification request 4 Ignore flaw 5 Elicitation 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Recasts	Implicit

⁴ I would rather have asked if we could use another word for 'land' in English.

F10 No credits Experienced (7 to 12) Primary	1 Strongly disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts, metalinguistic feedback	Recasts	1 Repetition 2 Explicit correction 3 Ignore flaw 4 Metalinguistic feedback 5 Clarification request 6 Elicitation 7 Recasts	Implicit
F11 More than 75 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Secondary	2 Disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	Recasts, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation	Recasts	1 Repetition 2 Ignore flaw 3 Explicit correction 4 Elicitation 5 Metalinguistic feedback 6 Clarification request 7 Recasts	Implicit
F12 60 credits	2 Disagree ⁵	4 Agree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts, metalinguistic feedback	Recasts	1 Recasts 2 Elicitation 3 Metalinguistic	Implicit

⁵ I would be careful using this form of correction in front of other pupils in the classroom. In front of other pupils, I would have repeated the content in the correct manner.

Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary									feedback 4 Explicit correction 5 Clarification request 6 Repetition 7 Ignore flaw	
F13 15 to 30 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Primary	1 Strongly disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts, clarification request, ignore flaw	Recasts	1 Recasts 2 Repetition 3 Elicitation 4 Ignore flaw 5 Clarification request 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Explicit correction	Implicit
F14 No credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	2 Disagree	1 Strongly disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	1 Strongly disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	Elicitation	Elicitation	1 Repetition 2 Explicit correction 3 Recasts 4 Elicitation 5 Ignore flaw 6 Clarification request 7 Metalinguistic	Implicit

									feedback	
F15 More than 75 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Secondary	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	1 Strongly disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	Ignore flaw	Elicitation	1 Ignore flaw 2 Repetition 3 Clarification request 4 Recasts 5 Explicit correction 6 Elicitation 7 Metalinguistic feedback	Explicit
F16 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Primary	2 Disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	5 Strongly agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	Metalinguistic feedback	Metalinguistic feedback	1 Repetition 2 Explicit correction 3 Recasts 4 Elicitation 5 Ignore flaw 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Clarification request	Implicit
F17 60 credits Novice (0.5)	2 Disagree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation	Elicitation	1 Ignore flaw 2 Repetition 3 Explicit correction 4 Recasts	Implicit

to 4) Secondary									5 Clarification request 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Elicitation	
F18 More than 75 credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	Clarification request	Metalinguistic feedback	1 Explicit correction 2 Repetition 3 Recasts 4 Elicitation 5 Ignore flaw 6 Clarification request 7 Metalinguistic feedback	Implicit
F19 60 credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary and secondary	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts, ignore flaw	Elicitation	1 Elicitation 2 Metalinguistic feedback 3 Clarification request 4 Ignore flaw 5 Recasts 6 Explicit correction 7 Repetition	Implicit
F20	4 Agree	2	4 Agree	2 Disagree	3 Neither	4 Agree	Explicit correction,	Recasts	1 Recasts	Implicit

No credits		Disagree			agree nor disagree		recasts, clarification request		2 Clarification request 3 Explicit correction 4 Elicitation 5 Metalinguistic feedback 6 Repetition 7 Ignore flaw	
Very experienced (16 to 25)										
Primary										
F21	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	Recasts	Recasts	1 Recasts 2 Repetition 3 Ignore flaw 4 Elicitation 5 Clarification request 6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Explicit correction	Implicit
15 to 30 credits										
Very experienced (16 to 25)										
Secondary										
F22	2 Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	4 Agree	4 Agree	Recasts, ignore flaw	Elicitation	1 Explicit correction 2 Repetition 3 Ignore flaw 4 Elicitation 5 Clarification request	Implicit
More than 75 credits										
Experienced (7 to 12)										

Secondary									6 Metalinguistic feedback 7 Recasts	
F23 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	3 Neither agree nor disagree	2 Disagree	4 Agree	Recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	1 Recasts 2 Ignore flaw 3 Elicitation 4 Clarification request 5 Metalinguistic feedback 6 Repetition 7 Explicit correction	Implicit

