Oral Feedback in English Language Learning: Teachers' and Students' Beliefs and Practices

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Abstract

Within the general educational context and in the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) context, feedback is considered as one of the most powerful tools to improve student learning. Not all feedback, however, has the capacity to promote this improvement. While there have been a number of studies on feedback, little is known about the nature of teachers' and students' beliefs and practices of *oral* feedback and how these influence students' spoken English language learning. Framed within a qualitative interpretive inquiry, this case study aimed to generate an in-depth understanding about oral feedback – more specifically, the beliefs and practices about oral feedback of three Year 11 teachers and six of their students (18 students in total) in three different senior high schools in Indonesia. Data were collected through semi structured interviews, a series of observations and artefacts. Interview data were analysed using thematic analysis and the datasets from observations were analysed using two frameworks to identify the types of feedback the teachers used and the students' responses to this feedback. Findings revealed that teachers and students believed oral feedback had a key role to play in improving students' spoken English language learning, and the way this improvement could be achieved was through the teacher's corrections of mistakes and use of praise. Students thought of their teachers as knowledgeable experts whose role was to tell them about the correctness of their oral utterances. Collectively, these beliefs are closely linked to a traditional view of learning and feedback. Notwithstanding this finding, a number of students wanted opportunities to engage in dialogue with their teachers regarding the feedback they received– this suggested they may be developing a more contemporary understanding of feedback and a sense of feedback literacy.

Dedication

To all teachers who wants to understand and develop their feedback practice

Acknowledgement

Ehara taku toa, he takitahi, he toa takitini

[My success should not be bestowed onto me alone, as it was not an individual success but success of a collective]

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List of Abbreviations

BSNP	Board of National Education Standard
CA	Conversation Analysis
CBC	Competency-Based Curriculum
CEDSC	Center for Educational Data and Statistics and Culture
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EPI	English Proficiency Index
K-13	Curriculum 2013
MoEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
SBC	School-Based Curriculum

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter introduces the study which was focused on the teachers' and students' beliefs, practices and experiences of oral feedback. The chapter begins by stating the researcher's interest in the research topic. Then, it briefly outlines the background to the study and a description of how English language learning is undertaken in Indonesian senior high schools. The chapter concludes by outlining the significance of the study, the research aims and questions and the organisation of the thesis chapters.

Researcher's Interest in the Topic

English has the status of a foreign language in Indonesia. It was the first foreign language introduced into the Indonesia curriculum soon after the country's independence from the Dutch in 1945 (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). While under the most recent curriculum English is not a compulsory subject in primary schools (Ministry of Education and Culture [MoEC], 2013), the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) used to start early in primary schools through to senior high schools and university. According to Lie (2007), the reasons for introducing the English language early in schools are to prepare students to read English texts as they reach the university level and compete in the job market. However, despite the long years of studying English in a formal schooling system, students' language competence is still very low. Only a small number of students are able to communicate in English in a lucid manner (Lie, 2007). While the government does not issue official data on Indonesian students' English proficiency levels (Renandya et al., 2018), the English Proficiency Index[1] (EPI) report in 2017 showed Indonesia was in the low-proficiency rank. According to the report, Indonesia ranked 39th out of 80 participating countries and 10th out of 20 Asian countries. A newer EPI report issued in 2020 showed Indonesia's EPI was even lower- it ranked 74th out of 100 countries and 15th out of 24 Asian countries (English First, 2020).

In a recent study investigating Indonesian university students' English speaking ability, Wahyuningsih and Afandi (2020) found some problems that hinder students from speaking English well. Their study involved four English language lecturers and thirty students. The findings showed these problems included students' lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge and mastery, inability to pronounce correctly, minimum English

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[1] EPI is a language assessment issued by English First (EF) Education which has branches worldwide.

language exposure, lack of confidence and lack of language development in the curriculum. Such findings have resonated with me, based on my own experience as an English language teacher at an Indonesian university. The majority of my students had poor English language skills. They found speaking challenging as they did not know how to pronounce most English words or construct grammatically correct sentences. Students also had a limited range of vocabulary. I often heard teachers complaining about how their students were not engaged in a lesson and could not express themselves in English during the class. Then a question popped up in my head 'what could possibly be improved in the classroom to help these students?'

In 2015 during the second semester of my Master's degree program, I took a course on classroom discourse and teacher development. One day, we discussed the importance of teacher talk, mainly the role feedback plays in classroom interactions. As a result of this discussion, I began to ponder if Indonesian teachers' feedback practice required improvement. Consequently, when it came to undertaking a piece of independent research, I decided to conduct a study investigating the types of teachers' oral feedback that promote students' participation and learning opportunities in two senior high schools in a suburb in Indonesia. In the study, I video-recorded three English language teachers' feedback practices and analysed the data from the lens of Conversation Analysis (CA), an established method to analyse talk-in-interaction (ten Have, 1999; Wooffitt, 2005). Key findings from my study included feedback which provided prompts encouraged participation and created more learning opportunities than the one that provided direct corrections to students' errors (Purwandari, 2015). These findings have triggered a self-reflection on my practice in the past. From there, the idea of investigating feedback flourished. Using my personal experience and theoretical knowledge, I have tried to problematise the practice of feedback. My readings on the topic have led to a conclusion that teachers play a significant role in making the feedback process more meaningful for students. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to recognize the potential that feedback could bring to support students' learning. Of course, teachers' beliefs are one of the most influential factors worth researching because their beliefs likely influence their feedback practice.

Background to the Study: The Indonesia Schooling Context

Structure of Schooling

Similar to many other countries, Indonesia has two types of schools: public and private. Centre for Educational Data and Statistics and Culture (CEDSC) (2017) reported that the number of public schools at the primary, junior high and senior high school levels was 132,022, 22,803 and 10,001 respectively. The number of private schools reached 15,481 at

the primary, 14,960 at a junior high level and 16,379 at a senior high school level (CEDSC, 2017). This number means that there are more private than public schools in total. Public schools and most private schools implement a national curriculum governed by the MoEC, and this curriculum prescribes textbooks and assessment systems. Public schools and most private schools adopt a co-educational model where male and female students learn together in the same school and classroom. Students typically sit in pairs in rows with a maximum number of 40 students in one classroom. Students are free to choose whom they want to sit with, but on certain occasions or for some reasons teachers will dictate pairs.

The objective of education in Indonesia is to achieve the national education goals which are stated in the constitution as follows:

> "The function of national education is to develop and shape the character and nation's dignified civilization in an effort to enrich the life of the nation, aimed at improving students' potential in order to become individuals who are pious, noble in character, healthy, knowledgeable, skillful, creative, independent, and democratic and responsible" (Article 3, Law Number 20 Year 2003 about National Education System)

Law Number 20 Year 2003 further states that Indonesian citizens aged 7 to 15 must attend basic or primary education. There are three levels of formal education: primary, secondary and higher education. The primary level includes six years of primary school (Grades 1-6) and three years of junior high school (Grades 7-9). After finishing junior high school, students continue to the secondary or senior high schools for three years (Grades 10-12). Students do not automatically progress to the higher grade; instead, students' test scores are used to determine whether a student can move to the next grade or not. In each grade, students have a daily test, a mid-semester test and an end-semester test. Furthermore, the results of the national examination at the end of each level (Grade 6, Grade 9 and Grade 12) determine if a student can progress to the next level. In both school and national examinations, a large proportion of questions are in a multiple-choice form, with a few phrased as open-ended questions. The implementation of these examinations has gained a lot of criticism as it forces teachers to focus on teaching students to memorise information for the sake of getting good scores in the test (Zulfikar, 2009).

Under the current curriculum, the curriculum 2013 (the K-13), subjects in primary school are structured under two clusters (MoEC, 2012). Cluster A contains subjects oriented to

cognitive and affective aspects of competence such as Religious Studies, Civic Education, Indonesian language and Mathematics. Meanwhile, Cluster B emphasises the affective and psychomotor aspects such as Arts and Physical Education. A similar structure applies to junior high school but with three more subjects added to Cluster A (Natural Science, Social Science and English) and another subject included in Cluster B (Crafts) (MoEC, 2013). All these subjects are also compulsory in senior high school level, with the addition of Indonesian History, irrespective of the major. In senior high school, students can choose from three majors: Mathematics and Natural Science, Social Science and Language. Table 1 summarises the curriculum structure of subjects in each level.

Table 1

The Structure of Subjects in Primary, Junior High and Senior High School

Primary school	Junior high school	Senior high school
Cluster A	**Cluster A**	**Compulsory**
Religious Studies	Religious Studies	Religious Studies
Civic Education	Civic Education	Civic Education
Indonesian Language	Indonesian Language	Indonesian Language
Mathematics	Mathematics	Mathematics
	Natural Science	Indonesian History
	Social Science	English
	English	Arts and Culture
		Crafts
		Physical Education
Cluster B	**Cluster B**	**Major: Mathematics and Natural Sciences**
Arts	Arts	Mathematics
Physical Education	Physical Education	Biology
	Crafts	Physics
		Chemistry
		Major: Social Sciences
		Geography
		History
		Sociology and Anthropology
		Economics
		Major: Language
		Indonesian Language and Literature
		English Language and Literature
		Other Language and Literature
		Sociology and Anthropology

It can be seen from the table that English is a mandatory subject in both junior and senior high school. In junior high level the time allocated for English lessons is four hours a week. However, the time is reduced to two hours a week in senior high school level.

The History of the EFL Curriculum

Ever since its independence, Indonesia has changed its curriculum eight times as summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Indonesia's EFL Curriculum Changes

Year	Curriculum	Approach
1945	Unknown	Grammar-translation
1958	Oral Approach	Audiolingual
1975	Oral Approach (revised)	Audiolingual
1984	Structure-based	Communicative
1994	Meaning-based	Communicative
2004	Competency-based	Communicative
2006	School-based	Communicative
2013	Curriculum 2013 (K-13)	Scientific

In 1945, the first English curriculum which utilised a Grammar-Translation approach was introduced. The goal of this curriculum was for students to be able to read and understand English texts (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). As the name suggests, this approach focused on translating English to the first language or vice versa. Grammatical mastery was considered a critical aspect in understanding sentence structures. The government prescribed textbooks that focused on deconstructing grammar and translating sentences or texts. English Grammar by Abdurrahman, Practical Exercises by Tobing and English Passages for Translation by de Maar and Pino were key textbooks used for teaching (Dardjowidjojo, 2000).

In an effort to improve the quality of English teacher training, the government collaborated with the Ford Foundation of the United States. This collaboration had led to two changes. Firstly, it resulted in the establishment of a training institute which provided a two-year teacher training program. The institute also sent their best students to undertake a Master's and Ph.D. program in the United States (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Lie, 2007). Secondly, it provoked a change in the curriculum from the one emphasising the use of Grammar-Translation to an oral approach which put forward an Audio-lingual method in English

teaching. In 1975, the revised version of this curriculum was enacted. This revised curriculum was more systematic in terms of materials, objectives and assessments. The use of an Audio-lingual approach shifted the goal of English language teaching from reading to speaking as the approach focused on the use of the language for communication. Key features of the Audio-lingual approach included students listening to a teacher reading a dialogue, students repeating what the teacher had said, and teachers changing some words or phrases in the dialogue for a drill (Mart, 2013). Repetition and drill were thus the characteristics of this approach and these were believed to form good habits and result in better language learning outcomes (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). However, during the implementation of the oral approach, there was a paradigm shift where language was viewed as "a social phenomenon" (Dardjowidjojo, 2000, p. 25) and thus language learning was seen as a result of an individual's interaction in and with her/his environment (Lie, 2007).

Embracing the idea that language learning is a social process, the government again changed the curriculum in 1984. This curriculum was called a structure-based curriculum and it promoted a communicative approach in the teaching of English. The aim of this approach was to promote student active learning. It was meant to incorporate listening, speaking, reading and writing skills (also known as the four macro skills of English) rather than only focusing on grammatical structures and vocabulary (Mistar, 2005). However, in the implementation it was misinterpreted and the focus of English language teaching was on reading comprehension. Therefore, another change in the curriculum took effect in 1994, from a structure-based to a meaning-based curriculum. Musthafa (2001) has noted at least there were five key principles of communicative approach in the 1994 curriculum:

1. Development of communicative competence which focused on balancing the four macro skills of English;
2. Mastery of linguistic features to support communicative abilities in both oral and written forms;
3. The use of theme-based instruction;
4. Integrated and communicative assessment;
5. Instructional objectives are not always measurable using a paper-and-pencil test.

However, again the implementation of this curriculum was unsuccessful as the teaching and school examinations still focused on reading comprehension (Priyono, 2004) and thus lacked measures for the communicative aspects of language learning (Sahirudin, 2013). After ten years, the meaning-based curriculum was then replaced with the so called competency-based curriculum (CBC).

The CBC was first introduced in 2004. According to the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) (2003), the goals of English teaching in CBC are (1) to develop communicative ability in the target language both in oral and written forms; (2) to stimulate awareness of the importance of English as a foreign language; and (3) to develop an understanding of the relationship between language and culture, so students have knowledge of cross-cultural understanding. The adoption of the CBC was expected to enable more effective teaching and learning. However, it faced some challenges in its implementation. For instance, while teachers claimed they understood the nature, purpose and goal of the CBC, their actual practice in the classrooms suggested teachers still taught the same way as they did in the previous curriculum (Utomo, 2005). Techers also failed to address the communicative competence aspect of the curriculum (Masduqi, 2006).

In 2006, the CBC was replaced with a new curriculum called the School-Based Curriculum (SBC). The curriculum goals remained the same as those set in CBC (Board of National Educational Standard [BSNP], 2006). The difference between CBC and SBC was not significant- in SBC, schools were given autonomy to select learning resources. The implementation of the SBC however, again proved to be unsuccessful in improving students' communicative competence. Putra (2014) has noted the major problem was a mismatch between the goals of the curriculum and the teaching and learning process and the evaluation. While the goals were related to communicative abilities, the teaching-learning process and the evaluation measures emphasised receptive skills (reading and listening) instead of productive skills (speaking and writing). This failure resulted in another change of the curriculum in 2013.

EFL Teaching and Learning in the Curriculum 2013 (K-13)

The curriculum 2013 (K-13) was first introduced in 2013 and has had several changes since. The MoEC (2013) states the main objective of this curriculum is to shape the individuals who are faithful to God, noble in character, confident, successful in learning, responsible, and positive contributors to the community. MoEC (2013) further regulates key principles of the K-13 which include:

(a) The curriculum applies to all subjects;
(b) Graduate competency standard is set for one educational unit, level and program;
 (c) Integrated competencies;
(d) Mastery learning;
(e) Accommodate students' interests and abilities;
(f) Centred on the potential, development, needs and interest of students and the surrounding;

(g) Responsive to the development of science, culture, technology and art;

(h) Relevant to the real-life needs;

(i) Lifelong learning;

(j) Balance between national and local interest; and

(k) Use of assessment of learning outcome to understand and improve the attainment of competency.

Especially in the English subject, an emphasis on the mastery of the four macro-skills of English and the development of communicative competence are reflected in the EFL curriculum of senior high schools. The MoEC (2013) notes the goals of English teaching and learning are to understand interpersonal and transactional spoken texts (listening), verbally express meaning in interpersonal and transactional texts both in a formal and informal situation (speaking), comprehend and create written texts (reading and writing). In achieving these goals, students are expected to be able to identify social function, text structures and linguistic aspects of a text; communicate orally concerning interpersonal, transactional and functional texts; and create and edit spoken and written texts (MoEC, 2013).

Under the K-13, the government recommends the use of a scientific approach to teaching and learning (MoEC, 2013). The scientific approach can be explained as a series of procedures that are used to investigate a phenomenon and acquire information and knowledge scientifically (Zaim, 2017). This approach promotes student-centred learning and enables students to actively engage in a lesson. It places teachers as facilitators and they are no longer seen as the primary source of information as students have options to explore other sources. The scientific approach places emphasis on the learning process as much as the learning outcomes (Ratnaningsih, 2017). There are five stages in the scientific approach: observing, questioning, experimenting, associating and communicating. The MoEC (2013) further explains learning activities in these five stages. In observing, students observe, read and listen to teachers' explanation with or without media. In the questioning stage, students are encouraged to ask questions related to the observation. The teacher guides this activity until students feel confident doing the activity independently. In the experimenting stage, students are asked to collect information through available resources and use this information in various activities such as simulation, role play, presentation, discussion and games (Ratnaningsih, 2017). In associating, students analyse information by putting it into categories and making connections between categories. Later, students draw a conclusion from the analysis. In communicating, students present the result of the activities conducted in the previous four stages in the form of oral or written text. At this stage, students demonstrate their understanding, knowledge and skills of the learned topic.

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The Research: Its aim and significance

The Research Aim

The current research aimed to investigate how oral feedback supports and engages students in English language learning. It intended to explore teachers' and students' beliefs about oral feedback. These aims raised the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback?
2. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the teacher in the feedback process?
3. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the students in the feedback process?
4. What types of feedback are evident in the teaching and learning process?
5. How do students respond to oral feedback?

The Significance of the Research Topic

When it comes to classroom practice, feedback is an important area to study considering its powerful impact on learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). While there have been many studies on written feedback both in the general and second/foreign language teaching context (e.g., Hyland, 1998; Lee, 2010; Lee, 2014; Nicol, 2010), oral feedback seems relatively understudied, particularly with reference to studies with a focus on teachers' and students' beliefs about and engagement in oral feedback. There is a need to study teachers' beliefs and practices concurrently since beliefs affect practices. As Dixon and Hawe (2016) state, while beliefs are often personal and intangible, they greatly influence the nature of interactions in a classroom. Within the second/foreign language context, the study of teachers' beliefs and practices of oral feedback remains scarce. Roothooft (2014) is one of the few who has investigated teachers' beliefs about oral feedback. She argues that studying teachers' beliefs is useful in terms of bridging the gap between theory and practice.

Besides examining teachers' beliefs, the current study also included students' voices. This inclusion is salient for two reasons. Firstly, to understand oral feedback practice within the context of the classroom, it is crucial to gain insights from those involved in it, which in this case is not only teachers but also students. Hargreaves (2013) has affirmed the importance of putting students' voices forward, arguing that "without the learner's perspective the crucially important affective and interactional aspects of learners' response to feedback are likely to be missing." (p.230). Secondly, as noted by Plank, Dixon, and Ward (2014), scrutinizing students' understandings of feedback and their roles within the feedback process and how feedback is used to further their learning has not been the focus of many studies. Thus, more of such research is needed to enrich the literature and add to our understanding of students' perspectives

regarding oral feedback. A study by Kavianpanah, Alavi, and Sepehrinia (2015) has suggested the need for future research to address learner factors such as language proficiency, affective response, and beliefs. These authors further argued that learners should be given opportunities to express their preferences for oral feedback since their preferences are likely to influence learning effectiveness.