8.3 Qualitative evaluations and mean ranks for feedback types

Participant	Speak in a grammatically correct manner			Correct all errors			Preference of feedback types (mean ranks)		Notes
	Evaluation of statement	Explanation	Themes	Evaluation of statement	Explanation	Themes			
M1 No credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	Agree	It is important to correct in order ensure that [the pupils] don't learn the wrong words and expressions.	Communication	Agree	It is important to correct in order ensure that [the pupils] don't learn the wrong words and expressions.	Communication	4.25	Elicitation	Stated pref.: unsure.
							3.75	Recasts	
							3	Explicit correction	
							2.25	Clarification requests	
							2	Repetition	
							1.75	Metalinguistic feedback	
							1.66	Ignore error	
M2 15 to 30 credits Experienced	Agree	I basically agree that pupils should speak in a grammatically correct manner.	Pupil as agent, Supportive learning environment, Adapted	Agree	As I answered previously: Some pupils need a bit more wiggle room in order for them	Pupil as agent, Adapted education, Motivation	3.5	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly
							3.25	Elicitation	
							2.75	Explicit correction	

(7 to 12) Primary		However, I don't want to be completely rigid, as a large number of pupils have aversions towards English, and there must be some wiggle room for errors that do not affect the meaning [of the utterance].	education		not to lose motivation.		2.33	Ignore error	agrees with metalingui stic feedback (Likert).
							2.25	Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification requests	
							1.5	Repetition	
M3 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	Agree	The purpose of language is communication. Correct grammar is only on occasion important in order to communicate. Erroneous uses of	Communication	Strongly disagree	The purpose of language is still communication. Few people manage to focus on 'all the errors' they make at once. This may	Communication, Motivation, Pupil as agent, Adapted education, Relations	6.5	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit.
3.33	Ignore error								
3.25	Explicit correction								
							2.5	Elicitation, Repetition	

		<p>grammar will only on relatively rare occasions contribute to misunderstandings between the sender and the recipient. However, faulty grammar leads to disturbances that steal attention. In addition, one may be taken less seriously. The latter two points are the main reasons as to why I agree with the statement.</p>			<p>hinder the meaning of the utterance, and also remove some of the joy of communicating, namely receiving responses to the utterance. One may well respond to 'all' the grammatical errors pupils make. This way, they get a lot of concrete feedback that they can relate to. The problem, however, is that one focuses too much</p>		1.75	<p>Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification requests</p>	
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					on the flaws. In addition, one must take the relationship one has with the pupil into account. Some pupils take poorly to errors being pointed out.				
M4 No credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	Disagree	The most important thing is that the pupils dare to speak English. The grammar will then follow.	Courage to speak, Grammar as result	Disagree	The most important thing is that they dare to speak.	Courage to speak	5	Metalinguistic feedback	Stated pref.: implicit.
							4.75	Clarification requests	
							4.5	Elicitation	
							1.75	Recasts	
							1	Explicit correction, Ignore error	
							0.75	Repetition	

M5 60 credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Secondary	Disagree	I think it is important that the pupils get to explore and play with the language in a supportive arena, with possibilities for making mistakes and receiving constructive feedback.	Opportunity for output, Courage to speak, Supportive learning environment, Adapted education	Strongly disagree	To have all errors pointed out can have a demoralising effect [on the pupil].	Motivation, Pupil as agent	3.75	Clarification requests	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly disagrees with explicit correction (Likert).
							3.5	Metalinguistic feedback, Elicitation	
							3.25	Recasts	
							2.33	Ignore error	
							2.25	Repetition	
M6 15 to 30 credits Very experienced (26 to 25)	Agree	The most important thing is that the pupils are able to make themselves understood (communication). Of course, the	Communication	Disagree	Only errors that occur consistently. Pupils are often interested in as concrete feedback as possible.	Context	6.75	Metalinguistic feedback	Stated pref.: unsure.
							2.75	Elicitation	
							2.5	Clarification requests	
							2.25	Explicit correction	