In the context of Indonesian Senior High Schools, studies about oral feedback are sparse. Two of the few instances are studies by Irawan and Salija (2017) and Arrafii and Kasyfurrahman (2015). Both of these studies are descriptive in nature. Irawan and Salija's (2017) study has focused on identifying the types of teachers' oral feedback, investigating teachers' reasons for using oral feedback and students' perceptions of oral feedback. Meanwhile, Arrafii and Kasyfurrahman's (2015) study has focused on examining the quality of teachers' oral feedback and teachers' practice of feedback. Studies into teachers' beliefs in this context have so far focused on investigating written feedback (e.g., Kencana, 2020; Mulati et al., 2020). It therefore can be claimed with a degree of certainty that there have not been any studies in this context that have aimed to provide a thick description of the teachers' and students' beliefs and practices of oral feedback. To address this gap in the literature, the current study aimed to provide insights into the types of oral feedback in EFL classrooms and a rich picture of teachers' and students' beliefs and practice of oral feedback.

Thesis Organisation

This thesis is organised into eight chapters. Chapter One provides an introduction to the study which describes the researcher's interest in and position in relation to the research topic. It outlines the context of the study, proposes the significance of the study and addresses the gaps related to the research topic.

Chapter Two and Three review relevant literature to the current study. Chapter Two presents literature pertinent to the beliefs about teaching and learning. This chapter highlights the significance of beliefs and the influence of these beliefs on teachers' feedback practice. The congruence between beliefs and practice is also discussed. In Chapter Three, attention is paid to how feedback is conceptualised in a general educational context and the EFL context. This chapter focuses on discussing the similarities and differences found in the two contexts concerning feedback.

Chapter Four provides a detailed description of the research process. It informs and justifies the use of the research methodology, specific sampling techniques and data collection

methods. Also presented in the chapter are modes of data analysis, ethical considerations and the trustworthiness of the study.

Chapter Five and Six present the results of study. Chapter Five elaborates the findings from the participants' interviews. It includes four major themes representing teachers' and students' beliefs about oral feedback. Chapter Six presents the findings utilising the observational data generated from the study. It provides detailed descriptions of the teaching and learning in the classroom, the types of oral feedback the teachers used and the students' responses to their teacher's oral feedback.

Chapter Seven presents an in-depth discussion of the findings from Chapters Five and Six. This chapter is structured under two main themes. They are a traditional approach to support improvement and feedback for improvement: a contemporary approach.

Chapter Eight presents the conclusion of the study. Implications for oral feedback practice and teacher professional development are discussed and possible areas for future studies are proposed. The chapter concludes with the contribution of the current study to the field.

Chapter Two: Teacher and Student Beliefs about Teaching and Learning

The current chapter provides a discussion surrounding teacher and student beliefs about teaching and learning as well as illustrating the role these beliefs play in the feedback process. The chapter is organised into five main sections. The first section addresses definitional matters while the second section discusses the significance of teachers' and students' beliefs. The third section draws attention to the ways in which teachers' and students' actions, roles and interactions are influenced by their beliefs about the ways in which students learn. The fourth section discusses the interplay between beliefs and practice, highlighting how teachers' espoused beliefs are often not manifest in practice. The final section provides a reflection of the chapter and looks ahead to the next chapter.

Defining Beliefs

Beliefs have been called "a messy construct" (Pajares, 1992, p. 308) because despite being the subject of research in many fields, the construct or concept is difficult to define. This difficulty seems to stem from a long-standing debate regarding the difference between beliefs and knowledge. Some scholars argue that beliefs and knowledge are intertwined (e.g. Kagan, 1990; Murphy & Mason, 2006) while others insist on making a clear distinction between the two terms (e.g. Fenstermacher, 1994; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). However, the current chapter neither intends to enter into this philosophical debate nor attempts to explain how the two terms are similar or different. Instead, it acknowledges that the term beliefs is often used interchangeably with other terminologies such as knowledge, perceptions, attitudes and/or opinions.

Beliefs have been characterised as mental properties that encapsulate "the inconvertible personal truth everyone holds" (Pajares, 1992, p. 309). In line with this, Richardson (1996) postulates they are "psychologically held understandings, premises and propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (p. 103). In a similar vein, Borg (2001) has defined beliefs as "proposition[s] which may be consciously or unconsciously held, [and are] evaluative in that [they are] accepted to be true by the individual" (p. 186). Nespor (1987) has further characterised beliefs as strongly affective and evaluative as they are influenced by feelings, moods and subjective personal evaluations. Beliefs are considered strong predictors of behaviour (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992) that have originated from a combination of "personal experience" and "opinions of respected others" (Wenden, 1986, p. 5). Thus, taking the aforementioned notions into account, beliefs in the current study are considered to be

preconceived and generally subjective ideas about the wold that the individual considers true. These ideas are consciously and unconsciously held and shaped by experience, feelings and personal evaluations that serve to guide one's judgement and behaviour.

Beliefs that are formed early in life are generally resistant to change and thus static with newly acquired beliefs more susceptible to change. There is a general agreement in the literature that altering an individual's beliefs is difficult and it is not a straightforward process. Essentially, beliefs are difficult to alter "unless they prove unsatisfactory, and they are unlikely to prove unsatisfactory unless they are challenged and one is unable to assimilate them into existing conception" (Pajares, 1992, p. 321). As beliefs tend to be tacitly held and private, they do not require consensus regarding their validity and are not affected by logical reasoning or argument (Fang, 1996).

The Significance of Beliefs in Teaching and Learning

Teachers and students hold beliefs about many things which help them make sense of their learning and teaching experiences. Beliefs are deep-seated and often teachers and students are neither consciously aware of nor able to articulate what they believe. Moreover, as beliefs are implicitly held, teachers and students may not be cognisant of how these affect them and their actions and attitudes (Patrick & Pintrich, 2001). Even though beliefs may be tacitly held and not readily articulated, they exert considerable influence over teachers' and students' thinking and behaviour. Fang (1996) has observed that beliefs strongly affect how teachers interpret and act on new information. As teachers are likely to interpret new ideas based on their pre-existing understandings, new information is only accepted when it is congruent with their beliefs (Pajares, 1992). A similar argument can be applied to the role that students' beliefs have on the way they accept or reject new ideas or ways of working and learning.

Teachers' beliefs influence their practice in a myriad of ways, for example, the ways in which they manage and arrange their classrooms, how they interact with and motivate students and the kind of relationships that are built with students. They also profoundly affect teachers' instructional practices in the classroom (Borg, 2001; Kagan, 1990; Pajares, 1992) as they guide teachers in the selection of teaching strategies (Xu, 2012). Jenkins' (2018) study has illustrated how teachers make instructional decisions based on their beliefs. For instance, one mathematics teacher in the study believed mathematics literacy was about the ability to read numbers, symbols and graphs and to translate these into words. When enacting this belief, the teacher instructed students to calculate, solve and explain mathematical problems in written

forms. In contrast, another mathematics teacher articulated a belief that this subject area was about students solving and explaining mathematical problems. This belief was portrayed in the teacher's pedagogy where he provided countless opportunities for students to write and discuss the explanations for their answers.

Teachers' beliefs also affect how they view their roles and the role of students in teaching and learning. Some teachers believe that their role is to be a provider of information for students, and thus they position students as passive recipients in the learning process (Askew & Lodge, 2000; Evans, 2013) who are treated as empty vessels waiting to be filled with information. Others believe their role is to create a learning environment which gives opportunity for students to participate actively in the teaching and learning process so the latter develop a sense of responsibility over their learning. These beliefs in turn influence the nature of their practices, interactions and relationships with students.

Like teachers, students also hold beliefs about learning which affect their motivation, choice of learning strategies, perceptions of ability and perceptions of their role during learning and the role of the teachers. It has been argued for example that students' beliefs about ability are foundational to academic success as they influence their goal orientation, perceptions of effort and failure and the strategies they use on tasks (Chen & Pajares, 2010). Some students believe people are born with a certain pre-ordained ability or level of intelligence, and thus they consider these as static and unable to be changed (Dweck, 1999). Others, however, believe that ability or intelligence is dynamic – that these traits can be controlled and that they can develop or increase over time (Dweck, 1999). These beliefs affect their levels of achievement (Chen & Pajares, 2010; Hofer & Pintrich, 1997)**,** approaches to learning and their behaviour (Dweck, 1999).

Students' beliefs also influence how they perceive the teachers' role and their role in teaching and learning. There are students who believe that knowledge comes from external sources while others believe they can construct it from their own experience (Schommer, 1990). The former will see teachers as the main source of information and position themselves as receivers of their teacher's knowledge. The latter however will see teachers as guides who work side by side with them as they construct meanings and understandings together (O'Donovan, 2017).

In summary, teachers and students might consciously and/or unconsciously hold beliefs about teaching and learning and they may or may not be fully aware of the nature of these ideas. Teachers' beliefs have a significant impact on how they teach which in turn affect

students' learning; students' beliefs on the other hand greatly affect how they learn and have an impact on their achievement.

Beliefs about Learning

Teachers and students hold beliefs about how the latter learn, the conditions and the best ways to support and further learning and the roles of each party in the learning process. Teachers' beliefs are shaped by their past experiences including their experiences as a student in the classroom (Pajares, 1992). While teachers' beliefs and practices reflect aspects of particular learning theories, they may not recognise how these beliefs relate to learning theories. This section of the chapter will focus on discussing two enduring and prevalent theories of learning, namely behaviourism and socio-constructivism, drawing out implications for teaching.

Behaviourism

Originating from the work of Ivan Pavlov in 1911, behaviourism is defined as "a theory of animal and human learning that focuses upon the behaviour of the learner and the change in behaviour that occur when learning takes place." (Woollard, 2010, p. 1). This theory focuses solely on observable behaviours where learning is demonstrated by a change in behaviour (Merriam et al., 2007). Learning is considered as a result of adaptation which leads to the acquisition of new behaviour. According to this perspective, the acquisition of new behaviour is seen in an individual's response to external stimuli. Behaviourism advocates that "behaviour that is followed by a reinforcer will increase in frequency or probability" (Hattie & Gan, 2011, p. 250). In other words, there is a higher chance of behaviour recurring when is reinforced or rewarded.

According to a behaviourist perspective, students are best taught in homogenous groups. Pre-assessment of students is commonly conducted to determine which levels or groups they belong to. Successful learning can be accomplished when "complex performances are deconstructed and when each element is practiced, reinforced and subsequently built upon" (James, 2006, p. 54). In other words, learning is a linear or sequential process beginning with simple ideas. More complex ideas are not introduced until these simple, basic ideas are established. There is also an emphasis on the assessment of lower level forms of knowledge and thinking skills. Rote learning, which involves strategies such as memorising, repetition, practicing and retrieving new information (Askew and Lodge, 2000), is typical of a behaviourist approach to learning. If applied appropriately, such learning can lead to increased understanding (Woollard, 2010). For example, in the context of language learning in general,

rote learning has been perceived highly effective for learning vocabulary (Karpicke, 2012; Wei & Attan, 2014) and understanding phrases, collocation, sentence structure and grammar (Yu, 2013). However, while rote learning is useful in promoting retention of information, Mayer (2002) has noted such learning does not promote problem solving.

The role of the teacher is critical to the teaching-learning process, which results in a teacher-centred approach to teaching. Teachers perform various authoritative roles such as controller, assessor, organiser, prompter and learning resource (Harmer, 2015). In the behaviourist classroom they transmit information to students who are directed to achieve pre-identified learning objectives (Pritchard, 2018). Teachers typically stand at the front of the classroom or sit at their desk as they explain the lesson and tell students what they should do. Students, on the other hand, sit at their desks while doing their work individually. Teachers adopting a behaviourist approach strongly adopts an initiation-response-feedback (IRF) pattern (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) where teachers initiate the interaction, usually by asking questions followed by a student response and ending with teachers' evaluating the response, telling the student if it is correct or incorrect. Correct responses are reinforced while incorrect response are not. Rewards and punishments, along with the withholding of rewards are key characteristics of a behaviourist learning environment as they are considered effective and powerful ways of shaping behaviour (James, 2006). While the teacher plays a dominant role in a behaviourist teaching and learning environment, the student has a passive role. Students tend to wait and follow what the teacher instructs them to do and they rely on their teachers' judgement of their work or performance.

According to a behaviourist perspective, feedback serves an evaluative purpose and it is used to control performance and achievement (Gamlem, 2015; Hattie & Gan, 2011). When feedback information is used in such a way, it is likely to be technical rather than a social process. Feedback is perceived as a gift from the teacher as the expert to the student (Askew & Lodge, 2000) and it generally takes the form of grades, comments or an evaluation of the correctness of the student work. Further features are the use of praise when student work or performance is as the expected standard and correction when it is not. To a lesser extent, feedback may provide information about what needs improvement and how to achieve this.

Behaviourism is still prevalent in classrooms today as a number of teachers were trained in an era when behaviourism was popular and/or were taught themselves by teachers who followed behaviourist practices. Teachers still direct students, tell them what to do and use praise extensively (Schuldt, 2019). They also focus on correcting students' errors and they seem to be unaware of a need to develop students' capability to self-regulate their learning

(Vattøy, 2020). However, behaviourism has been the subject of critique as it only equates learning with behavioural changes in a conditioned environment – it has underplayed the cognitive and affective aspects of learning (Adams, 2006; James, 2006). It is acknowledged in the literature that the "learner shapes their own mind through their own actions" (Adams, 2006, p. 245) which means learning involves cognitive processing and social interaction. A learning perspective that embraces such ideas is socio-constructivism.

Socio-constructivism

The emergence of socio-constructivist theory can be traced back to the work of Vygotsky (1978). In stark contrast to behaviourism, the proponents of socio-constructivism believe that the construction of knowledge cannot be singled out from cognitive processing and one's social context. Learning is viewed as a process of knowledge construction by the individual and it is seen as a mediated activity which occurs as a result of interaction and negotiation of meaning within a social environment (James, 2006). People are involved in collaborative activities which enable them to develop their thinking. Socio-constructivists propose that learning occurs within a learner's zone of proximal development (ZPD) as the learner interacts with a more knowledgeable other and the environment (García et al., 2011; Vygotsky, 1978; Wass et al., 2011). It is through making sense of experience and collaborations that knowledge and understanding are constructed. The ZPD denotes "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.86). In other words, the ZPD is a gap between what students can currently do without help or support and what students can achieve upon receiving help.

According to this perspective students learn best when they work within heterogenous groups. Each individual is considered unique – her/his interaction with the environment and more knowledgeable others such as teachers and peers will subsequently build on their skills and abilities. Therefore, it is important for teachers to create an environment or a context in which students can be stimulated to think critically (James, 2006). Learning tasks are designed in such a way that they involve problem-solving, experimentation and collaboration where students jointly develop their critical thinking and actively participate in or are involved in the generation of knowledge. In turn, these activities enhance students' learning (Rezaee & Azizi, 2012).

Within the socio-constructivist perspective, teaching is not a one-way transmission of information from the teacher to the student. Rather, it acknowledges the active participation of

students in the process. Therefore, teaching and learning are more student-centred, which involves "reflective processes, critical investigation, analysis, interpretation and reorganisation of knowledge" (Askew & Lodge, 2000, p. 11). It does not mean, however, that the teacher's role disappears in the process. The teacher helps students "select and transform information, construct hypothesis and make decisions" (Chrenka, 2001, p. 1) so that student learning can gradually move from other-regulation to self-regulation. The teacher acts as a guide who mediates the learning process and creates a learning situation which invites students' critical and logical thinking (Moustafa et al., 2013) as well as a safe space for students to ask questions and reflect on their own progress. The teacher also provides support and scaffolding when needed to enable students to move forward from a state of dependence through to interdependence and finally independence

Within a socio-constructivist classroom, students are considered active participants in the learning process. They are given more opportunities to be involved in the generation of knowledge and to collaborate with each other. This collaboration allows students to observe and learn how others resolve a particular task (James, 2006). Students control their own learning through reflection of their experiences as they filter and assimilate new information or knowledge into their pre-existing understandings. As a result, they have a sense of ownership over their learning.

The adoption of a socio-constructivist perspective to learning and assessment has implications for feedback. Askew and Lodge (2000) describe the process of feedback within a socio constructivist perspective as "loops of dialogue and information" (p. 6) which means there is a two-way interaction back and forth between the teacher and the students. Here the role of students is acknowledged and respected as feedback is no longer about the expert giving information to the novice. Students have an active role in the feedback process (Carless, 2019; Carless & Boud, 2018; Hawe et al., 2008). As opposed to the teacher monitoring and controlling performance, the purpose of feedback is to support learning (Gamlem, 2015). Feedback is used as a means to scaffold development of student self-regulation (Beaumont et al., 2016). To be able to support learning, students need to have opportunities to engage in the feedback process. Here the expectation is for students to act as both generators and receivers of feedback (Boud & Molloy, 2013). When students play a central role, the process of feedback is seen as being more dynamic and dialogic. Of course, the nature and the quality of feedback is important and students have to be willing and able to understand the feedback they receive before they can act on it.

Beliefs and Practice Interplay

Teachers' Espoused Beliefs and Actual Practice in General

Pajares (1992) has argued that beliefs are not necessarily a "very reliable guide to reality" (p. 326). Therefore, it should not be surprising to find teachers' articulated beliefs are often incongruent with actual practices. In her review, Basturkmen (2012) noted while some studies showed the consistency between teachers' beliefs and practice, the majority pointed out an inconsistency between the two. For example, Kaymakamoglu (2017) investigated the relationships between teachers' beliefs (traditional, teacher-centred and constructivist, learner centred), perceived practice and their actual practice. In this study, ten EFL teachers in a Cyprus Turkish Secondary School were interviewed and observed. The author concluded that generally, teachers' beliefs and perceptions of their practice were not consistent with their actual classroom practices. For instance, eight teachers in the study expressed a belief in learner-centred teaching, however in their actual practice, these eight teachers were observed employing a teacher-centred approach to teaching.

Inconsistencies between beliefs and practice can occur because of the pressure of external factors such as the nature of the school curriculum and the school culture. These factors can impede teachers' ability to put their beliefs into practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Shi et al., 2014). Some schools for instance require teachers to strictly follow and cover every aspect of the curriculum within a tight timeframe. Under these circumstances, if teachers have to finish one unit from a textbook in each lesson, they may not be able to address individual student understandings or needs as this takes time. To illustrate further, Bai and Yuan (2019) studied sixteen EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching pronunciation in Hong Kong primary and secondary schools. These teachers acknowledged an inconsistency between their beliefs and practices, explaining that contextual factors such as the examination-oriented culture which emphasised grammar prevented them from focusing their teaching on pronunciation. Internal factors such as non-native speaking teachers' lack of confidence in teaching pronunciation were additional reasons underpinning a mismatch between beliefs and practice.

Teachers' Espoused Beliefs and Actual Practice in Feedback

Understanding teachers' beliefs in relation to oral feedback is important as these beliefs influence their feedback practice (Borg, 2003; Dixon & Hawe, 2016; Roothooft, 2014). A number of studies have generally found that teachers' stated beliefs about feedback do not correspond to their feedback practices (Bao, 2019; Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004; Dixon, Hawe, & Parr, 2011; Kamiya, 2016; Lee, 2009). For example, Roothooft (2014)

investigated ten Spanish EFL teachers' stated beliefs about oral feedback and their practices. Questionnaire data revealed a belief that providing oral feedback about students' oral performance was of the utmost importance. The assumption here was that when feedback is perceived as an important part of the teaching process, its occurrence should be frequent. However, classroom observations indicated that there was little evidence of oral feedback to students during lessons about their ability to speak English. When prompted about this incongruence, the teachers expressed their a concern that oral feedback would interrupt the flow of the lesson.

Teachers' feedback beliefs and practice can be incongruent in many ways. Lee (2009) found a number of mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practice in relation to written feedback. For example, teachers articulated the beliefs that feedback should cover both strengths and weaknesses of the students' work. However, in practice the teachers focused only on highlighting the weaknesses. They also believed that students should identify and learn to analyse their errors so they could take responsibility for their learning. In practice it was the teachers who identified and provided corrections to the errors students had made and identified the errors for them. Consequently, students were not given opportunities to take responsibility for their learning.

In contrast to the above studies, there are also some instances where teachers' stated beliefs are reflected in their feedback practice. In a study conducted in New Zealand primary schools by Dixon et al. (2011), teachers' beliefs and practices of oral feedback during writing conferences were investigated. Three teachers in the study believed it was crucial that feedback provided opportunities to help students become autonomous and to develop self-monitoring behaviour. Classroom observations revealed that while one teacher showed a mismatch with her espoused and enacted beliefs, the other two demonstrated a reasonable degree of congruence between their beliefs and practices. For instance, one of these two teachers stated the teacher's role was not to tell students what and how to improve their work but to facilitate student engagement in ways that encourage students to take action to minimise the gap between their current and expected performance. In her feedback practice, this teacher avoided telling her students about areas where their work needed improvement and how to go about this. Instead, she invited them to come up with possible ways in which they could improve their work.

The incongruence between teachers' feedback beliefs and practice portrays the complexity of this relationship. As complex systems, beliefs can be shaped by many different factors such as contexts, teacher experience and teacher training (Borg, 2003), and it is likely

these factors contribute to the discrepancy between teachers' beliefs and their actual practice. It has been argued elsewhere that the relationships between beliefs and practice are reciprocal and complex as they influence each other. Therefore, the nature of this relationship may vary depending on the individuals, contexts, and the type of beliefs and practices being investigated (Buehl & Beck, 2014)

Chapter Summary

It has been argued in this chapter that beliefs are complex and intangible constructs that influence both thinking and behaviours. Held implicitly or explicitly, research has shown beliefs play a significant role in shaping teachers' practice and students' behaviour. In order to gain insight into teachers' and students' beliefs about teaching and learning, this chapter has explored two influential perspectives on learning: behaviourism and socio-constructivism. Specifically, attention has been paid to theoretical underpinnings of these perspectives and how they play out in practice, both from teachers' and students' points of view. In addition, the complexity of belief systems and their relationship to practice has been explored through a discussion regarding the alignment between espoused beliefs and actual practice. Finally, consideration has been given to how beliefs about teaching and learning influence the feedback process and the role assigned to the parties involved in this process.

Next Chapter

The following chapter focuses on discussing feedback- how it is conceptualised in general education and English as a foreign language contexts. The chapter puts forward the argument that some types of feedback profoundly influence student learning and for feedback to be influential, teachers have to provide more opportunities for students to be involved in the process.

Chapter Three: Conceptualisation of Feedback in General Education and EFL Contexts

Research on feedback both in general education and in second/foreign language learning has been flooded with discussions about its importance and effectiveness in enhancing and furthering students' learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Ellis, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Sadler, 1989; Sadler, 2010). While it has been noted that feedback can have a powerful impact on learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), the type of feedback and the way that feedback is provided are determining factors in regard to its impact on students' learning (Brown et al., 2012)

This chapter reviews significant literature in the area of feedback, noting that feedback can have a positive or negative effect on learning and behaviour and explaining how some types of feedback are more powerful than others. Therefore, it can be argued it is the quality and type of feedback that is important. Furthermore, feedback needs to encourage learners to be the owners of their learning. Learners should be involved actively in the feedback process so they will develop the ability to monitor their own progress and regulate their learning. Essentially, feedback needs to promote student self-regulation.

The chapter is divided into four main sections. The first section discusses feedback in general education where it defines feedback, highlights the nature of effective feedback, the role of teachers and students and a current focus in the literature on sustainable feedback. The second section discusses feedback in EFL contexts where the spotlight is on oral feedback which includes positive and corrective feedback. This section also elaborates on the effectiveness of corrective feedback and a shift in feedback practice from telling students to helping them to self-regulate their learning. The last section concludes the chapter.

Feedback in General Education: Moving From a Traditional to a Contemporary Approach to Feedback Provision

Defining Feedback

Feedback is information which, in classroom settings, can flow from teacher to students or between students. Feedback has been defined in various ways, but a well-articulated definition proposed by Hattie and Timperley (2007) states that feedback is "information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding." (p.81). Hattie and Timperley (2007) explain further that feedback can be acquired from sources external to students (teacher, peer, book, parent) or

internal to themselves (self, experience). Taking this notion further, Sadler (1989) makes a distinction between feedback and self-monitoring. If the information is obtained from external sources, then feedback is taking place, but if the information is generated by learners self-monitoring is occurring.

Feedback can be conveyed in writing, orally, and/or through gestures. The provision of written feedback is rarely spontaneous; it is generally planned. Teachers spend time assessing students' works before providing comments, a grade, or a score. While oral feedback can also be planned, it tends to occur spontaneously and is more conversational in nature. It is often accompanied by gestures that can occur in unplanned ways during classroom interactions. Facial expressions such as smiles, nods, and head shaking are used to show approval or disapproval of students' responses.

Feedback is intended to support and further students' knowledge, skills, and understandings (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Shute, 2008). Therefore, the information provided should have the power to reduce the discrepancy between learners' current and expected understanding and/or performance. Feedback should be of the type that will help students to re-adjust and self-correct their performance so they will be empowered to take action to minimize the gap between current and desired performance. As Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) state, feedback should assist learners to develop their ability to evaluate, monitor, and regulate their learning.

The goals of learning should be the point of reference for feedback. Therefore, students' understanding of goals is critical if they are to internalize the feedback and use it productively to improve their performance. That goals are a crucial component to the feedback process has been acknowledged by Hattie and Timperley (2007) through the formulation of three critical questions related to feedback. The first question, where am I going, concerns students' understandings related to the goals for their learning. Once students understand the goals to be attained and what counts as successful achievement, then feedback can be influential as it addresses the focus of learning. Conversely, if students do not understand the goals of learning, feedback can be misunderstood. The second question, how am I going, is related to the progress students are making. Feedback enables a comparison to be made between students' current performance and what is desired. The third question, where to next, is said to have "some of the most powerful impacts on learning" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.90). Feedback in relation to this question provides information which informs students about how to progress and as a consequence leads to further learning.

Effective Feedback

Feedback can be given for the purpose of reinforcement, correction, unravelling misconceptions, suggestion for future improvement, praising, punishing or rewarding (Hattie & Clarke, 2019). These purposes however are not equally effective in supporting learning. Providing feedback to improve learning is not an easy task for teachers since it may not necessarily lead to improvement (Sadler, 2010). Not all feedback has the power to improve performance (Bangert-Drowns, Kulik, Kulik, & Morgan, 1991; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Therefore, thoughtful consideration has to be given prior to feedback provision. According to Gibbs and Simpson (2004), if feedback is to be influential, it must be:

(a) sufficient in terms of frequency and detail;

(b) focused on students' performance, on their learning, and on the actions under students' control, rather than on the students themselves and/or on personal characteristics;

(c) timely in that it is received by students while it still matters and in time for them to pay attention to further learning or to receive assistance;

(d) appropriate to the aim of the task and its criteria for success;

(e) appropriate in relation to students' conceptions of learning, knowledge, and the discourse of the discipline;

(f) attended to, and;

(g) acted upon.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) further argue the focus of feedback is critically important. They claim there are four major levels of feedback and that the level at which feedback is directed influences its effectiveness.

Feedback at the self-regulation level is the most effective as it addresses students' strategies in monitoring, directing, and regulating actions to attain the learning goals. Such information "can have major influences on self-efficacy, self-regulatory proficiencies, and self-beliefs about students as learners, such that the students are encouraged or informed how to better and more effortlessly continue on the task" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 90). This type of feedback mediates students' capability to generate internal feedback and to self-assess their performance. It can result in eagerness to invest effort into seeking and dealing with

information, confidence in the correctness of responses, appropriate attributions of success or failure, and proficiency at seeking help.

Feedback at the process level is the second most effective. This type of feedback is directed at "the processing of information, or learning processes requiring understanding or completing the task" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 90). In other words, it is information about the cognitive processes necessary to undertake a task. It addresses for example strategies which can be used to answer task related questions and to carry out tasks. Process feedback can act as a cue and can lead students to employ more effective strategies. At this level, feedback prompts students' thinking about the cognitive processes they are using when completing a task.

Less effective feedback is directed the task level, providing information about how well a task is performed. This is also known as corrective feedback as it distinguishes correct from incorrect responses. Much of the time, this type of feedback only addresses a particular or specific task so the information is not applicable to other tasks. However, when this type of feedback is combined with information about cognitive processing and self-regulation, the impact can be more powerful in terms of learning.

The fourth and the least effective type of feedback is directed to the self. Common at this level is the use of praise such as "Good job", "Smart girl", or "Well done". Although such praise can increase students' engagement and provide support and comfort (Hattie & Gan, 2011), praise alone is insufficient for learning because it does not supply information which can trigger students to move further in their learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Shute, 2008).

The effectiveness of these four levels of feedback has been attested in many studies. A recent exploratory study conducted by Xiao and Yang (2019) investigated how feedback supports students' self-regulations of English language learning in East China. Data from classroom observations and interviews with two English language teachers and 16 students revealed feedback given at the process and self-regulation levels assisted students in developing deeper understanding and self-regulatory skills. Feedback at these levels facilitated students' understanding of learning goals and thus encouraged them to monitor and regulate their learning (Xiao & Yang, 2019). Students in this study were reported to demonstrate more proactive and adaptive responses to feedback.

The Role of Teachers

Traditionally, teachers have played a central role in the feedback process. As the perceived experts in classrooms, teachers have been the primary source of information about students' learning. They have told students what they have achieved, what needs to be improved and how to improve. In other words, teachers have supplied information about students' learning. The teacher's role has been traditional in the sense that it has involved the teacher telling the students about how they are progressing in terms of the three feedback questions – where am I going, how am I going, and where to next.

While the traditional role has involved teachers telling the students about what needs improving, a different role has emerged in the literature. Contemporary notions of feedback indicate that teachers are expected to work collaboratively with students to help them generate feedback so that together they can answer the three feedback questions. Through this collaboration, teachers can assist students to close the gap between where they are now and the goal for learning. If teachers want to improve students' learning, they should maximize their role as the facilitator or mediator of learning which in time will help students to become autonomous learners who possess the skill of self-regulation (Butler & Winne, 1995)

There is a limited number of studies that have looked at the role of the teacher in relation to oral feedback practice in classroom settings. An early study was undertaken by Tunstall and Gipps (1996). Aimed at providing "a conceptual framework for [understanding] feedback itself" (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996, p.389), the researchers conducted an observation-based study in primary classrooms in the United Kingdom. The observations resulted in a feedback typology which identified and described the types of feedback given by teachers during the teaching and learning process. Feedback types A and B were characterized as judgmental and concerned with the affective and conative aspects of learning; types C and D feedback were concerned with the cognitive aspects of learning.

While types C and D focused on achievement and improvement, Tunstall and Gipps (1996) recognized a fundamental difference between the two with reference to the roles of the teacher and learner in the feedback process. Type C feedback was unidirectional which means that the flow of feedback was one way: from teacher to students. In C1, the teacher told students what they had achieved while in C2 the teacher told students what needed improving and how they could make improvements on a certain task. Tunstall and Gipps (1996) argued that this act of 'telling' indicated a lack of equality in role distribution. The teacher was more powerful in the feedback process, being the main source of information. Students were seen as

passive recipients and hence they were reliant on the teacher for information about their progress and learning.

In D type feedback, the students were assigned a central role, as attainment and improvement were constructed by students in collaboration with the teacher; thus, there was a more even distribution of roles with students having opportunities to express their thoughts. Students also "move[d] (a little) from recipients to active participator" (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996, p.400). In D1, teachers worked with students to generate information about achievement. D2 feedback focused on what could be improved. The latter was used to "articulate future possibilities in learning in a way that looked like a partnership" (Tunstall & Gipps, 1996, p.400). Teachers were seen working collaboratively with students talking about ways to improve works without telling students what to do or how to do it.

Using the typology, Hawe, Dixon and Watson (2008) in a New Zealand based study revealed that while teachers mainly provided descriptive types of oral feedback during the teaching of written language, the feedback was mostly about specifying attainment (C1) or specifying improvement (C2). The occurrence of oral feedback which encouraged students' active contribution in constructing achievement (D1) and constructing the way forward (D2) was limited. They argued that relying on the teacher to supply feedback blocked opportunities to improve students' evaluative and productive knowledge and expertise which are important if students are to become self-monitoring and self-regulating (Sadler, 1989).

The Role of Students

The traditional role of students in the feedback process has been that of passive recipients of information from their teacher. However, contemporary conceptions do not see learning as a process of acquiring knowledge and skills through the teacher's act of telling, rather it is a process where students are actively involved (Nicol & Macfarlane‐Dick, 2006). Therefore, it is important that the teacher creates opportunities for students to generate information themselves, making judgements and decisions about their own performances with guidance from the teacher.

The shift in role from passive recipients to active contributors requires students to understand the goals of learning and what counts as successful achievement of these goals. If they are to take an active role, three essential conditions must be fulfilled (Sadler, 1989). First, students must understand the goals for learning and the standard being aimed for: they should understand what good performance looks like. Second, students need opportunities to compare the actual level of performance with the standard. Students should be able to make judgements

about the current performance compared to the expected or desired performance. Third, students have to engage in appropriate action which leads to some closure of the gap. At this point, students should understand what action is necessary to take to close or minimize the gap between the current and desired performance.

Moving Towards Sustainable Feedback

The teacher's traditional practice of providing students with information about their performance and/or understanding has been perceived as ineffective as the teacher's act of telling does not necessarily lead to student improvement particularly in the long-term. Studies have shown how students often stumble, experiencing difficulties in terms of understanding and acting upon the information (Poulos & Mahony, 2008; Weaver, 2006). Traditionally, feedback often comes at the end of learning and this has been perceived as less useful as it comes too late to serve any formative function (Higgins et al., 2001). Additionally, students also feel that feedback from teachers fail to address and/or satisfy their learning needs (Boud & Molloy, 2013).

Given such limitations, Boud and Molloy (2013) have argued for a shift towards a more effective and sustainable feedback practice. This has led to the notion of feedback as dialogue. Hattie and Gan (2011) have also called for a shift, saying that "feedback needs to move from a predominantly transmissive and verification process to a dialogic and elaborative process in a social context" (p.257). Therefore, teachers and students should see feedback as "a dialogic process in which learners make sense of information from varied sources and use it to enhance the quality of their work or learning strategies" (Carless, 2015, p.192). Dialogic feedback is a two-way conversation between teacher and student or among students in order to achieve common understandings which will lead to future improvement (Blair & Mcginty, 2013). Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) state that in dialogic feedback, the "student not only receives initial feedback information, but also has the opportunity to engage the teacher in discussion about that feedback" (p. 210). In other words, the feedback process involves collaboration between learner and teachers. Through the mediation of the dialogue, the teacher and students can develop inter-subjectivity, the area within which the teacher and the student can share common understandings and can jointly construct the way forward in terms of student learning.

In recent years there has been a growing body of research arguing for dialogue as a way to promote sustainable feedback (e.g. Boud & Malloy, 2013; Carless et al. 2011; Hounsell, 2007). Sustainable feedback involves "dialogic processes and activities which can support and inform the students on the current task, whilst also developing the ability to self-regulate

performance on future task." (Carless et al. 2011, p.397). In the context of higher education, Carless et. al (2011) developed a framework of practices relevant to sustainable feedback following interviews with ten award-winning teachers at the University of Hong Kong aimed at understanding their feedback practices. The study resulted in the identification of three characteristics of sustainable feedback: first, it involves students in dialogue to raise their awareness of quality performance; second, it facilitates processes to stimulate students' sense of monitoring and evaluating their own learning; and third, it develops skills for students to set goals and to plan their learning. In dialogic feedback, teachers do not place themselves as the authority – they encourage students to enhance their ability to evaluate their learning. Boud and Malloy's (2013) analysis of two feedback model (traditional and contemporary) has lent support for sustainable feedback. The contemporary model informs students beyond the task- it helps them realise they have the capability to produce quality works and they can make their own judgements about the process and the quality of their works.

If feedback is to be carried out more effectively, it should not only consider the aspects of student performance or work but also other aspects such as students' emotions. Yang and Carless (2013) have proposed a framework in which they highlighted three important dimensions a teacher needs to consider to make feedback more dialogic and effective. The three dimensions are related to the content of feedback (cognitive), the emotional and relational support (social-affective), and the organization of feedback (structural). The cognitive dimension is "the most central to the improvement of student learning" (Yang & Carless, 2013, p. 292), yet it is not sufficient without the support of the other two dimensions. Since feedback can trigger both positive and negative emotional responses (Pekrun et al., 2002; Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017), teachers' awareness of the social-affective domains is paramount as these concerns how students emotionally react to information and how teachers and students could build trust between themselves. No less important is the structural dimension which is directly related to the institutional policies. A large number of students in a single class, large teaching workloads and other academic burdens comprise the raft of structural constraints which potentially obstruct students' and teachers' engagement in dialogic feedback (Price, Handley, & Millar, 2011) and the generation of quality feedback.