Secondary		more grammatically correct the language [output] is, the easier it is to make oneself understood, although other factors such as pronunciation, intonation and vocabulary also have an effect. Still, I have nearly completely abandoned teaching grammar [explicitly].					1.5	Recasts	
							1	Repetition	
							0.67	Ignore error	
M7 60 credits	Agree	I think the aim is grammatically correct English	Courage to speak, Opportunity for	Strongly disagree	Pupils must sometimes be made aware of	Adapted education, Pupil as agent,	6.75	Recasts	Stated pref.: unsure.
							4.25	Clarification requests	

Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary		[output]. However, on the way to reaching that aim, the most important thing is that the pupils speak. If the focus rests too heavily on the grammar, the pupils will be hesitant to speak.	output, Supportive learning environment		the errors they make, but not always and not every time. It is the teachers' job to know the pupil and to understand when correction is preferable. Some pupils take well to feedback often, while others become passive by being corrected.	Relations, Context	3.75	Elicitation	
							2.75	Metalinguistic feedback	
							1.33	Ignore error	
							1	Repetition	
							0.5	Explicit correction	
M8 More than 75 credits Experienced (7 to 12)	Agree	This is true to a certain degree. The most important thing to me, in my teaching, is that the pupils are able to	Communication, Courage to speak, Pupils as agent, Supportive learning	Neither agree nor disagree	Pupils should be made aware of the most severe errors they make. To point out every error they make at	Context, Motivation	6.75	Metalinguistic feedback	Stated pref.: implicit.
4.75	Recasts								
4	Explicit correction								
2.5	Clarification								

Secondary		communicate in English. Positive reinforcement is a central part of my teaching and if the pupil is only just coping with daring to express him/herself in English, this will be my focus area. If I am confident that the pupil will be able to handle feedback regarding errors, I will guide his/her attention to it.	environment, Adapted education		the same time will possibly destroy the pupils' motivation.			requests	
							1.5	Elicitation	
							1	Repetition	
							0.33	Ignore error	
F1 More than 75 credits	Neither agree nor disagree	That depends on the pupil's starting point [e.g. skills	Communication, Courage to speak,	Disagree	In primary school (year levels 5 to 7) it is important that	Context, Year level, Opportunity for	5.33	Ignore error	Stated pref.: implicit.
							4.5	Metalinguistic feedback	

Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary		and abilities]. If one knows the grammar, one can strive to use it correctly in oral speech. Still, the most important thing is to communicate well and make oneself understood. To have the courage to speak is more important than speaking in a grammatically correct manner.	Pupil as agent, Adapted education		the pupils try to speak as much English as possible. It is more important to try to speak than that what is being said is entirely correct. I do not want to embarrass anyone by pointing out his or her errors in front of the class, but if pupils have the ability and knowledge to understand, I can point out their errors one-on-one. Things that	output, Courage to speak, Supportive learning environment, Pupil as agent, Adapted education, Relations	4	Recasts	Clarification requests not evaluated in Likert scale (would rather use elicitation) , but placed as most pref. in rank.
							3	Repetition	
							2.5	Explicit correction	
							1.75	Clarification requests, Elicitation	

					<p>we have worked a lot on can be pointed out. For instance, I expect that pupils in 6th grade know the pronunciation of – ed in past tense. Pronunciation of the word ‘island’ will be corrected when we have previously worked on it. However, it all depends on the context or situation and the pupil saying it. It is a shame to interrupt when a pupil is in the</p>				
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					middle of a presentation or similar. In such case, I will tell them afterwards.				
F2 No credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary	Agree	The most important thing to me is that pupils are able to make themselves understood in English, and that they understand the grammatical rules. I correct them if they utter words or grammar in a flawed manner.	Communication	Neither agree nor disagree	Highly proficient pupils should be made aware of all the errors they make. Pupils that are not very proficient, that do not wish to speak English, or that do not speak at all could be demotivated by being corrected at every flaw.	Motivation, Pupil as agent, Adapted education	6.75	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly disagrees with using repetition (Likert).
							2.5	Elicitation	
							2.25	Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification requests	
							1.75	Explicit correction	
							0.75	Repetition	
							0.33	Ignore error	
F3	Disagree	Considering that I	Year level,	Disagree	I think pupils	Context,	4.25	Recasts	Stated

No credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary		teach 5 th grade, I can not expect pupils to speak English in a grammatically correct manner. I want to create an interest for trying to speak rather than create barriers.	Courage to speak, Supportive learning environment		should be made aware if they make mistakes concerning practice words or other things in focus of a certain period. I imagine that the will to learn will decrease if all errors are corrected.	Motivation	3.75	Metalinguistic feedback	pref.: implicit.
							3.5	Elicitation	
							3.25	Clarification requests	
							2.5	Repetition	
							1.75	Explicit correction	
F4 60 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	Disagree	It is important to lay a good foundation early in education. But that pupils are able to use the language is more important than it being a hundred	Opportunity for output	Disagree	This will prevent or discourage the pupils from speaking English, and they will dread/fear taking initiative towards me.	Courage to speak, Motivation, Relations	4.75	Elicitation	Stated pref.: unsure.
							4.5	Recasts	
							3.25	Metalinguistic feedback	
							1.5	Explicit correction	
							1.25	Clarification	

		per cent correct constantly.						requests, Repetition	
							0.33	Ignore error	
F5 60 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Secondary	Neither agree nor disagree	It is important, but the most important thing is that they can make themselves understood.	Communication	Disagree	Not all errors. Choose the most important ones.	Context	6.75	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit.
							4.5	Clarification requests	
							4.25	Metalinguistic feedback	
							3	Elicitation	
							2	Repetition	
							1	Ignore error	
							0.5	Explicit correction	
F6 No credits Very	Agree	[No evaluation]		Agree	I agree. But since one knows the pupils, one also knows who to	Pupil as agent, Adapted education, Relations	4	Elicitation	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly
							3.75	Explicit correction	
							2.75	Repetition	

experienced (16 to 25) Secondary					correct and who would benefit from being corrected.		2.33	Ignore error	disagree w/explicit correction , clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation (Likert).
							1.75	Metalinguistic feedback, Recasts	
							1.5	Clarification requests	
F7 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Primary	Neither agree nor disagree	Grammar should be correct in cases of oral presentations, where pupils have worked on it. In a classroom discussion, where	Context, Communication	Disagree	The most important thing with regards to oral English is to make oneself understood. I do not think it is necessary to	Communication, Motivation	4.25	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit.
3.75	Elicitation								
3.25	Metalinguistic feedback								
2.25	Clarification requests								
1.5	Explicit								

		utterances tend to be impulsive, the most important thing is that they are able to make themselves understood.			restrain/suffocate the will to learn by pointing out literally every error.			correction	
							1	Ignore error	
							0.75	Repetition	
F8 No credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	Agree	[No evaluation]		Neither agree nor disagree	I believe that the most important thing in primary school is to get the pupils to like to read and speak English, and to produce texts. I only correct errors if these are related to a topic we have previously worked on and that I	Context, Year level, Opportunity for output, Motivation, Grammar as a result	6.75	Metalinguistic feedback	Stated pref.: implicit.
							4.75	Clarification requests	Commented that she would rather use elicitation in evaluation of explicit correction .
							3.25	Elicitation	
							2.5	Recasts	
							2	Explicit correction	
							1.75	Repetition	
							1	Ignore error	

					expect the pupils to know.				
F9 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	Neither agree nor disagree	This depends on the situation/context and on the pupil. In formal presentation or where the pupil is being evaluated formally (e.g. oral examination), then yes. In conversations or discussion about topics; not necessarily.	Context	Strongly disagree	Like the previous comment: this depends on the context and on the pupil. One needs to know ones pupils and know how they will react to being corrected.	Context, Pupil as agent, Relations, Adapted education	6.75	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly disagree s with explicit correction (Likert).
							3	Metalinguistic feedback	
							2.75	Elicitation	
							1.5	Clarification requests	
							1.33	Ignore error	
0.75	Explicit correction, Repetition								
F10 No credits Experienced	Neither agree nor disagree	It is important that they learn to speak in a grammatically correct manner in	Grammar as a result, Year level, Courage to	Strongly disagree	If one corrects all the errors pupils make, they will be discourages.	Motivation, Pupil as agent, Supportive learning	6.75	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit.
							3.5	Metalinguistic feedback	
							3	Elicitation	