Given the more contemporary view of feedback, it is no longer accurate to say that feedback is about giving information to students about their strengths and weaknesses and how to counter the weaknesses to improve their work or performance. Contemporary feedback practice sees feedback as "a process through which learners make sense of information from various sources and use it to enhance their work or learning strategies" (Carless & Boud, 2018,

p. 1315). In other words, feedback should allow students to engage more deeply in their learning, make sense of any comments and use these to improve future work.

Feedback in EFL Context

Typically, research about oral feedback in second/foreign language learning has focused on determining which are the most effective corrective strategies (Bitchener, 2008; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Russell & Spada, 2006), the effect of certain types of corrective feedback on particular language skills (Bitchener et al., 2005; Ellis et al., 2006; Sheen, 2007), and comparing the effects of teacher and peer feedback (Paulus, 1999; Yang et al., 2006). What is lacking in the literature, however, is the study of feedback which addresses cognitive and self-regulatory processes which are salient in supporting students' long-term language learning. Feedback practice where the teacher provides corrections or clues indicating the occurrence of errors should be transformed into that which supports students to generate feedback from within themselves. In other words, feedback has to direct and support language learners as they become independent learners - a condition where they take responsibility for and over their learning. This responsibility brings together "a positive attitude to learning and the development of a capacity to reflect on the content and [cognitive] process of learning with a view to bringing them as far as possible under conscious control" (Little, 1995, p. 175).

There are two avenues of feedback literature in the context of EFL teaching - one which focuses on written feedback and the other one on oral feedback. In accordance with the aim of the current study, this section of the chapter narrows the discussion to oral feedback. It elaborates on two types of feedback (positive and corrective), evaluates the effectiveness of corrective feedback and argues for the need to shift current feedback practice to a more contemporary model.

Focus on Oral Feedback

There are two kinds of oral feedback in the context of foreign language learning and teaching: positive and corrective. Positive feedback is mainly used to inform students they have performed well with the intention of increasing motivation through praise (Nunan, 1991). It also functions as confirmation of students' responses, informing them of their success in learning. On the other hand, corrective feedback indicates that a learner's utterance in the target language is incorrect (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Specifically, corrective feedback "takes the form of a response to a learner's utterance containing a linguistic error" (Ellis, 2009, p. 3). This type of feedback can occur explicitly and implicitly.

Explicit corrective feedback provides a clear indication of oral errors where usually the teacher gives the correct form or answer immediately. For example, in the context of learning simple present tense, when the student says *"she cook fish"*, the teacher's direct response might be *"you need an 's', cooks"* or *"not she cook, but she cooks"*. Implicit feedback only provides an indirect indication that an error has occurred. For instance, as a response to *"she cook fish"* the teacher might say *"she what?"*. While implicit feedback arguably provides students with an opportunity to think about any errors they have made and explore other options of the correct form in the target language, it offers little in the way of guidance.

The provision of oral feedback has to meet certain criteria if it is to be useful for students. A review of oral feedback conducted by Nakata (2017) has summarised five important characteristics that must be met if feedback is to be meaningful and accessible for students. Feedback must be:

1. Clear in terms of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary choices;
2. Specific in that the input is understandable enough for students to focus on form;
3. Timely so to ensure the feedback serves its purpose and allows students to make connections with the target language;
4. Encouraging in that teachers have to be aware of the types of feedback each individual student prefers;
5. Ongoing in that teachers have to be patient and nurture student development over time.

Nakata (2017) further argues feedback must "build on prior knowledge, reinforce comprehension, increase motivation, help students reflect on their learning, and lead to a rich amount of student-produced responses" (p.81). In other words, the long-term goal of oral feedback is to help students to recognise their errors or mistakes and provide information that will help and opportunities for students to self-correct these errors.

Positive Feedback

Positive feedback is often given to students following a correct response to the teacher's question. Reigel (2005) has noted there are three strategies associated with positive feedback: a paralinguistic strategy, linguistic strategy and praise markers. A paralinguistic strategy includes teachers' non-verbal backchannelling moves such as nods, smiles and laughs and verbal backchannelling moves such as 'uh huh', 'I see', and 'yeah'. Backchannelling is an important aspect of teacher-student interaction. However, little is known about its relationship with learning – it seems to mainly act as an indication of active listenership (McCarthy, 2002),

attention to the speaker (Bjørge, 2010) and understanding (Conroy et al., 2009). A linguistic strategy refers to a verbal response such as 'right', 'yes, that's right', 'exactly', or 'correct' to show acceptance of a student's utterance. Praise markers such as 'very good', 'great work', 'good job' or 'excellent' are the most common form of positive feedback. These markers focus on the emotional side of learning such as boosting motivation and self-esteem (Sigott, 2013). Praise is viewed as "an act which attributes credit to another for some characteristic, attribute, skill, etc., which is positively valued by the person giving feedback." (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, p.186).

The use of praise is considered to have little or no impact on learners' language acquisition because it does not specifically explain the target of the feedback or learning (Wong & Waring, 2009). Praise is seen as "a way of reinforcing a student's giving of a correct response, which, in the context of language teaching, means reinforcing correct comprehension or production of a language structure." (Wong & Waring, 2009, p. 196). With this in mind, both teachers and students feel little need to elaborate the response any further since it is correct. Waring's (2008) study of positive feedback has demonstrated that teachers' use of praise could not stimulate students' curiosity to understand more about the lesson. Instead, praise served as a form of sequence closing or signal of 'case closed', pre-empting further discussion on the topic. Wong and Waring (2009) specifically studied the use of phrase 'very good' as the teacher's response to students answer. They argued that in addition to closing the sequence of an interaction, such praise also shut down learning opportunities. It thus hindered students from voicing their understanding of the answer.

While praise is often used as a way to increase student motivation in learning English, it is not necessarily effective in extending learning opportunities. Wong and Waring (2009) proposed alternatives to using 'very good' or praise alone as positive feedback. They suggested, for example, use of strategies such as problematizing correct responses, asking further questions regarding the response, and eliciting other students' contributions. Problematizing correct responses and asking further questions might offer opportunities for other students to engage in the interaction and to voice their thoughts. Moreover, students would not only get an understanding of what the correct answer was but also why it was correct. The authors further argued that eliciting peer contributions is likely to attract participation. Using a question such as 'Does anyone a have different answer?' allows students to "question, debate, or agree with answers given by other student" (Wong & Waring, 2009, p.201). It does not necessarily indicate that the previous answer is incorrect, but it could attract further learning opportunities.

For praise to be influential to student learning, it needs to focus on the effort or process rather than the individual. Mercer and Ryan (2013) have argued that praise affects students' mind-sets. When giving praise to students, teachers might believe they are conveying a particular message, but the message might be interpreted differently by the students. As Dweck (2007) puts it "praise is intricately connected to how students view their intelligence."(p.34). Therefore, when students are praised for their ability or the end product, they tend to believe that their ability or intelligence is a fixed characteristic. This fixed mind-set then hinders them in terms of seeking more challenging tasks; instead, students prefer to do tasks within their comfort zone which confirms their intelligence. However, when they are praised for their efforts in doing tasks, students are likely to view intelligence as something which can be developed over time through constant efforts. This so-called growth mind-set leads students to focus on learning, engagement, effort, and strategies that enable them to approach a variety of tasks (Dweck, 2013).

Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback has received much attention in the last few decades as the subject of theoretical and empirical research. Nevertheless, there has been an ongoing debate regarding the role and the impact of corrective feedback on language learning. Although the debate originated from the literature about the learning of first language (L1), it has been drawn out to the area of second language (L2) acquisition (Nassaji, 2015). There are two major theoretical perspectives that address feedback within the area of second language acquisition: nativist and interactionist. According to the nativist view, corrective feedback is not necessary and it does not contribute to L2 development (Krashen, 1982). Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis puts forward the idea that L2 is acquired the same way as L1 and thus corrective feedback is not needed. Krashen has argued that feedback in the form of "error correction has the immediate effect of putting the student on the defensive" (p.75). Furthermore, he has contended that corrective feedback can result in students being reluctant to use complex structures as they want to avoid making errors. Correcting errors is also seen as having "a negligible effect on the developing system of most language learners" (VanPatten, 1992, p. 24). VanPatten (1992) has further argued that in addition to its ineffectiveness, corrective feedback has been over-rated.

On the contrary, from the interactionist perspective, corrective feedback is a vital process and it is believed to assist second language development. According to this perspective, interaction with a native speaker of the target language or with a more proficient speaker helps learners to modify their speech and makes them realize that their utterances are

non-targetlike. Earlier research (Mackey, 2006; McDonough & Mackey, 2006; Oliver, 1995) has provided plenty of evidence that feedback received during the interaction helps learners language acquisition. Many studies have also demonstrated that corrective feedback has a powerful influence in promoting learning (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2018; Lyster, 2004; Mackey, 2006; Sheen, 2004). It supports the acquisition of grammar, vocabulary, and other linguistic aspects of the target language.

Informed by an interactionist view, Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted an observational study in six French immersion classrooms to understand the different types of corrective feedback and learners uptake of the corrective feedback in the communicative classroom. They demonstrated how oral corrective feedback helped students improve their acquisition of the target language. The study also resulted in the formulation of six corrective feedback strategies:

1. Recasts where the teacher reformulates student's utterance and corrects the error at the same time;
2. Explicit correction where the teacher shows where the error is and provides correction;
3. Repetition where the teacher repeats the student utterance by putting emphasis on the error;
4. Clarification requests where the teacher asks questions indicating that the utterance is ill-formed;
5. Elicitation where the teacher tries to elicit the correct answer by asking students to complete the utterance;
6. Metalinguistic information where the teacher provides a brief statement, information, or question which indicates the occurrences of errors.

(Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

In all of the above, it is the teacher who initiates corrections though not necessarily providing the correct utterances. Corrective feedback has been demonstrated as useful in promoting learners' language acquisition and development (e.g. Lyster & Saito, 2010; McDonough & Mackey, 2006; Nassaji, 2015). Mackey and Oliver (2002) for example conducted an experimental study examining the effects of corrective feedback on children's second language learning. They compared pre-test and post-test results of two groups where one group had received corrective feedback and the other group had not. The study revealed that the children in the corrective feedback group showed significant improvements in terms of their language learning.

Effectiveness of Corrective Feedback

Ever since Lyster and Ranta (1997) published their categorisation of corrective feedback strategies, researchers have been investigating the effect and effectiveness of each strategy on second/ foreign language learning and acquisition (e.g. Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Sheen, 2007). More specifically, researchers have been interested in comparing the effectiveness of explicit and implicit feedback. As opposed to explicit corrective feedback where information about the occurrence of errors and sometimes the correct form is provided, implicit feedback indirectly indicates that students have made an error, without telling them precisely where the error has occurred. Explicit corrective feedback strategies include explicit (direct) correction and metalinguistic cues. Other strategies such as recasts, elicitation, clarification requests, and repetition fall into the implicit category. Much of the attention has been focused on comparing the effectiveness of metalinguistic cues and recasts, representing explicit and implicit feedback. Previous research has demonstrated their effectiveness in supporting language acquisition (Rod Ellis et al., 2018), increasing grammatical accuracy (Rahimi & Zhang, 2016; Zohrabi & Ehsani, 2014) and minimizing phonological errors (Sepasdar & Kafipour, 2019). This might be due to learners paying attention to the feedback and they are aware that errors have occurred. Thus, they notice the gap between their utterance and the target utterance.

Empirical studies seeking to compare explicit and implicit feedback have generally yielded the result that explicit feedback is more powerful than the implicit one. Especially, explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic information has been found more effective and more useful in improving various aspects of language learning than direct corrections and other implicit types (Ajabshir, 2014; Zohrabi & Ehsani, 2014). For instance, an early study by Carroll and Swain (1993) investigated the extent to which explicit feedback types are more helpful in learning grammatical generalizations. A hundred adult Spanish ESL learners were divided into five groups in which group A received explicit metalinguistic feedback, group B received explicit rejection (they were told that they were wrong), group C was given recasts when they erred, group D was asked if they were sure about their response, and group E received no feedback at all. The result showed that all groups receiving feedback performed better than the no-feedback group. Nevertheless, group A, which was treated with explicit metalinguistic feedback, outperformed all other groups. Carroll and Swain (1993) further concluded that merely telling learners that they were wrong or providing implicit correction was not as helpful as giving explicit metalinguistic information. This could be because metalinguistic explanations trigger awareness of the gap between students' oral production and the target form (Rod Ellis et al., 2018). It does not only allow learners to notice the grammatical form of the target language but also to compare "the noticed target language with

their own interlanguage and thereby were able to incorporate it into their interlanguage"
(Varnosfadrani & Basturkmen, 2009, p. 92).

One of the goals of learning to speak English is to use it in communication. It has been argued that oral corrective feedback can affect student's willingness to communicate using the target language (Macintyre et al., 2011; Zarrinabadi, 2014). Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi (2018) investigated the differential effect of explicit and implicit corrective feedback on EFL learners' willingness to communicate in the Iranian context. Their multi-method study demonstrated explicit feedback significantly increase students' willingness to communicate in English. Explicit feedback reduced students' anxiety which in turn increased their confidence, gave them the opportunity to check on their progress and motivate them to do better in the future (Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2018).

Although explicit feedback has been generally shown as more effective, it does not mean that implicit feedback plays no role in improving learning. Experimental laboratory-based studies on implicit feedback have exhibited enticing results. Recast has been demonstrated as significantly beneficial for learners to improve their target language accuracy (Ishida, 2004; Saito & Lyster, 2011). Studies on other form of implicit feedback such as clarification requests have indicated that it increased learners' opportunity to modify their erroneous utterances (McDonough, 2005). In Nassaji's (2009) study, the use of elicitation has been demonstrated to have a long term effect. This might be because elicitations do not provide the correct forms in the target language, learners are forced, over time, to generate corrections by themselves which prolongs learners' retention. Furthermore, as confirmed in many studies (e.g. Gooch et al., 2016; Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster, 2004), implicit feedback in a classroom setting can play a significant role if it is able to draw learners' attention. Owing to its subtlety, implicit feedback can be ambiguous – learners sometimes are not aware that they are receiving feedback. Therefore, when the feedback is successfully noticed by learners, it could lead to a robust change to their oral language production.

Shifting the Feedback Practice

Language learning is seen as a social process (Appel & Lantolf, 1994) where interaction is an integral part of learning within which negotiation occurs. However, the role of teachers in second/foreign language classroom resembles that of active agents who provide information or corrections while the students remain passive recipients of information in the form of corrections. In order to assist students to be autonomous and self-regulated learners, these roles need to be shifted and feedback practice needs to involve collaboration between the teacher and students and among students.

Studies have suggested a need for teachers to embrace the new role in their feedback practice. For instance, Nunan (1991) has suggested that the role of teachers is no longer that of providing information, but rather they are active participants, monitors and guides for students. Wenden (1991) has also considered that teachers have to act as helpers and facilitators rather than sources of information. Additionally, Oxford (1990) has argued that teachers need to modify their practice in order to make students' learning "more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (p.8). Given the dates of the aforementioned works, it seems that the idea of teachers embracing a new role has been around for at least two decades. However, to date, few studies have been concerned with this role transformation (Lee, 2014, 2016; Lee et al., 2015)

Lee (2014) in her review of written feedback from the perspective of mediated learning experience and activity theory argues that the traditional way of providing feedback needs to be transformed because it provides insufficient information to assist students in making improvements. She further suggests that teachers need to modify the object of feedback from correcting errors to providing information that helps with students' learning improvement, motivating them, and directing them to become autonomous learners. Students also need to transform the goals of their learning, from getting scores to engaging with, acting on, and reflecting on the feedback. She argues there is an urgency to introduce a new way of teachers mediating learning in order to achieve the new roles. Feedback which provides detailed error corrections should be replaced with more informative, diagnostic, and focused feedback.

Transforming feedback is arguably a complex process as changing a traditional practice is challenging. It requires support and involvement not only from the teacher but also from the students and other stakeholders. An intervention study by Lee, Mak and Burns (2016) focused on the implementation of feedback innovation (using strategies of coded instead of direct written corrective feedback and peer feedback) in EFL writing classrooms. The teachers had never used these strategies in their classrooms. Prior to implementing a feedback innovation, two teachers who participated in the study received a 20-hour course on writing in a teacher education program and a six-hour workshop on professional development. The study attempted to find out how these teachers implemented the new feedback principles and the factors that influenced this implementation. It was found that while both teachers attempted to carry out feedback innovation in their classrooms, there was a discrepancy between what was suggested in the course and professional development workshops and their practice. The factors that impacted on their practice included their limited power within a context of school rules, lack of support from colleagues, the demands of the appraisal system, and students' attitudes towards learning.

In contrast to studies focused on the teacher, Papi, Rios, Pelt, and Ozdemir (2019) investigated the concept of oral corrective feedback from the students' perspectives. Their quantitative study focused on understanding how students sought feedback, by what method, and from what source, arguing that feedback-seeking behaviour is closely linked with students' mindsets and achievement goals. Their study found that students with growth language mindsets and achievement goals tend to view corrective feedback as an opportunity to readjust their efforts and strategies to improve their language competence. These students actively sought feedback using different strategies such as asking questions regarding the feedback to their teachers and/or peers. Those with a fixed language mindsets, however, did not see feedback as a valuable resource that could help with the improvement of their language competence. As a result these students avoid being corrected as they think corrective feedback is an attack on their self-esteem. Students with fixed language mindsets do not want to be seen as incompetent which is why the study found they avoid seeking feedback from their teachers. The study concluded corrective feedback is complex and ignoring the student's role would exacerbate the attempt to understand its process.

Shifting the current feedback practice also means giving more roles to students which then requires them to proactively seek for feedback. This feedback-seeking behaviour is "an effective self-regulation strategy to improve performance" (Anseel et al., 2015). Therefore, for feedback transformation to be implemented successfully, students have to be ready to embrace the change. Both teachers and students should view feedback as 'a learning resource' instead of 'a teaching resource' (Papi et al., 2019). In other words, feedback should be a collaborative process, not just a part of the teacher's routine.

Chapter Summary

The overall aim of feedback in both contexts is for students to make improvements to their performance and/or work. However, the focus and nature of feedback, and how it is undertaken, differs in each context. In general education, feedback focuses on developing student understanding of learning goals and what good performance looks like. Additionally, it focuses on helping students to be able to evaluate or judge their own work and to monitor and self-regulate their learning. In EFL context, the notion of feedback is intertwined with the notion of error. Thus, it emphasises correcting students' errors or mistakes (e.g. grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary and spelling). The nature of feedback is more dialogic in the general education than in EFL context, feedback is a two-way transmission of information instead of one way. Moreover, feedback allows for a reciprocal role where the teacher works collaboratively with students to achieve common understanding while students actively

engage in the process of generating information. Meanwhile, in EFL setting there is an imbalance in terms of the roles the teacher and students play. The teacher has more power than the student in that the teacher tells students about their errors/mistakes and either initiates corrections or corrects the errors/mistakes for them.