(7 to 12) Primary		time. When they are young, it is more important that they are comfortable with expressing themselves orally. In such case, it is more important that they feel safe and confident and dare to speak, than everything being grammatically correct. The more they speak, the better pronunciation and grammar will become.	speak, Supportive learning environment		Many are insecure when speaking English, and to find the right words can be difficult for them. If one in addition should point out every error, they will be less willing to speak the next time.	environment, Courage to speak	2.75	Clarification requests	Strongly disagrees with explicit correction (Likert).
							1	Repetition, Ignore error	
							0.75	Explicit correction	
F11	Neither	That depends on	Context,	Neither	That depends on	Pupil as agent,	6.5	Recasts	Stated

<p>More than 75 credits</p> <p>Very experienced (16 to 25)</p> <p>Secondary</p>	<p>agree nor disagree</p>	<p>the communication situation.</p> <p>Grammatically correct can be many things. A miss in concord is not a problem, but incorrect choices of words are more problematic.</p>	<p>Communication</p>	<p>agree nor disagree</p>	<p>where the pupil is in his/her development.</p>	<p>Adapted education</p>			<p>pref.: implicit.</p> <p>Strongly agrees with metalinguistic feedback (Likert).</p>
							4.5	Metalinguistic feedback	
							4	Elicitation	
							2.75	Clarification requests	
							1.5	Repetition	
							1	Explicit correction	
0.67	Ignore error								
<p>F12</p> <p>60 credits</p> <p>Novice (0.5 to 4)</p> <p>Primary</p>	<p>Agree</p>	<p>That the pupils speak English is more important than the language being grammatically correct. This will come gradually</p>	<p>Grammar as a result, Opportunity for output</p>	<p>Disagree</p>	<p>Speaking English is a sensitive matter in primary and lower secondary school. When giving feedback, the teacher should</p>	<p>Year level, Motivation, Pupil as agent</p>	5.25	Recasts	<p>Stated pref.: implicit. Comment to explicit correction : Would be careful</p>
							3.25	Metalinguistic feedback	
							2.75	Clarification requests	
							2.33	Ignore error	
							2.25	Repetition	

		through use of the language.			point to both positive things and things that could have been better (formative assessment). This should be limited, ensuring that the pupil does not become overwhelmed and discouraged.		2	Elicitation	using this form in front of other pupils in the classroom . In such case, would use recasts instead.
							1.75	Explicit correction	
F13 15 to 30 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Primary	Disagree	The most important thing is that the pupils get to practice as much English as possible. The importance of speaking in a	Year level, Opportunity for output	Disagree	That one should not kill all motivation is self-explanatory.	Motivation	5.25	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly disagrees with explicit
							4.5	Clarification requests	
							3.67	Ignore error	
							2.25	Metalinguistic feedback, Elicitation	

		grammatically correct manner depends somewhat on the year level the pupil is at.					2	Explicit correction	correction (Likert).
							1	Repetition	
F14 No credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	Neither agree nor disagree	It is important that those who hold general background knowledge should strive for correct use of grammar in order to make themselves understood and avoid misunderstandings. At the same time, it is important for some to be able to actually use the	Communication, Opportunity for output, Courage to speak, Pupil as agent, Adapted education	Disagree	It is more important to discover tendencies in the errors made, so that the pupils can work systematically at understanding these. To get stuck on word-by-word or sentence-by-sentence without understanding the big picture does	Context	5.5	Elicitation	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly agrees w/metalinguistic feedback. Strongly disagrees w/recasts and repetition (Likert).
							3.25	Metalinguistic feedback	
							2.75	Clarification requests	
							1.67	Ignore error	
							1.25	Explicit correction, Recasts	
							0.75	Repetition	

		language, even though it may not be entirely correct.			little use.				
F15 More than 75 credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Secondary	Agree	Good [suitable] feedback helps the pupil to acquire a more precise language. A good foundation is important. That the pupils want to speak, even if the grammar is not always correct is also important. It is important to practice the language orally and to be active without constantly being interrupted.	Communication, Opportunity for output, Courage to speak, Supportive learning environment	Strongly disagree	One may very well draw the pupils' attention to errors, but not all errors. I have no positive experience with that. Pupils learn best when they experience comprehension. The teacher should choose what to give feedback on depending on focus, assessment criteria and each	Context, Motivation, Supportive learning environment, Pupil as agent, Adapted education, Relations	4	Elicitation	Stated pref.: explicit. Strongly disagrees with repetition (Likert).
							2.75	Explicit correction	
							2.67	Ignore error	
							2.5	Recasts	
							2.25	Metalinguistic feedback, Clarification requests	
0.75	Repetition								

		Good communication situations with lots of oral pupil activity are at least as important as the teacher's feedback on one specific word.			pupil's curricular knowledge and abilities.				
F16 60 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Primary	Disagree	Oral language should gradually be characterised by correct use of grammar. At this level, however, it is more important that the pupils are able to orally use the vocabulary they	Year level, Communication, Opportunity for output, Pupil as agent, Adapted education	Disagree	Not at this level [primary]. Correction must, as everything else, be adapted to the individual. I try to focus on different elements every week, and especially point to	Context, Year level, Pupil as agent, Adapted education	6.25	Metalinguistic feedback	Stated pref.: implicit. Strongly agrees with clarification requests
							3.25	Clarification requests	
							2.25	Elicitation	
							1.67	Ignore error	
							1.5	Recasts	
							1	Repetition	

		have. One may correct some of the more proficient pupils in this manner.			these both in oral and written production. Many other things will then be more or less ignored, unless these are things that I expect them to know at that point in time.		0.75	Explicit correction	(Likert).
F17 60 credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Secondary	Agree	Yes, the aim is to speak in a grammatically correct manner, but this is something to work towards and not something that most pupils master in year 8. The most central matter is	Year level, Communication	Disagree	First and foremost, it is important that one creates a safe classroom [environment] where the pupils want to be orally active. If one should point out	Context, Opportunity for output, Courage to speak, Motivation, Supportive learning environment	6.75	Elicitation	Stated pref.: implicit.
							4.75	Metalinguistic feedback	
							4.5	Clarification requests	
							1.75	Recasts	
							1.5	Explicit correction	
							1.25	Repetition	

		nevertheless that the pupils make themselves understood and are able to communicate with others in English.			every error, they will neglect to speak in the end. One should give guidance on the most important grammatical errors and leave the rest be. Focus on that the pupils should try to answer and have conversations with each other about how to improve the answer or reformulate so that the utterance will be correct.		0.33	Ignore error	
F18 More than	Disagree	Because the fact that they actually	Courage to speak	Disagree	Again: I think it is important that the	Courage to speak,	5	Metalinguistic feedback	Stated pref.:

75 credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary		dare to speak the language is as important.			pupils dare to use the language, and in such case, they need encouragement.	Motivation	3.75	Clarification requests	implicit.
							2.5	Elicitation	
							2	Repetition	
							1.75	Explicit correction	
							1.67	Ignore error	
							1.25	Recasts	
F19 60 credits Novice (0.5 to 4) Primary and secondary	Neither agree nor disagree	It is important that they are able to speak in a grammatically correct manner. Still, they can make themselves understood in English without being grammatically proficient.	Communication	Disagree	[No evaluation]		3.75	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit.
3.67	Ignore error								
3.5	Elicitation								
3	Explicit correction								
2	Metalinguistic feedback, Repetition								
1.5	Clarification requests								

F20 No credits Very experienced (16 to 25) Primary	Neither agree nor disagree	Of course I want my pupils to express themselves in the best possible way. But then there are those who struggle with acquiring a new language. In such cases, I must look the other way with regards to oral correctness.	Pupil as agent, Adapted education	Disagree	One cannot discourage the pupils.	Motivation	4.25	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit.
							4	Explicit correction	
							3.75	Clarification requests	
							2.5	Elicitation	
							2.33	Ignore error	
							2.25	Repetition	
F21 15 to 30 credits Very experienced (16 to 25)	Agree	When it comes to grammar, the aim should be to speak in an approximately English native-like manner. One must have a standard to		Disagree	In such cases, one will likely remove the pupils' confidence with regards to being orally active.	Motivation, Courage to speak	5.25	Recasts	Stated pref.: implicit.
							3.25	Explicit correction	
							3	Metalinguistic feedback	
							2.75	Clarification requests	