Feedback in the context of general education has undergone a paradigm shift in recent years, resulting in a more contemporary conceptualisation. In contrast, conceptualisation of feedback is EFL have remained largely unchanged for more than 30 years. There are however small signs of changes and attempts of a shift towards the adoption of contemporary notions of feedback (e.g. Lee, 2016; Lee et al., 2015; Mak & Lee, 2014; Papi et al., 2019). Nevertheless, the enactment of the shift has been slow in pace.

Next Chapter

The following chapter elaborates the research process of the current study.

Chapter Four: The Research Process

Contained within this chapter is detail description of the research process which includes the research methodology, sampling, ethical considerations, data collection, data analysis, and a discussion regarding the trustworthiness of the study. The first section of this chapter discusses the research methodology in which the research questions, overarching paradigm, and design are presented respectively. The second section describes the sampling techniques- the sampling strategy used and how the research sites and participants are selected. This section also provides a detail description of the participants. Following this is the third section which addresses ethical considerations in relation to the current study. The fourth section outlines data collection methods and procedures along with justifications for their use. In section five, approaches used for data analysis are laid out. The chapter concludes by discussing the trustworthiness of the research process and findings.

The Research Methodology

Research is an act of inquiring into or investigating something in a systematic manner (Merriam, 2009). Methodology can be defined as an underlying framework guiding a research project. It helps to decide what case(s) to study, how to plan the study, collect and analyse data (Silverman, 2005).

The Research Questions

The current study sought to investigate the ways in which oral feedback supports and engages students in English language learning. In order to address this, answers were sought for the following questions:

1. What beliefs do teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback?
2. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the teacher in the feedback process?
3. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the students in the feedback process?
4. What types of feedback are evident in the teaching and learning process?
5. How do students respond to oral feedback?

Essentially, these questions aimed to provide the researcher with an in depth understanding of the participants' perceptions, experiences, and practices of oral feedback. To be able to do so, it was paramount to determine the most appropriate research paradigm to guide and frame the research.

Research Paradigm

A paradigm is "a worldview, a general perspective, a way of breaking down the complexity of the real world." (Patton, 1990, p.37). It provides a model or a framework for "observation and understanding which shape both what we see and how we understand it." (Babbie, 2007, p.31). Simply put, a paradigm is a way of looking at and understanding the world. It is important to identify the philosophical foundation to research as it determines the researcher's worldview which prescribes how the researcher sees the world, and how s/he interprets and acts within that world (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Contained within a paradigm are the notions of ontology, epistemology, and methodology. Ontology refers to the nature of reality and how the world is viewed. As Schwandt (2007) puts it "ontology is concerned with understanding the kinds of things that constitute the world." (p.192). Meanwhile, epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge. Questions such as "what might represent knowledge or evidence of the social reality that is investigated" and "what is counted as evidence" (Mason, 2002, p.16) are some of the attendant issues. These ontological and epistemological assumptions and beliefs define how knowledge about the world is gained and how research data is collected (also called methodology). In other words, the choice of methodology for a research is embedded in the ontological and epistemological assumptions underpinning the study (Hennink et al., 2011).

There are three dominant paradigms in research according to literature: positivist, interpretivist, and critical theory (Willis, 2007). The current study falls into the interpretive paradigm.

The Interpretive Paradigm

The interpretive paradigm assumes that reality is socially constructed and knowledge about this reality is best accessed by experience and interaction through which the researcher and participants co-construct understandings. Research within an interpretive paradigm seeks to uncover participants' understandings, purposes, intentions, and interpretations of the significance of their actions within a given context (Carr & Kemmis, 2004). Researchers following this perspective are interested in "understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds, and what meaning they attribute to their experiences." (Merriam, 2009, p.5). It therefore emphasizes meaning and understanding.

The interpretive paradigm was considered appropriate for this study because it was consistent with the aim and research questions which sought to understand the participants' perceptions and experiences about and engagement in oral feedback. Teachers' and students'

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views regarding oral feedback and how they perceived each other's role in the oral feedback process were key concerns of the study. Also central was an examination of how and why students responded to oral feedback and how and why they used it to inform their learning. In line with the interpretive paradigm, the current study was framed as qualitative research.

Qualitative Research

Qualitative research usually puts an emphasis on words rather than quantification in data collection and data analysis (Bryman, 2008). It takes place in natural settings and is concerned with how the participants make sense of their everyday lives. As Creswell (2009) has stated "qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem." (p.4). Therefore, qualitative studies value participants' diverse perspectives which are seen as the foundation of their actions. Unlike quantitative research that obtains data through questionnaires, test scores or other measuring instruments, qualitative research typically generates data through observations, interviews, and/or other artefacts from the research site (Hatch, 2002). Such information enables the researcher "to build concepts, hypotheses, or theorises rather than deductively testing hypotheses" (Merriam, 2009, p. 15).

Qualitative methods are considered suitable in terms of advancing the research questions and providing a rich description of teachers' and students' perceptions of and experiences in relation to oral feedback. There are a number of approaches that fall under the umbrella of qualitative research. Ethnography, field research, phenomenology, grounded theory, case study, action research, and content analysis are some of the examples. Accordingly, case study was considered the most appropriate approach to addressing the research questions.

Case Study

Case study research, an approach widely used by interpretive researchers, is recognized as an effective approach to enquire into and comprehend complex issues within real world settings. By definition, case study is "an in depth description and analysis of a bounded system" (Merriam, 2009, p.43). A bounded system means that a case is seen as an integral unit within specific boundaries (Merriam, 2009). Therefore, in investigating the case, the researcher can set limitations which determine what is going to be studied and what is not. For example, in an educational setting, case studies are generally concerned with issues related to teaching and learning. Within such settings, boundary lines can be drawn as to which schools and/or classrooms setting the study will be conducted in, who will be the participants, and what specific aspects of the curriculum or a topic will be investigated. In exploring the bounded system (the case), the researcher collects data through various qualitative methods

such as observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and/or documents (Creswell, 2007). Since data are gained from various sources, case studies can provide a comprehensive and complex explanation about the phenomenon under investigation.

The Intent and Focus of Case Study. Merriam (1998) has classified case studies based on the overall intent of the study. A descriptive case study is aimed at communicating detailed information about the phenomenon being studied. This type of study is useful for creating a database for future studies and generating theory. An interpretive case study is also built upon descriptive data but the data contains rich detail which is used "to develop conceptual categories or to illustrate, support, or challenge theoretical assumptions held prior to gathering the data" (Merriam, 1998, p.38). When the intent of the case study is to make an appraisal or judgement as to the worth of something, it is classified as evaluative. This type of case study provides a thick description and explanation prior to making an appraisal or a judgement about the phenomenon under study. The current study falls within the interpretive intent as it brings the sense or meaning of the data to the fore, rather than merely describing or making an evaluative judgment.

The Case for Study. The particular case being examined in the current study is the phenomenon of oral feedback. The study investigated teachers' and students' beliefs about and engagement in oral feedback during the teaching and learning process in relation to supporting and furthering students' English language learning. This study was bounded by the focus of the study (teachers' and students' perceptions of, experiences and engagement in oral feedback); by time (July- December 2018); by place (three different senior high schools in a large city in Indonesia); by subject (English language learning lessons); by context (Grade 11 classrooms); by content (use of the same textbook when teaching the subject); and by participants (three English language teachers teaching in grade 11 and six students in each teacher's grade 11 class).

Case study was selected for this research because it was mainly conducted in natural settings (Bassey, 1991), which in this study was the classroom setting. Case studies are particularistic in that they focus on "a particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon" (Merriam, 1998, p. 29); descriptive as the end product is "a rich, thick description of the phenomenon under study" (Merriam, 1998, p. 29); and heuristic because they aim at illuminating and furthering understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Merriam, 1998). The current study was particularistic as it focused only on oral feedback when students were engaged in learning English as a foreign language. It was descriptive because it provided a robust description of teachers and students' perceptions about the purpose and use of oral

feedback. It explored in detail how teachers used oral feedback as a means to support and further students' learning and how students perceived and responded to this. Moreover, this study was heuristic since its ultimate goal was to provide insights into and shed light on our understanding of oral feedback in the context of English language learning. It explained and discussed how oral feedback is used to enhance students' English language learning.

Sampling

Selection of the research sample and choice of a sampling technique are important considerations in a research study. Gentles, Charles, Ploeg, & McKibbon (2015) have defined sampling as "the selection of specific data sources from which data are collected to address the research objectives." (p. 1775). There are two basic types of sampling in research: probability and non-probability sampling (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) with each having different sampling techniques. While probability sampling is commonly used in quantitative research, non-probability sampling is the signature of qualitative studies and it includes techniques such as quota, snowball, convenience, and purposeful (purposive) sampling.

A case study usually involves two levels of sampling: selection of 'the case' and selection of participants, activities, documents, or other sources of data or evidence of relevance to the case. Since the current study was to be information-rich, it was appropriate to employ purposeful sampling. This sampling technique is widely used within interpretive inquiry to identify and select information-rich cases for detailed study (Patton, 1990). It involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups who possess the knowledge and experience in the area under study.

Purposeful sampling was also chosen as the researcher wanted to "discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned" (Merriam, 2009, p. 77). In this case, the chosen samples were English teachers and students who, the researcher believed, had the experience of giving and receiving oral feedback as well as using and engaging in oral feedback.

Selection of Sites

This research was conducted in three Senior High Schools in Jakarta, Indonesia. Jakarta was chosen because it is the capital city of Indonesia and thus it was expected that schools in Jakarta would have quality teachers. In addition, the researcher resided in the city at the time data collection occurred. Since Jakarta covers an area as large as 661.5 km^2, a set of criteria was prepared to identify schools in a region that would be readily accessible:

1. The schools were to be located in the Eastern Region of Jakarta, Matraman district. It was important to choose the schools within the reachable radius from the researcher's residence to ensure that the researcher would not be held up by traffic issues and could get to the school on time. Schools within a three to five mile radius of the researcher's home were prioritized.
2. The schools were to have accreditation A, a national grade for high quality schools.
3. The schools were to be public senior high schools. This was to ensure they followed the national curriculum of English language learning and use the prescribed textbook- this ensured the schools utilized similar resources (published by The Ministry of Education and Culture, 2014).

A list of schools was made by referring to an official website of education authorities of DKI Jakarta province (http://disdik.jakarta.go.id/). There were seven schools that matched the criteria, so the researcher grouped them based on their distance from the researcher's residence (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

Selection of Sites Based on Proximity in Matraman District, East Jakarta
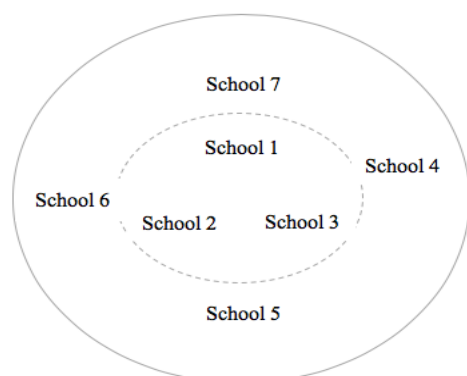
Gaining Access to Sites

A month after ethics approval was gained from the University of Auckland (early February 2018), the researcher mailed a Letter of Introduction (see Appendix A) to the principals of the first three schools along with a Principal Information Sheet (see Appendix B) and a Principal Consent Form (see Appendix C). The researcher also prepared documents needed to obtain a letter of recommendation from the local government and the education authority to carry out research in the schools.

In the third week of July 2018, the researcher contacted the first school, Garuda School (pseudonym), and the second school, Bhinneka School (pseudonym), by phone, making an

appointment to meet with the vice principal (curriculum) who had the authority to give site access. On the meeting day, the researcher handed in the letter of introduction, the Principal Information Sheet, and the consent form to the vice principal. At the meeting, the research project was explained in detail and the vice principal was given time to ask questions regarding the project.

While Garuda and Bhinneka School were contacted almost at the same time, the third school, Tunas Bangsa (pseudonym), was contacted in October using the same procedures. In this school, the researcher met with the principal instead of the vice-principal. The time delay was deliberate in order to give the researcher sufficient time to complete data collection in the two earlier schools.

Selection of Teachers

Upon gaining approval to access teachers and students, the researcher asked the vice principals or their nominees to distribute the Participant Information Sheets (PIS) to grade 11 teachers of English (see Appendix D) and along with a Consent Form (see Appendix E). The PIS explained the nature and scope of the study and the teacher's role within it. Any teachers willing to participate were asked to contact the researcher by email.

In Garuda and Tunas Bangsa, there was only one English teacher of grade 11; both Ms. Catherine (Garuda) and Ms.Tuti (Tunas Bangsa) agreed to participate in the research. Meanwhile, there were two grade 11 English teachers in Bhinneka school. One teacher did not wish to participate but the other one (Ms. Hasibuan) agreed. The researcher arranged a specific time to meet with each teacher to explain what was required for the research, answer questions they might have before signing the consent form, and to determine the class and schedule for observations and interviews.

Ms. Catherine (pseudonym) was a new teacher to Garuda School. She came to the school in the middle of the first semester in 2017, giving her about eight months of teaching experience in the school. Prior to teaching at the school, she was an English teacher in a Junior High School in Jakarta for ten years. She had a Bachelor's degree in English Education and she had just started her postgraduate program in the same field. She taught nine grade 11 classes with the total of 27 teaching hours per week.

Ms. Hasibuan (pseudonym), who had a Bachelor's and a Master's degree in Education, had been teaching in Bhinneka school for over 25 years. Prior to becoming a permanent teacher in the school, she had several years of teaching experience in another school in Jakarta. She taught four grade 11 classes and one grade 10 class at Bhinneka. She also had a total of 27 teaching hours per week.

Ms. Tuti (pseudonym) was a senior teacher in Tunas Bangsa school. She had a Bachelor's in Education and had been teaching there for over 25 years. Ms. Tuti taught 15 classes at Tunas bangsa in total, eight grade 11 classes and seven grade 12 classes, which resulted in her teaching 30 hours per week.

In Indonesian high schools, classes are organized according to the major taken by the students e.g. Science (where the students study Math, Biology, Physics, and Chemistry), Social science (where the students study History, Geography, Sociology and Anthropology and Economics), and Language (where the students study German, French, Arabic, Japanese, or Mandarin). Irrespective of the major taken, all students study English language as a part of the curriculum.

For the observations, Ms. Catherine and Ms. Tuti chose a science major class for two reasons: (1) their preferred time for the observations was in the morning and they taught students from this major at that time, and (2) their belief that students in the science major participated more readily in lessons than those in their other classes. Ms. Hasibuan, however, did not have a preference in terms of which class to invite to participate in the project since she considered all students should be given an equal opportunity. She then selected the social science major considering the teaching time (afternoon) suited her best.

Selection of Students

The researcher visited the class with each teacher to make contact with the students and seek volunteers. This opportunity was used by the researcher to explain the research to students: what it was about, why their class was selected, and what was required from them in regard to their participation. At this time students were given the opportunity to ask questions. Then, the researcher asked for the teacher's help to distribute the PIS (see Appendix F) and consent forms (see Appendix G) to the students. There were 36 students in each of the three classes. This research needed all students from each class to participate in classroom observations. However, only six students from each class were required to volunteer for interviews.

In Garuda, all students agreed to participate in the observations and twenty out of thirty six students agreed to participate in the interviews. To be eligible for the interviews, the students needed to be: a) articulate in English and Bahasa Indonesia; b) confident to speak with the researcher who is a stranger. This procedure was utilised in selecting student participants in each of the classes in each of the three schools. The researcher consulted with Ms. Catherine from Garuda and asked her help to select the participants. The teacher said that the 25 students were quite similar in terms of the two criteria so six students were randomly

selected. The teacher wrote the students' name on 25 small pieces of paper and the researcher drew six names: Ciara, Dita, Kendall, Kylie, Zack, and Ita (pseudonyms). In Bhinneka, all students agreed to participate in the observations, and thirty four of thirty six agreed to participate in the interviews. The same procedure as in Garuda was used, resulting in the selection of six students: Nichol, Emily, Jack, Wilson, Raina, and Sky (pseudonyms). At Tunas Bangsa, all students also agreed to participate in the observations and there were fifteen students who wished to participate in the interviews. Six students were selected (Dede, Rei, Sanchaboga, Irfan, Durant, Iting- pseudonyms) based on the criteria with the help from Ms. Tuti. Students who volunteered but not selected were thanked for their interest.

As soon as the participants were selected, the researcher asked the teacher to arrange a meeting with the six students to discuss the pre-observation interview schedule. Table 3, summarizes information about the schools, teachers, and students selected for the study including the teachers' background and students age and gender.

Table 3

Teachers' and Students' Background

Schools	Teacher	Students (Name, age, gender)		
Garuda	Ms. Catherine - 8 months experience in Garuda, 10 years in Junior High school - Bachelor in Education - 27 teaching hours per week	Ciara Dita Kendall Kylie Zack Ita,	17 16 17 17 17 16	Female Female Female Female Male Female
Bhinneka	Ms. Hasibuan - over 25 years experience - Master's in Education - 27 teaching hours a week	Nichol Emily Jack Wilson Raina Sky	17 17 16 16 17 17	Male Female Female Female Female Female
Tunas Bangsa	Ms. Tuti - Over 25 years experience - Bachelor in Education - 30 teaching hours per week	Dede Rei Sanchaboga Irfan Durant Iting	16 16 17 17 17 16	Female Male Female Male Male Female

Ethical Considerations

Since this research was dealing with human participants, ethical principles needed to be addressed. This study referred to the Guiding Principles for conducting research with Human Participants formulated by The University of Auckland's Human Participants Ethic Committee, which requires that all research adhere to the following principles: voluntary and

informed consent, protection of research participants' privacy and confidentiality and minimization of harm and risk.

Voluntary and informed consent

Information was given to participants about the nature and scope of study and their role within it. This enabled them to give informed consent. As noted earlier, all of those involved in the study were given Participant Information Sheets and a Consent Form. Participation was voluntary. They had opportunities to ask questions before signing the consent forms and had right to withdraw anytime without explanation.

Information and Consent to Access Site and Participants

The researcher sent an information letter to school principals or his/her nominee explaining the nature and the purpose of the research and asking for permission to access the school site and participants. The researcher then scheduled a visit to each school for the purpose of answering questions and discussing any concerns with the principal or his/her nominee. Access to the site and participants was granted once the principal or his/her nominee signed the consent form.