Secondary		follow.					2.5	Elicitation	
							1	Ignore error	
							0.75	Repetition	
F22 More than 75 credits Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	Disagree	The most important parts of the English subject are content and that pupils have a sufficient vocabulary. For this reason, I regard vocabulary and curricular content as more important than both pronunciation and grammar. Still, one should work on developing all	Communication	Strongly disagree	Pupils should in no way be made aware of every error they make, regardless of teaching subject. Of course, they should be made aware of errors in order to learn these properly, but in my experience a strong focus on errors with	Context, Grammar as a result, Courage to speak, Motivation, Pupil as agent	4.25	Elicitation	Stated pref.: implicit.
							4	Recasts	
							3.33	Ignore error	
							2.5	Metalinguistic feedback	
							2.25	Clarification requests	
							2	Repetition	

		aspects of oral English.			regards to oral communication is not beneficial. Many pupils experience that speaking a lot of English is scary, and too much correction will not help them. I think, however, that grammar skills will develop through written work, work on grammar and work with texts, and this will be passed on to oral production.		0.75	Explicit correction	
F23 60 credits	Neither agree nor	Many pupils dread speaking English in	Grammar as a result,	Disagree	Some pupils will be crushed if they	Motivation, Pupil as agent,	4.25	Clarification requests	Stated pref.:

Experienced (7 to 12) Secondary	disagree	class because they are afraid of making errors. My aim is first to encourage them to DARE to speak and use the language actively. In turn, one can work on achieving grammatically correct output. If the pupils are exposed to read-aloud texts, films and dramatization, then the language will develop naturally. Still, they should know the difference between	Year level, Communication, Opportunity for output, Courage to speak, Supportive learning environment		constantly hear that everything they do is wrong. It is better to focus on one or two areas at a time.	Adapted education	4	Metalinguistic feedback, Elicitation	implicit. Strongly disagree s with explicit correction (Likert).
							2.75	Recasts	
							2.25	Repetition	
							2	Explicit correction	
							0.67	Ignore error	

		present and past tense and be able to pronounce some central sounds and high-frequency words. My main focus is nevertheless: use the language! If one conjugates a word or two incorrectly, chances are one will still be understood by a native speaker of English.							
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8.4 Explanations of themes

Themes regarding statement 1:

“That pupils speak in a grammatically correct manner is important to me”.

Theme	Description of theme
Grammatical correctness as a result of input and practice	The teacher believes that the pupil’s oral proficiency level and its grammatical correctness will improve by speaking the language consistently and by reading, writing and working with grammar.
Context	Whether the pupil should speak in a grammatically correct manner is a matter of context.
Year level	The teacher distinguishes between the degree of focus on correctness and feedback according to which year level they teach.
Communication	The teacher places emphasis on the importance of being able to communicate. The teacher wants teach how to communicate rather than to speak in a perfect, flawless manner. The important thing is that the pupils are able to make themselves understood in English.
Opportunity for oral output	The teacher emphasises that the fact that pupils have the opportunity to speak English as much as possible is important.
Courage to speak	The teacher explains that the fact that pupils dare to speak and have the opportunity to speak and explore the language is important in teaching oral English.
The pupil as agent	The knowledge and understanding the teacher has about the pupil’s individual background, and how this affects

	how the teacher facilitates the pupil's social and curricular learning, development and growth.
Supportive learning environment	The teacher emphasises that a supportive learning environment, where pupils are able to express themselves safely, is important.
Adapted education	The teacher explains that s/he adapts teaching and feedback to the pupil's level and abilities. For instance, the teacher may choose to differentiate tasks and feedback. This may also include the different teaching methods that suit the individual's needs.

Themes regarding statement 2:

“Pupils should be made aware of all mistakes they make in oral English training”.

Theme	Description of theme
Context	The choice the teacher makes to correct or not to correct errors is a matter of context. This may also include the choice to only correct errors that occur consistently, or that are especially severe (in terms of relaying a message). This may also include the timing of feedback. Moreover, this theme also includes what the teacher expects the pupils to know at their year level.
Year level	The teacher explains that the amount of feedback depends on which year level s/he teaches.
Communication	The teacher places emphasis on the importance of being able to communicate. The teacher wants teach how to communicate rather than to speak in a perfect, flawless manner. The important thing is that the pupils are able to make themselves understood in English.

Grammatical correctness as a result of input and practice	The teacher believes that the pupil's oral proficiency level and its grammatical correctness will improve by speaking the language consistently and by reading, writing and working with grammar.
Opportunity for output	The teacher emphasises that it is important for the pupils to speak as much English as possible.
Courage to speak	The teacher explains that the fact that pupils dare to speak and have the opportunity to speak and explore the language is important in teaching oral English.
Motivation	The teacher explains that error correction is adapted so that it does not have a negative effect on the pupils' motivation, will to learn or confidence.
Supportive learning environment	The teacher emphasises that a supportive learning environment, where pupils are able to express themselves safely, is important to consider when choosing to provide correction.
Pupil as agent	The knowledge and understanding the teacher has about the pupil's individual background, and how this affects how the teacher facilitates the pupil's social and curricular learning, development and growth.
Adapted education	The teacher explains that s/he adapts teaching and feedback to the pupil's level. For instance, the teacher may choose to differentiate tasks and feedback. This may also include the different teaching methods that suit the individual's needs and abilities.
Pupil-teacher relations	Teaching and feedback depends on the relation the teacher has to the pupil. E.g., the teacher knows through his/her relation how to cope with and give feedback to each pupil. The relation the teacher has to the pupil has an effect on how the teacher approaches the pupil when teaching.

8.5 Outcome of statistical tests

GROUPS: FORMAL ENGLISH EDUCATION

Kruskal-Wallis tests of statistical significance

Likert data

	P-value	Test statistic	Degrees of freedom (df)
Explicit correction	0.2213	4.401	3
Metalinguistic feedback	0.4629	2.57	3
Recasts	0.3166	3.532	3
Clarification requests	0.6416	1.679	3
Elicitation	0.3022	3.647	3
Repetition	0.2680	3.94	3

1 to 7 rank ordered data

	P-value	Test statistic	Degrees of freedom (df)
Explicit correction	0.1041	6.159	3
Metalinguistic feedback	0.5515	2.102	3
Recasts	0.0425	8.176	3
Clarification requests	0.4087	2.891	3
Elicitation	0.8951	0.606	3
Repetition	0.9398	0.4023	3
Ignore error	0.2364	4.243	3

GROUPS: TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Kruskal-Wallis tests of statistical significance

Likert data

	P-value	Test statistic	Degrees of freedom (df)
Explicit correction	0.0898	4.82	2
Metalinguistic feedback	0.9106	0.1873	2
Recasts	0.5178	1.316	2
Clarification requests	0.7924	0.4655	2
Elicitation	0.557	1.17	2
Repetition	0.5963	1.034	2

1 to 7 rank ordered data

	P-value	Test statistic	Degrees of freedom (df)
Explicit correction	0.0624	5.548	2
Metalinguistic feedback	0.3109	2.337	2
Recasts	0.2808	2.54	2
Clarification requests	0.8007	0.4444	2
Elicitation	0.0805	5.038	2
Repetition	0.1293	4.091	2
Ignore error	0.4407	1.639	2

GROUPS: YEAR LEVEL

Mann-Whitney U test of statistical significance

Likert data

	P-value	Test statistic
Explicit correction	0.344	135
Metalinguistic feedback	0.577	99.5
Recasts	0.572	125
Clarification requests	0.788	110.5
Elicitation	0.407	128.5
Repetition	0.483	96

1 to 7 rank ordered data

	P-value	Test statistic
Explicit correction	0.614	125
Metalinguistic feedback	0.733	104
Recasts	0.260	85.5
Clarification requests	0.394	133
Elicitation	0.259	85.5
Repetition	0.7	122
Ignore error	0.213	142.5