Participant Information Sheet and Consent Forms

Participant Information Sheets and Consent Forms (both in English and Bahasa Indonesia) were distributed to the selected teachers and their selected grade 11 classes. These sheets included an explanation about the purpose of the research, the method of data collection and a statement that participation was voluntary. The researcher used both English and Bahasa Indonesia to explain the content of the PIS. Teachers and students had an opportunity to ask questions and clarify what was involved before signing the consent form. Signing the consent form meant that the teachers and students agreed to participate in the research.

Confidentiality and Anonymity

All participants were assured that their participation in the study was confidential. However, they were informed that given the observational nature of the study it was likely staff members and students of the school would be aware of the teacher and students' participation. All data gathered was confidential to the researcher and the supervisors. The principal or his/her nominee did not have access to teacher or student data and teachers did not have access to student data. No identifying names were used- all data was anonymized, and pseudonyms created to protect teachers' and students' identities. Since this study video recorded the classroom teaching and learning processes, the researcher ensured that the video

recorded data were not shown to anyone except the researcher's two supervisors. All data were stored securely in the researcher's password protected personal computer.

Minimization of Harm

Every research study carries different risks. Participation might cause physical harm and/or psychological stress (Busher, 2002). This study involved teachers and students within a schooling context. Therefore, the researcher was aware that the study might cause anxiety for the participants in terms of occupation (for teachers) and grades (for students). To minimize such harm and risk for teachers, the researcher sought an assurance from each principal that any teacher's decision to participate or not would not affect her/his standing in the school or their tenure. The teachers were also assured that the researcher would not judge their teaching practice, personality, or their English language proficiency. For students, an assurance was sought from each teacher that her/his decision to participate or not would not affect their grades and would not be used to judge their English language proficiency.

Data Collection

Data were gathered through three complementary approaches consistent with qualitative case studies: interviews, observations, and the collection of artefacts.

Interviews

An interview is a conversation between researcher and her/his participants which is focused on the research topic (DeMarrais, 2004; Merriam, 2009). The purpose of an interview is "to obtain information and understanding of issues relevant to the general aims and specific questions of a research project" (Gillham, 2000, p. 2). An interview is carried out so that a researcher can understand each participant's perspective.

Some research require interviews with individual participants, and others carry out interviews in a group, commonly called a focus group interview. While a focus group interview is seen as an efficient way of collecting qualitative data (Patton, 1990) because it can gather information from many participants at one time, it also has some shortcomings. One which stands out is its inability to provide in-depth understandings of individuals' experience as there should be enough time for all group member to express themselves (Patton, 1990). The current study, therefore, favoured individual rather than the focus group interviews.

Interviews can be conducted in three ways as structured, semi-structured, and unstructured interactions. The current study used semi-structured interviews due to their flexible structure. In semi-structured interviews, the researcher has a list of areas and associated questions or prompts to guide the interview. The areas and questions can however

be addressed in any order. Furthermore, questions are open-ended (Merriam, 2009), inviting the participants to express their thoughts and ideas. A semi-structured interview allows the researcher "to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic" (Merriam, 2009, p.90).

Individual interviews were used in this study to provide an opportunity to capture in-depth insights from each participant, insights that are rarely achieved through other means. Merriam and Tisdell (2015) have explained how unobservable behaviour, feelings, past events, experience and the meaning making process of the experience can be unnoticed during observations, which is why interviewing individuals becomes paramount. Interviews with each teacher and student participants were conducted twice. For each teacher, one interview was carried out before the first classroom observations began and another one after the last classroom observation. Each student had one interview before the first classroom observation started and one more interview midway through the observations (after the third observation).

Piloting the Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Harding (2003) has stated that although there was no urgency for piloting interviews in qualitative study, it is advantageous in terms of checking if interview questions need to be revised before conducting the actual interview. Piloting interviews can also help the researcher determine whether:

- questions are understood and logical;
- the words and ideas used are appropriate to the context of the respondent;
- any questions need to be rephrased;
- the research questions can be answered, or research objectives can be met, with the information gathered from the interviews and that;
- the interview guide is of an appropriate length.
  (Hennick, Hutter, & Bailey, 2011)

Additionally, Hennick, Hutter, and Bailey (2011) have suggested that the pilot interview should be conducted with the people similar to the proposed participants. Therefore, the researcher asked a colleague who was an English teacher in Indonesia to participate in a pilot interview.

The pilot interview revealed that the duration of the interview, which was estimated at 45-60 minutes, was achieved as the pilot interview lasted about 50 minutes. However, the interview also revealed weaknesses such as the researcher's tendency to ask a series of direct questions which resulted in long silence before the answering of the questions. For instance,

the question such as 'What is the nature and the purpose of oral feedback??' was found to be direct, making the interviewee looked nervous as he tried to recall for an answer. This prompted the need to create a more relaxed and friendly question for interviewees, especially students, with fewer direct questions and more conversational prompts. Later, such question was changed into 'Why do you give feedback to your students?'. Also, some questions needed rewording so they were more open, and less leading. For example, there was a question "Do you think that providing feedback is the responsibility of the teacher only?" which was changed into "Who do you think is responsible to provide feedback?". Such open question would generate a richer perspective from both the teachers and students. The most important outcome was that the researcher needed to consider the respondent's unfamiliarity with the topic of oral feedback. This was concluded after asking the questions regarding definition and types of oral feedback or feedback in general.

While interview questions for teachers were piloted, the researcher had a difficulty in finding student participants to pilot the questions. Therefore, the questions for students' interview were adjusted and reworded based on the piloting of the teacher interviews.

Semi-Structured Interview with Teachers. The pre-observation interview (see Appendix H) with each teacher was conducted at the agreed time during the school hours and in a place convenient to the teacher. This interview was aimed at finding out about each teacher's background, her beliefs about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback, how she engaged students in oral feedback, the types of oral feedback used, how she perceived her role in the feedback process, and how she perceived the student's role in the feedback process.

The post-observation interview (see Appendix I) focused more on gaining a better understanding about the observed teaching-learning contexts and each teacher's feedback provision. It included discussion with each teacher regarding her feedback practice. Part of the interview was spent reviewing and discussing selected video clips from the observed lessons to prompt the teachers' thinking about their practice and the reasons for it and also to give an opportunity for the teachers to explain their pedagogical decisions in relation to oral feedback.

The first interview with each teacher was carried out a week before the first classroom observation began in each class, in a quiet, big hall of each school. Ms. Catherine and Ms. Hasibuan chose to use Bahasa Indonesia during the interview as both felt that the message could be conveyed more clearly and quickly that way. Only with Ms. Tuti, of Tunas Bangsa school was the interview conducted in English..

As the interviews were carried out in between each teacher's teaching time, the interviews lasted on average about 40 minutes. Each interview was audio recorded. Prior to

beginning the interview, each teacher was told that they could turn the recorder off any time during the interview and that they could refuse to answer any questions if they wished to.

Semi-Structured Interview with Students. The initial interview (see Appendix J) with each student was carried out prior to the first classroom observation. The aim of this interview was to uncover students' beliefs about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback, how she/he engaged in oral feedback, how she/he perceived the teacher's role in the feedback process, and how she/he perceived her/his role in the feedback process.

The second interview (see Appendix K) was conducted midway through the classroom observations. The purpose was to gain a better understanding about what happens in the classroom during the feedback process from the perspective of each student. The post-observation interview was also used to clarify answers given during the first interview.

The interview schedule was made for each class in accordance with their school teaching agenda and activities. Interviews with Ms. Catherine's students were completed in three days, with two students being interviewed each day. With Ms. Hasibuan's and Ms. Tuti's students, the interviews were conducted in two days with three students each day. The interviews were carried out in the same location as the teacher's interviews. The interviews were conducted during a recess time and all interviews lasted for 15 minutes on average.

Classroom Observations

The unique strength of carrying out classroom observations in a research process is that they create an opportunity for the researcher to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring situations (Cohen, et. al, 2011). Classroom observation allows the researcher to notice participants' routines which is helpful to understand the context. It also enables the researcher to capture things which the participants are reluctant to discuss or cannot readily articulate during interviews (Patton, 2014). In addition, classroom observations are conducted to enable the researcher to develop an insider's perspective of what was happening (Creswell, 2009). They mean the researcher not only can describe but also experience the setting and activities taking place in the classroom. Moreover, typical lessons in classrooms include various activities such as a teacher's instructions, reading, writing, speaking, listening, and/or pair and small group work practicing English language, thus adding detail and richness to the data.

A researcher can take the role of a participant observer or a non-participant observer (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Patton, 1990; Stake, 1995). In cases where participant observation is used a researcher is exposed to or involved in the routines of participants in the research. In the current study, the researcher utilised non-participant observation in which the observation

was carried out without participating in the activities and interactions being observed. The researcher required the participants to act naturally. Therefore, involvement was considered as a potential disturbance to the class routines.

During the classroom observations, the researcher made fieldnotes and video recorded the classroom interaction. In particular, these were taken when instances of oral feedback occurred during teacher-student interaction.

Field Notes. Notes taken during classroom observations are referred to as field notes. Field notes are an established method for collecting data in research which employed observations (Berg & Lune, 2012; Bryman, 2012). Hennink, Hutter, & Bailey (2011) have stated that conducting observations requires not only the skills of observing what was happening in a social situation but also the skills of recording the observations. The field notes were used to document aspects of the setting (e.g. who was involved, seating arrangement, structure of the lessons, resources, and timing), student activities, and teacher-student interactions.

On the day when the researcher visited the classroom for the first time to recruit students in each class, each teacher allowed the researcher to stay in the classroom during the lesson. This opportunity was used by the researcher to become familiar with the classroom setting and activities and to practice taking field notes. An observation sheet had been prepared in advance to focus the observations. However, due to the dynamic nature of the classroom interaction, it was quite challenging to observe while filling out the observation sheet and operating the camera. Stake (1995, p.62) has suggested that researchers should keep "a good record of events to provide a relatively *incontestable description*" during the observations. Therefore, the decision was made to keep a running record of what happened when conducting the observations and transferred the note into the observation sheet soon after each observation (see Appendix L). Writing a running record was proven effective when conducting observations. A detailed description of each class activities and some episodes of oral feedback were readily captured in these records.

Video Recording. Along with field notes, a video recorder was used to record some parts of the lessons. Using this technology allowed the researcher to capture the context, dialogue and action during classroom interactions. The focus was on occurrences of oral feedback for individuals, pairs/small groups, and/or the whole class.

Before coming to the class, the researcher and each teacher discussed the topic of the day, the kind of activities students were to do, whether the activities would be in groups or individual, and when there would be opportunities for oral feedback. This information helped the researcher make decisions about which aspects of the lesson to video-record and where to

position the camera. Each classroom needed a different approach in terms of locating the camera, but basically, the researcher attempted to minimize any intrusion in the classroom by trying to be as unobstrusive as possible.

On the first day of observation in Ms. Catherine's classroom, the decision to sit and position the camera at the back corner of the class was made. This position, however, was disadvantageous since students were presenting a story in front of the class. Individual students came forward to present their stories while the teacher sat at her desk, listening to the presentation. It was observed that the teacher gave individual feedback to students right after their presentation, and as it was individual feedback, the teacher's and the students' voices were not picked up on the recording system. After discussion with the teacher, the researcher moved the camera to the corner near the teacher's desk so a better quality of sound and picture could be obtained. This position (see Figure 2) was maintained until the last day of observations as lessons followed a similar pattern.

Figure 2 shows Ms. Catherine's classroom and where the researcher located the camera during the observations. Students sat in rows with two students sharing one table. The researcher aimed the camera towards Ms. Catherine, especially when she provided feedback after the students presented.

Figure 2

The Camera Position in Ms. Catherine's Classroom
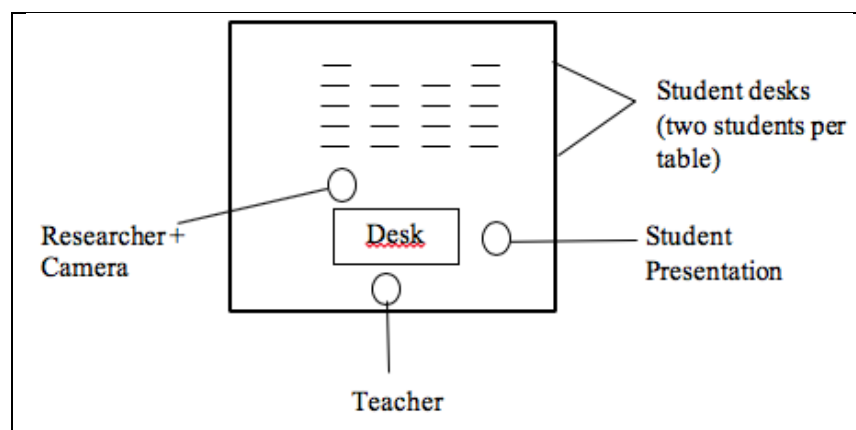
Learning from the experience in Ms. Catherine's classroom, the researcher also loacted the camera and sat in the similar position in Ms. Hasibuan's classroom. This proved to be effective in terms of capturing the teacher and the students activities as well as ensuring a quality voice recording, thus this position was maintained until the last day of observations. Ms. Hasibuan stood next to her desk while listening to individual presentations and she moved around when explaining the materials and interacting with her students. She gave both

individual and whole class feedback after the student presentations. Her voice was loud and clear, making it easier to record.

Figure 3 shows the camera positioning during the observations. The researcher sat in front of Ms. Hasibuan's desk and focused the camera on her and the students. Also presented in the diagram is the students' seating arrangement in which students sat in pairs.

Figure 3

The Camera Position in Ms. Hasibuan's Classroom
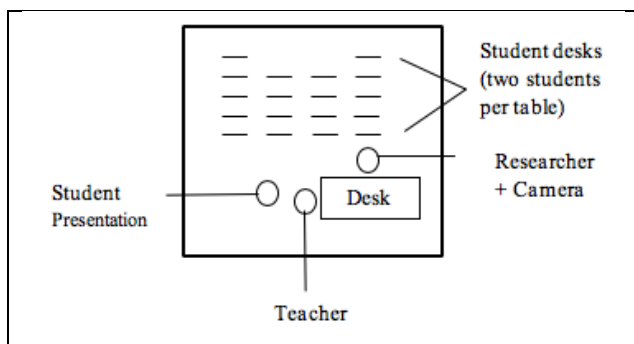
In Ms. Tuti's classroom, however, the similar positioning could not be done because the teacher thought it would be much of a distraction for students. Therefore, the researcher decided to sit and record form the back central of the classroom (see Figure 4). The quality of the voice was quite good as the class was not crowded. Only when the students did a group discussion and the class became a bit crowded was the researcher moved around the class with the camera, trying to record each group's conversations during their discussion.

Figure 4 exhibits the camera position in Ms. Tuti's classroom. Similar to the other two classrooms, students also sat in pairs. The camera was positioned at the back central as it was a better position to capture Ms. Tuti's movements and voice.

Figure 4

The Camera Position in Ms. Tuti's Classroom
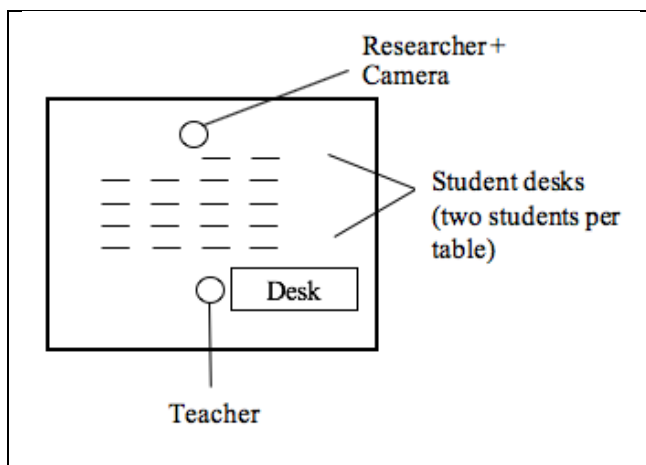
Collection of Documents

In addition to interviews and observations, the researcher collected relevant documents. Each teacher was asked to provide a copy of her/his lesson plans, syllabi, and curriculum guidelines. These documents supported the observational and interview data. In collecting the documents, the teachers only provided lesson plans and syllabi. Lesson plans were not made daily by the teachers, instead they were compiled as an accumulation of lessons for the whole semester. Similarly, the syllabi were submitted for the whole semester and it was all the same nationwide. The teachers did not provide the curriculum guidelines as it could be found and downloaded online.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is basically a process that enables the researcher to determine answers to research questions (Merriam, 2009). Within qualitative inquiry data analysis involves "organizing and interrogating data in ways that allow researchers to see patterns, identify themes, discover relationships, develop explanations, make interpretations, mount critiques, or generate theories" (Hatch, 2002, p.148). The process is generally inductive, emanating from the data. Approaches to data analysis in qualitative research include, but are not limited to, content analysis, thematic analysis, grounded theory, narrative analysis, cultural studies and semiotics (Ezzy, 2002).

As previously elaborated, data for the current study were obtained through audio-recorded interviews, video-recorded observations and field notes, and collection of documents. Therefore, prior to beginning the data analysis, all audio and video recorded data were transcribed and those which were in Bahasa Indonesia were translated into English.

Analysing Interview Data

An eclectic approach was adopted in the current analysis, employing thematic analysis (Ezzy, 2002) and aspects of constant comparative method (Glasser & Strauss, 1967). Thematic analysis aims "to identify themes within the data" (Ezzy, 2002, p. 88). It was helpful in finding patterns from the data and constructing categories which were responsive to the research questions. The constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was used to compare codes as the researcher sought for similarities and differences. Data were broken down into codes, categories, and themes. Coding is a process of "extracting concepts from raw data and developing them in terms of properties and dimensions" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 159). It is a process of making notations next to chunks of data that the researcher considers essential and

relevant in terms of answering the research questions (Merriam, 2009). There are three stages of coding: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding.

At the open coding stage, the researcher is "open to anything possible" (Merriam, 2009, p. 178) when identifying units or chunks of data that might be meaningful. The researcher first read each of the interview transcripts from the beginning to the end. The reading process was carried out four to five times per transcript in order to get familiar with the data. While reading, the researcher carefully considered meanings and context, highlighting important keywords, phrases, or sentences before putting "interpretive conceptual labels on the data" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 159). The open coding stage was both inductive and deductive as codes were taken from the participants own words and ideas from the literature. For instance, sentences or phrases such as 'feedback is given when I make mistakes', 'show mistakes and give solutions' 'won't repeat the same mistake' were highlighted as they contained similar word 'mistake' which was then put as an initial code.

Once the open coding was completed, the axial coding, which is the process of grouping open codes into categories, began. At this stage, similar codes were integrated under the same category (Ezzy, 2002). For example, 'mistake', 'wrong', 'correct', 'right', 'correction' were clustered together and formed the first category called 'correction'. Codes such as 'learn more', 'next time', 'future', 'improve', 'perfect', 'be better', 'won't do again' were also grouped and formed the second category called 'improvement' (see Figure 5). Since the categories were used to help answering the research questions, the name of these categories should be consistent with the ultimate purpose of the study. Therefore, in naming them, the researcher drew on terms and ideas from the literature.

Figure 5

Axial Coding Process
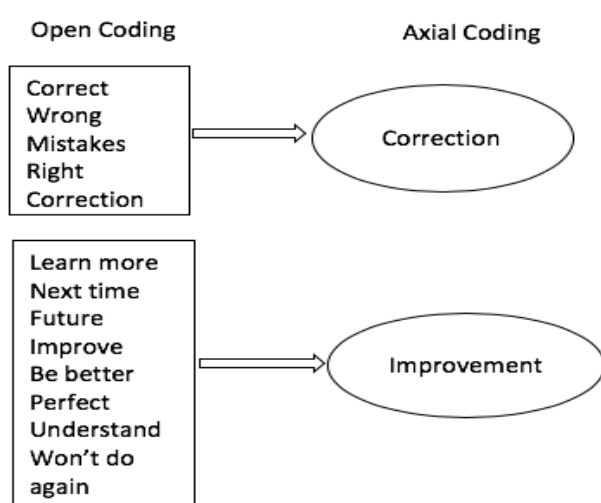
The last stage, selective coding, involves "the identification of the core category or story around which the analysis focuses" (Ezzy, 2002, p. 93). In identifying selective codes, categories are refined integrated into core categories. For example, one of the core categories identified from the analysis was 'purpose'. There were five categories formed during the axial coding process: three of which were related to learning purpose and the other two were related to affective purpose (see Appendix M). Therefore, 'purpose' became the central category which accommodated other similar codes and categories.

Analysing Observation Data

A total of 150 minutes of video recording from thirteen observations in the three schools and thirteen sets of field notes were gathered in the current study. The analysis of classroom interactions can be done in various ways, depending on its purpose. For instance, a discourse analysis approach (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) can be used to describe the pattern of interactions using the initiation-response-feedback (IRF) scheme. A conversation analysis approach can be utilised to account for the structural organization of the interaction such as turn-taking, turn-passing, turn-ceding, and turn-seizing (Seedhouse, 2004; Walsh, 2011). Other studies used analytical frameworks when analysing their classroom data (Cullen, 1998, 2002; Li & Walsh, 2011;Siauw, 2017).

Two of the purposes of the current study were to identify (a) the types of teachers' oral feedback and (b) students' responses to this feedback. Observation data were analysed deductively using two analytical frameworks related to classroom interactions and teacher feedback. In the context of classroom, an analytical framework serves as "a tool for analysing the various forms and functions of a discursive interaction"(Scott & Mortimer, 2005, p. 395). Its use was important in the current analysis as it provided categories of different types of oral feedback. The current analysis was informed by three frameworks containing the key features of classroom interaction - the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) discourse pattern (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), Corrective Feedback Strategies (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), and Positive Feedback Strategies (Reigel, 2005).

The IRF pattern, also called IRF moves, is a typical of the communication found in the context of second language classroom (Edwards & Westgate, 1994). It has been extensively used in some research concerning classroom interaction (e.g. Cullen, 2002; Li, 2018; Pei, 2012; Sunderland, 2001; Waring, 2008). It was employed in the current analysis to label the teachers' and students' turn and to see the pattern of organization. The three moves are illustrated on the next page. (See also Appendix N for the IRF label in this study's observation data)

T: What's the boy doing? (I)

S1: He's climbing a tree. (R)

T: That's right. He's climbing a tree. (F)

(taken from Cullen, 2002, p. 117)

The framework of corrective feedback strategies (Roy Lyster & Ranta, 1997) notably contain oral feedback strategies used by second language teachers when correcting students' error. This framework was discussed earlier in Chapter Three of the thesis. Numerous studies have used this framework to describe teachers' corrective feedback strategies and their correlation to student uptake (e.g. Ellis, 2009; Lyster et.al., 2013; Rassaei, 2013) and also to compare those strategies in terms of their effectiveness in helping students' language learning (e.g. Li, 2010; Lochtman, 2002; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Zohrabi & Ehsani, 2014).

The framework of positive feedback strategies consists of three main components (Reigel, 2005): paralinguistic component (nod, backchannel, smile, laughter); linguistic component (affirmation); and metalinguistic component (praise markers). In contrast to the previous two frameworks, this one has not been widely used in studies of feedback in EFL context as more attention is given to the corrective feedback. However, it was important to consider positive feedback strategies used by teachers in the current study since feedback does not only comprise corrective information. Integrating the positive and corrective feedback strategies into a single framework was considered a useful way forward. The analysis was carried out in two phases as follows:

Phase One: Identifying The Types of Teachers' Oral Feedback. The first step prior to analysing the types of oral feedback the teachers used was to integrate two frameworks: the positive feedback and corrective feedback strategies as they complemented each other (See Table 4). Following that, all transcripts were labelled using the IRF so the interactional patterns could be seen. The coding process using categories or features from the combined framework began once the IRF labels had been assigned (see Appendix N).

Table 4

Teachers' Oral Feedback Features: Integrating the Two Frameworks

Oral Feedback features	Adapted from	Description	Example
Explicit correction	Lyster & Ranta (1997)	Teacher's explicit correction of mistakes with or without explanation	S: She loves wall climbing (mispronunciation) T: it's climbing
Recasts	Lyster & Ranta (1997)	Reformulation of all or part of the student's utterance, minus the error	S: They will go to the cinema T: They would go to the cinema
Clarification request	Lyster & Ranta (1997)	Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said to make sure that the teacher has correctly understood the learner's contribution or to indicate that the student's utterance is ill-formed in some way	S: He give me a bucket of roses last night. T: Sorry, he what?
Repetition	Lyster & Ranta (1997)	The teacher repeats of the student's error with rising intonation	S: She bring some fruits. T: bring?
Metalinguistic feedback	Lyster & Ranta (1997)	Contains comments, information, or questions related to well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form	S: He give me a bucket of roses last night. T: Think about using a past tense S: Oh, he gave
Elicitation	Lyster & Ranta (1997)	The teacher: 1) elicits completion of his/her utterance; 2) uses a question to elicit the correct form; 3) asks a student to reformulate his/her utterance	S: I see..see a car crash yesterday, yeah T: yesterday, I…?
Paralinguistic	Reigel (2005)	Non-verbal such as nod, smile, laughter, backchannel	S: I saw a car crash yesterday. T: uh'huh
Linguistic	Reigel (2005)	Affirmation of student's answer	S: if I were a bird, I would be able to fly. T: Yes
Metalinguistic	Reigel (2005)	Praise markers such as good, excellent	S: The car is being washed T: Excellent!

Codes using the Table 4 features were then applied to teachers' oral feedback as shown in the following example:

Teacher:	OK, and then how did you pronounce this one? (pointing at a word on her note)	I	
Student:	'jenny'	R	
Teacher:	'genie' /ˈdʒiːni/	F	Recast

During analysis, however, three other types of teachers' feedback emerged from the data. These types were not evident in the initial framework. Therefore, additions were made to the framework (see Table 5) with new features were indicated by an asterisk (*). These oral feedback features were further categorised into three categories: correction, understanding and personal. The newly developed framework, called the taxonomy of teachers' oral feedback, was then used throughout the analysis.

Table 5

Taxonomy of Teachers' Oral Feedback

	Oral Feedback features	Description	Examples
CORRECTION	Direct correction	Teacher's explicit correction to the student's mistakes	S: yes, ask she T: it's ask her because it's used as an object
	Recasts	Reformulation of all or part of the student's utterance, minus the error	S: she need to call the police T: she needs to call the police
	Seeking clarification	Teacher asks a student to clarify something the student has said to make sure that the teacher has correctly understood the learner's contribution or to indicate that the student's utterance is ill-formed in some way	T: If I broke a camera, I would…is it broke or brought? S: brought, verb two of bring
	Repetition	the teacher repeats of the student's error with rising intonation	S: I would riding around the town T: Riding?
	Elicitation	The teacher: 1) elicits completion of his/her utterance; 2) uses a question to elicit the correct form; 3) asks a student to reformulate his/her utterance	T: do you think it's don't or didn't? S: didn't
	*Disconfirmation	Teacher disconfirms student's answer without providing the correct one.	No, it is not right
	Metalinguistic feedback	Contains comments, information, or questions related to well-formedness of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form	S: I would ride around the town T: Are you sure ride? Car? S: Oh drive. I would drive
UNDERSTANDING	*Understanding	Teacher checks students' understanding	OK, do you understand? Ok, right so you understand about syllables
	*Seeking justification	Teacher asks student to justify the answer	T: How do you know that?
PERSONAL	Linguistic [Confirmation]	Teacher confirms/acknowledge student's answer Teacher repeats the student's correct answer	S: village T: village, yeah
	Metalinguistic [Appreciation]	(1) Teacher praises a student's performance or answer (2) Teacher thanks a student	OK, it's good. Your speech wasn't too fast and your intonation was also good. Thank you

Phase Two: Identifying Students' Responses to Oral Feedback. After completing the analysis of the types of oral feedback used by the teachers, the researcher then looked at students' responses to this feedback. The identification of students' responses was carried out by examining students' responses after receiving their teachers' feedback. Since there were no preconceived codes and categories, the researcher created these by drawing on concepts and terminology from the literature. This process resulted in the development of a framework for analysing students' responses to oral feedback (see Table 6).

Table 6

Taxonomy of Students' Responses to Oral Feedback

Response features	Description	Examples (from data)
Correcting / Modify answer	Student corrects or modifies incorrect answer/utterance	T: Are you sure?ride? S: Oh drive. I would drive
Clarifying	Student gives clarification to teacher	T: If I broke a camera, I would…is it broke or brought? S: brought, verb two of bring
Non-verbal	Student uses gesture to respond to teacher's feedback	Smile, nod
Echo	Student repeats the teacher's utterance	T: Once upon a time S: Once upon a time
Accepting correction	Student's statement showing acceptance to the teacher's correction	T: What did you say? This? Ons? It's Once not Ons S: Oh yes, I forgot, I forgot
Rejecting correction	Student's statement shows rejection of the teacher's correction	S: /ˈkjuːkʌmbə/ (Cucumber) T: /kʌkmbə/ S: But my other teacher said /ˈkjuːkʌmbə/
Showing understanding	Student shows understanding of the correct answer/utterance	T: This one, is it meet or met? S: Met T: Yes, but you pronounced as meet. S: oh, so 'met' is the correct one.
Self-correction	Student is aware of her/his mistake and correct it	T: and this one? S: Chil but it's supposed to be child

A summary of teachers' oral feedback and students' responses can be found in Appendix O.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative research is what quantitative researchers refer to as validity and reliability. Ensuring trustworthiness is crucial in research. This can be achieved through "careful attention to a study's conceptualization and the way in which the data are collected, analysed, and interpreted, and the way in which the findings are presented"

(Merriam, 2009, p. 210). Trustworthiness of the current study was established by assessing it in relation to four properties: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility

Credibility is also called internal validity or the 'truth' value of the findings (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Credibility of the current study was established using strategies such as persistent observation, triangulation, respondent validation, and peer review. Persistent observation is related to prolonged engagement with participants. In the current study prolonged engagement was carried out through a series of observations in the three teachers' classes (five times in Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's classes and three times in Ms. Tuti's class) which enabled the researcher to gather data that was typical of practice.

Triangulation, as posited by Denzin (1978 cited in Merriam, 2009), refers to the use of multiple methods, multiple source of data, multiple investigators, and/or multiple theories to confirm the findings. The current study used triangulation through multiple methods of data collection (interview, observation and the collection of documents) and multiple sources of data (teachers, students, field notes and video recording transcripts). Method triangulation and data triangulation allowed the researcher to cross check relevant phenomena or findings. For example, in method triangulation the researcher checked what the participants had said in their interviews against what were observed in their practices and what the documents stated. In data triangulation, the researcher compared data collected from different time of observations and interviews.

Respondent validation was also used to ensure the credibility. It refers to the process of "verifying data, findings, and interpretations with the participants in the study, especially key informants" (Patton, 1990, p. 524). This process involved asking the teacher participants to verify interview transcripts and discussions during their final interview about the researcher's preliminary analyses and thoughts to check if the researcher's interpretations corresponded to participants' thoughts.

Another strategy was peer review. It is important that data are reviewed and evaluated with peers who are knowledgeable about the topic and the methodology (Merriam, 2009). The knowledgeable peers in this study were the researcher's two supervisors who provided feedback, clarified issues, and guided the researcher throughout the research process. Supervision meetings with the researcher's supervisors were carried out according to a regular schedule.

Transferability

Transferability or external validity refers to "the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situation" (Merriam, 2009, p.223). It is worth noting, though, that case study does not intend to generalise findings. In qualitative case studies, transferability depends on the readers which means that they decide whether the findings are applicable to their particular settings or situations. To help them do this, findings need to provide a thick description of the phenomenon under study. In the current study, this was established drawing on the voices of participants and the provision of a detailed description of the context so to provide the readers with sufficient information to make judgements about the transferability of the reported case to their situation.

Dependability

Dependability is concerned with the consistency of the research process and findings. Within positivist inquiry, where the world is considered static, dependability or reliability can be established by repeating the same research procedures, with the same participants in the same context to see if similar results can be obtained. However, the situation is different in qualitative research since the nature of the phenomenon/a being investigated is not considered constant (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Dependability was therefore addressed through the use of an audit trail, that is a method to describe thoroughly "how data were collected, how categories were derived, and how decisions were made throughout the inquiry" (Merriam, 2009, p. 223). A research log containing detailed description of the research process, its application, and reflection was made by the researcher with evidence provided in the current chapter and supporting evidence included in appendices.

Confirmability

Conformability is related to objectivity which means that findings should represent participants' voices not the researcher's bias. Maintaining objectivity is probably the most challenging issue for qualitative researchers (Patton, 1990). Researchers should be aware of how their perspective might affect the research process including the research design, the analysis, and interpretation of data. In the current study, the researcher was aware that the interpretation might be influenced by her own assumptions and beliefs. Therefore, a reflexive approach was adopted to mediate subjectivity. The current research addressed confirmability by thoroughly documenting all procedures and presenting the analysis and interpretations explicitly as shown in the current chapter and in appendices.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a detailed description of the research process. An interpretive case study was used in the current study to enable the researcher to capture the participants' views, understandings and experiences in relation to oral feedback. Multiple data collection method (interviews, observations and collection of documents) and sources (three teachers, eighteen students, field notes and video recording transcripts) provided rich data for the current study. Inductive and deductive approaches to data analysis allowed for an in-depth descriptions of the case studied. This chapter also addressed issues concerning ethics and trustworthiness of the present study.

Next Chapter

The following chapter, Chapter Five, presents the findings from teachers' and students' interviews which represents their beliefs about oral feedback.

Chapter Five: Teachers' and Students' Beliefs about Oral Feedback

As mentioned in Chapter Four, the current study was conducted in three different schools where only one teacher from each school and her chosen class of Grade 11 students participated. Data for the current study were obtained through interviews, observations, and collection of documents. This chapter presents the findings from two semi-structured interviews with the three teachers and sixteen students, which makes up 38 interviews in total. The research questions being answered in this chapter were:

1. What beliefs do teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback?

2. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the teachers in the feedback process?

3. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the students in the feedback process?

The typical format of lessons in each observed lessons in all three classes followed a pattern of students preparing and performing oral presentations and/or answering teachers' questions. For instance, students in Ms. Hasibuan's class were asked to create a poem and/or a dialogue and present it in front of the class individually, in pairs, and/or in a group. Students then received oral feedback from Ms. Hasibuan in front of the class either during or after the presentation. It is with reference to this context that the three teachers and eighteen students involved in the current study discussed their understandings and experiences of oral feedback in the interviews. Four major themes emerged from teacher and student interviews: Feedback fulfils two purposes; Feedback focuses on two language features; and The roles of the teacher and students in the feedback process. A further theme came only from student interviews: Responses to feedback.

Feedback Fulfils Two Purposes

The first theme extracted from the data was related to the purposes of feedback. Teachers and students talked about oral feedback having a central role to play in helping students advance their understanding of and skills in speaking English. In addition, they mentioned how oral feedback helped motivate and encourage students to speak with

confidence. As such, it appeared teacher's oral feedback was perceived as having a positive effect students' learning.

Improving Students' Ability to Speak English Correctly

Oral feedback was perceived as a tool that contributed to improvement in students' ability to speak English correctly. Ms. Hasibuan believed that when she gave feedback it would have an immediate impact in helping her students speak English with the correct pronunciation:

> Oral feedback is given so that students can pronounce better next time. The result is they can pronounce it like it should be. (Ms. Hasibuan, Int[2]).

Ms. Catherine and Ms. Tuti also mentioned that oral feedback served the purpose of improving students' spoken English. More specifically, it was given so students would not repeat their mistakes:

> OK, just like the other day when they made a mistake, I gave them feedback so that they won't repeat the same mistake in the future. (Ms. Catherine, Int).

Students also thought oral feedback enhanced their ability to speak English. They believed it could help them to better understand the subject, help them learn from their errors and hence it would improve their future performance:

> Teacher gives feedback so we can learn from our mistakes and we can have a better understanding and comprehension, and of course improve our English fluency. (Dita, Int);

> I would use the feedback to improve myself and to make my presentation better. (Rei, Int);

> They [teachers] want us to be better. They give feedback so we'll do better next time. (Sanchaboga, Int).

Both teachers and students believed improvement in students' English-speaking ability could be achieved through correcting students' mistakes or errors. Once mistakes or errors were identified, it was assumed that students would not make the same mistakes in the future. For

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[2] Int is a short for Interview

instance, Ms. Catherine and Ms. Hasibuan often talked about how feedback took the form of correcting mistakes:

> So once they [students] mispronounced something, I said it directly, I corrected it. (Ms. Hasibuan, Int);

> In speaking lessons, they [students] usually memorize a dialogue and perform the dialogue. If they have wrong sentences, I usually correct them. (Ms. Catherine, Int).

Each of the three teachers made numerous references to how feedback enabled them to correct their students' mistakes when speaking English. It seemed they believed in the power of corrective feedback to build students' competence to speak English in a correct manner.

In a similar vein, students talked of how their teachers' corrective feedback identified their mistakes or errors. Students talked about the purpose of feedback as highlighting their mispronunciation and grammatical mistakes. They believed this information was useful as they would "have more understanding" (Raina, Int) about the correct form which in turn would lead to accurate pronunciation and grammar:

> The reason [for feedback] is to correct the mistakes. So if I make a mistake, the teacher will correct it. (Zack, Int);

> Maybe [teacher] correct[s] my grammar or something like that because my grammar is not good and maybe my pronunciation is not good too, so maybe like teacher will correct my pronunciation and grammar. (Nichol, Int).

Students believed when they were corrected, they would be more informed about the mistake and understand how to speak more precisely or accurately in the future:

> Teacher should give me comments after I performed so I can learn more so I won't repeat my mistakes in the future. (Kendall, Int);

> Because we know that we made mistakes, so when we're about to do it again we will remember the feedback and we can fix it. (Durrant, Int).

As noted by Ms Catherine (Int), feedback in the form of correction was powerful as "they [students] know where their mistake is." Taking this idea further, corrective feedback not only helped students to avoid the same mistakes in the future, but it also helped them to recognise and rectify such mistakes. As Ms. Hasibuan explained "I have to correct them

because if I don't give correction, they will continue making mistakes." (Int). Correcting students' spoken English was therefore considered an essential part of students' learning, as it would potentially stop them from repeatedly making the same mistakes again.

Students also believed teachers' corrections were an important part of their learning. Sky mentioned that if students did not receive feedback "we don't know if we're wrong" (Int) while Kylie (Int) stated "I won't know my mistakes if I get no feedback." However, some students went further considering it critical teachers did not simply "point out mistakes" (Sanchaboga, Int), tell them "which part [is] wrong" (Ciara, Int) or "show mistakes and give[s] solution[s]" (Dita, Int). Having this sort of feedback did not provide them with sufficient information to make changes to their future oral language attempts. For some, it was most important that teachers told them "*why* it's wrong" (Irfan, Int). Students indicated they learned from their mistakes so it was important for them not only to understand that they had made a mistake but they also needed to understand why the error was unacceptable. Such information was necessary if they were to avoid making the same mistakes in the future and improve their ability to identify mistakes so they could fix those mistakes by themselves.

Motivating and Encouraging Students to Speak Correct English

When talking about oral feedback, the teachers often linked it to motivation. They believed their feedback could increase students' enthusiasm for and willingness to learn to speak English in an accurate manner. Ms. Catherine said she used oral feedback to "give them motivation" (Int) while Ms. Tuti saw it as "a kind of encouragement" (Int) through which students could be supported to persevere. More specifically, feedback could be used to prompt students into believing that they were good at learning to speak English, giving them a belief in their ability to speak English:

> …it's [feedback] to give encouragement to students. So if we tell them
> they're good, they will think like 'Oh, I am already good, next time I
> should be better'. But if they make a mistake we can't directly say stupid,
> they just lack of practice. (Ms. Hasibuan, Int).

Students also talked about oral feedback as a form of motivation. Ciara (Int) noted that when the teacher gave her feedback she would "become motivated when learning", a sentiment echoed by others:

> It [oral feedback] is important to build the motivation to learn English
> more. (Zack, Int);
>
> [oral feedback] can support learning and [give] motivation. (Dita, Int);

[oral feedback] supports us, well, maybe feedback can help us motivate ourselves so that we can do better. (Sanchaboga, Int);

[oral feedback] can motivate us to be better in grammar or pronunciation. (Raina, Int).

Teachers also recognised achievement and rewarded students in the form of praise which they believed would instil in students a sense of pride in their achievements:

I give them rewards like the expression 'Oh, that's great!', 'good job' like that. (Ms. Tuti, Int);

I always give them a praise. If their pronunciation is good, I will say 'good' so that they're proud. (Ms. Hasibuan, Int);

Well, I just appreciate their efforts. I gave them a reward by saying 'thank you'. Maybe they felt happy, like 'Oh my teacher appreciates my hard work memorizing it for a week. The result is good.' (Ms. Catherine, Int).

This belief in the effect of praise on student motivation and performance seemed to result in teachers giving praise even when students made errors. As Ms. Hasibuan (Int) stated "I never want to say like 'Why can't you do this simple thing!' So even if there's a mistake, I will give a praise." The reason for this was so students did not lose confidence. Teachers thought it was important to bolster students' confidence, to recognise their efforts, and build their belief in their ability to speak English. Feedback in the form of positive comments was thus considered an important tool for recognising effort and motivating students to continue to try.

In a similar manner, students stated that teachers' oral feedback was given in appreciation of what they had said or performed. Teachers' praise could be as simple as saying "thank you" (Iting, Int) or "good job!" (Emily, Int) and it was noted that this made them "more confident" (Dita, Int). Praise and approval were means of acknowledging achievement and boosting confidence to speak English:

Positive feedback for me it's a kind of morale boost which makes me proud of myself so that way I have more confidence… I think again it could help me be more confident in studying because if it's positive feedback I would know that I've made the right decision and I would

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somehow feel accomplishment that I could gain from feedback. (Irfan, Int).

However, students drew attention to the fact that it was important for the teacher to be honest when giving feedback in the form of praise. Irfan (Int) stated giving a praise should be "based on facts" while Durrant further explained how honesty in feedback was important because receiving praise from his teacher was not the goal when he practiced his oral English. Rather, it was the teacher's honest judgement about his speaking performance that mattered most as this information would enable him to work on his areas of weakness:

[I'd like] feedback which corresponds to the reality. It should be honest, like if our performance is not good, don't praise because we won't know the reality. (Durrant, Int).

According to Dede (Int) oral feedback should be "more than just giving praise" but it also had to include the information about the strengths and weaknesses of one's performance. That way, the students would know "what to do next". Besides praise, students also talked about how their confidence could be increased when they received oral feedback in the form of constructive criticism. This form of feedback did not have a negative impact on students as they felt it helped them to improve their spoken English and encouraged them to do better:

I like the feedback which criticizes, the critique should be constructive…because if the critique is constructive it can make me better [improve] and not [feel] down. (Raina, Int);

… feedback like constructive criticism…like criticism that will always boost yourself not make yourself [feel] down…constructive criticism because it doesn't bring yourself down but boost yourself to be more better. (Rei, Int).

While students acknowledged that positive feedback might "motivate [them]" (Sky, Int), it was constructive feedback that made them "grow and [resulted in] something better" (Wilson, Int). It convinced students that their efforts were worthwhile, hence it encouraged them to put in further effort with a view to improving their ability to speak English.

The Focus of Feedback

The second theme in teachers' and students' discourse addressed the focus of feedback. In the views of teachers and students, feedback focuses mainly on correcting two language features: pronunciation and grammar.

Correcting Pronunciation

The three teachers explained that students' pronunciation was their priority when giving feedback as the lessons involved speaking activities such as presentation and dialogue:

> In speaking, when they mispronounced a word or sentence I corrected them. It's the pronunciation. When they were doing the presentation and mispronounced something, I immediately correct. (Ms. Catherine, Int);

> Especially [feedback on] pronunciation, when some of them speaking in front of the class and they mispronounced something. (Ms. Tuti, Int);

> I corrected the pronunciation. So once they mispronounced something I said it directly, I corrected it. (Ms. Hasibuan, Int).

As she reflected on her own experience as a speaker of English as a foreign language, Ms. Catherine indicated how she too found it challenging to pronounce English words correctly:

> Pronunciation is important. I myself still make mistakes in pronunciation. So when I knew that the students mispronounced something, I told them. (Ms. Catherine, Int)

Ms. Hasibuan explained how English words should be spoken correctly otherwise it could be difficult for those listening to grasp the message. More specifically, she gave feedback on students' pronunciation to avoid misunderstandings in terms of meaning as many English words have the same spelling but are different parts of speech (e.g., noun, verb) and as such are different in terms of pronunciation:

> Because I think pronunciation is important. If you pronounce [some words] differently, the meaning will be different, like the word present [gift] and present [announce]. (Ms. Hasibuan, Int)

Students talked about how the majority of their teachers' feedback was concerned with the way they pronounced English words "so we [students] won't have bad pronunciation and could pronounce better" (Ita, Int). According to Kendall (Int) "there are some words [students]

don't know how to pronounce". Pronunciation was considered crucial because "it can be fatal if we mispronounced an English word" (Wilson, Int) as the intended message may be misunderstood. Zack said he "care[d] the most about pronunciation" because it was important for others to understand what he was talking about.

Feedback on pronunciation also helped students to speak more fluently:

Like I'm gonna be more right because sometimes my pronunciation is not so good, so when my teacher corrects me I'm trying my best to talk like what she told me to. (Nichol, Int)

If my pronunciation is incorrect, the teacher will explain so that I can pronounce fluently. (Dita, Int)

Correcting Grammar

Teachers and students also talked about the importance of getting feedback in relation to grammatical errors. Ms. Catherine, for instance, mentioned how she corrected students' grammatical mistakes related to tense uses:

Let's say we learn about grammar, I just correct their [grammar] mistakes. I always explained which sentence was correct, especially when we talked about tenses.

As part of the feedback process, Ms. Catherine thought it was important to give an explanation about the correct nature of specific sentences. Ms. Hasibuan (Int) further explained:

Of course [feedback about] grammar will follow. I don't teach them grammar separately but as a whole, when the story took place. Let's say legend, it's in the form of past tense so I explain a bit about grammar, that this happened in the past not at present, or I gave them an example like 'I got married and I get married' they're different in meaning.

Ms. Hasibuan talked about how she gave feedback on students' grammar by explaining different tenses and which one should be used in a particular context. When giving feedback, she also provided examples as it was important to use the opportunity to instruct students about different tenses and how the use of these impacted on the meaning of a sentence.

According to the students, teachers gave them feedback about grammar because errors of grammatical nature were relatively commonplace:

I often make mistakes on grammar. (Dede, Int)

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Many students make mistakes on grammar. (Emily, Int)

[I get feedback about grammar] because sometimes my grammar is not
good" (Nichol, Int)

Kendall (Int) stated "my tenses need improvement" which was why she valued feedback about this aspect of language. Kylie (Int) also explained how "the teacher corrected grammatical mistakes, like I should use did instead of do". She indicated her teacher did not just tell her she had made a mistake but the teacher told her the correct form, explaining where she had made the error, why it was incorrect, and the nature of the correct grammatical form. In this way, feedback served an instructional purpose. Students believed that correction of misunderstandings could further their ability to comprehend and use specific grammatical features.

While teachers and students talked about feedback as focusing on pronunciation and grammar, students indicated they wanted more specific information from their teachers as information on those aspects was not sufficient. Seemingly, students wanted detailed feedback which addressed various aspects of the language and their performance:

Like I mentioned to you earlier, [I wanted] the feedback which contains
much detail. By detail I mean it includes everything, grammar,
pronunciation, and performance. (Zack, Int);

Teacher only pointed out my pronunciation mistakes while I believe that
I have more mistakes to fix than just pronunciation. (Dita, Int);

The feedback was only about how to pronounce something, not the
meaning. I would say it is not enough because we students also want to
understand the meaning of a certain word, not just the way to pronounce
it. (Ita, Int).

I think it needs to be more detail. She could've given feedback on my overall
performance, like I wasn't standing still like the real presentation. Not just my
pronunciation, the clarity of the story, the plot, whether the audience understood what
I told them and how to attract audience during my performance. (Kendall, Int)

A more comprehensive feedback was considered by students as more helpful than the information about pronunciation and grammar mistakes in terms of improving students' overall performance.

Teacher and Student Roles in The Feedback Process

The third theme evident in the talk of the teachers and students addressed the roles of the teacher and the students in the feedback process. Here, both parties considered teachers as tellers and correctors while students were considered as receivers of feedback information.

Teacher as Teller and Corrector

Apparent in all of the teachers' talk was the notion that they were the foremost source of information about students' ability to speak English in a correct and accurate manner. Use of the pronoun 'I' was a common feature of their talk [own emphasis]:

> In speaking, if they make wrong sentences **I** always correct. (Ms. Cathtine, Int)

> **I** corrected their mistakes and **I** asked her/him to repeat not just once. (Ms. Hasibuan, Int)

> If it is related to grammar, **I** must give answer and explain it and give feedback. (Ms. Tuti, Int)

These teachers saw themselves as the primary source of information – they considered themselves the experts who had the knowledge and skill to correct students' mistakes. As such they had an important responsibility in regard to the improvement of students' oral language ability.

Similarly, students perceived teachers as authorities and as such it was the role of the teacher to provide them with feedback [own emphasis]:

> **She [teacher] gives** [us] feedback. (Dede, Int);

> **She** always corrects about what every student says, like we say something wrong, **she's** going to correct it. (Nichol, Int);

> **My teacher** corrects me and say like Iting it's wrong, you need to do something about it. (Iting, Int);

> **She** gives me feedback or corrects my answer or my grammar. (Durrant, Int)

There is an emphasis here on the teacher's role as the corrector of students' spoken English – their role is to identify mistakes and provide students with the correct form.

Students considered their teachers as trustworthy sources of information as they were experts in the teaching of English as a foreign language. Kendall (Int) mentioned that her teacher's feedback was what she "look[ed] up to the most" because the teacher was experienced and knowledgeable. In a similar vein, Wilson (Int) mentioned that the teacher "knows what's best for the students". As the experts, teachers had "a lot more experience" (Rei, Int) than their students so were able to provide students with the sort of feedback that would help them to improve their competence in speaking English. Durrant (Int) said he "trusted" his teacher's feedback because "she's the teacher, [so] she must be right". Statements such as these indicated that students believed their teachers knew what was best for students, highlighting the central position and importance of the teacher's role in the feedback process.

Students as Receivers

As teachers were perceived as tellers, this suggests students were considered the recipients of feedback. Teachers talked about how students were expected to take up the feedback and carry out the teacher's directives:

> Students will just accept if I correct. They accept what I told them as their teacher (Ms. Hasibuan, Int);

> If they mispronounce, I ask them to repeat, I correct it, and I ask them to repeat again. (Ms. Catherine, Int).

Similarly, students mentioned how they accepted the feedback they received and repeated what the teacher had said:

> I just accept it if I was wrong (Sky, Int);

> I accept that I was wrong. (Emily, Int);

> The teacher will correct me and I am asked to repeat it again. (Emily, Int);

> I'm going to correct what I say and then I'm going to talk like when my teacher corrects me. I'm going to repeat it again (Nichol, Int).

As novices, students realised they lacked proficiency in speaking English and had a lot to learn. Under such circumstances, they deemed it appropriate for the teacher to correct them and for them to accept and make necessary corrections:

> I only have little knowledge so I just follow what the teacher said. (Raina, Int);

Because I know that my English is bad so it's OK to be corrected by my teacher. (Nichol, Int);

I accept it because I am not good at English. (Zack, Int);

I will accept both critiques and praise. She's the teacher, so she knows more than me. So I just accept it (Dede, Int).

Although feedback was a one-way transmission of information from teacher to student, students mentioned they would like the feedback process to be different - they wanted more than just the teacher correcting their mistakes. Rather than being told, students wanted to take a more active role and to be more involved in the process. They talked about wanting opportunities to ask questions related to the feedback so they could understand the nature of their mistakes:

…[I would like a] sharing role [in feedback] so if teacher gives feedback I can ask her too. It's better than teacher just tells me and that's it. (Dede, Int);

So far the feedback is just about correct and incorrect, so I think it's not enough in helping me speaking English. Maybe we should have more discussion about the feedback, like the mistakes. [It is] to better understand. (Sky, Int).

Some students went further, explaining how an opportunity to speak and discuss feedback with their teachers could reveal areas of misunderstanding and areas where they needed help. They wanted a chance to tell the teacher about things they did not understand so they could receive advice. Students recognised that through discussion, teachers could also have an opportunity to identify students' specific needs:

It'll be very good if I can talk with the teacher individually, face to face, so that I can think more. I will be able to tell the teacher directly what I can't do. If it's face to face with the teacher, dialogue, it's more convenient. I can throw everything out so teacher understands and can give me advice for the next time. (Wilson, Int);

I hope it will be more like a discussion because through discussion the interaction between the teacher and student can be strengthened. Teacher can have an understanding that a student has a problem with grammar or need to work on her vocabulary. (Ciara, Int)

Students' Responses to Teacher's Feedback

The final theme apparent in the discourse from the students was related to the way in which they responded to their teacher's feedback. Students talked about responding to feedback in three ways, by engaging in personal reflection, asking questions, and expressing emotions.

Engaging in Personal Reflection

Students talked about how they processed feedback internally, a response which was not visible to others. They mentioned how even if they were silent, they "think" about the feedback (Iting, Int). Some talked about how they kept silent when receiving feedback in front of the class as they were processing or thinking more deeply about what the teacher had said:

> I will keep silent for a moment and think about what I did whether it was
> wrong or right. (Dita, Int).

For others, this thinking process happened when they were no longer in front of the class:

> I'll keep thinking about it. I'll compare my teacher's correction and my
> mistake until at one point I understand that it is wrong. (Jack, Int);

> Often times I just take the feedback and process it myself. (Irfan, Int).

Students explained how they "reflect on it [the feedback]" (Wilson, Int) trying to make meaning of the information themselves. Essentially, for some students feedback acted as a catalyst for them to reflect on their performance. Through such reflection students could identify their weaknesses and make decisions about what they needed to do to improve their future performances:

> [I] reflect on the weaknesses like "oh I make a lot of mistakes in
> grammar. I should learn more." (Ciara, Int);

> I'll reflect on what I did, like oh, I made a mistake here. That means in
> the future I will do what my teacher suggested. (Kendall, Int);

> After I get the feedback, I take it and I'll introspect myself and see how
> from the feedback I could further improve and how I could take the
> feedback further to improve me and make myself better. (Irfan, Int).

Students believed such reflection was helpful for their future improvement as engaging in this process prevented them from repeating their mistakes.

Asking Questions

On some occasions, students also took a more active stance in response to their teachers' feedback. In an attempt to seek more understanding about how and why they had made a mistake, students talked about how they sometimes asked the teacher for further clarification. Some students for example mentioned how they asked questions when they did not understand the feedback they received and when they were puzzled:

> If her feedback just doesn't make sense, I will ask like what do you mean? (Sanchaboga, Int);

> Sometimes I question it [the feedback] because I am still confused why it should be like that. Like grammar, sometimes I'm confused if it is correct or not. (Zack, Int).

In particular, they asked questions when the teacher indicated their utterances were wrong and they had not realised a mistake had been made:

> Sometimes I ask what's the mistake, why it is wrong, because I thought I was right. (Emily, Int);

> I thought my grammar was correct but you said this was wrong and you corrected it (Raina, Int);

> I will question why it's wrong. (Ita, Int).

These questions often led them to seek clarification with the intent of developing their understanding. Students "couldn't accept a simple answer so the teacher should explain in detail." (Ita, Int) so they could understand what to correct and how to do so.

Expressing Emotions

Although the teachers did not talk a lot about how students emotionally responded to their feedback as they could not know how students were feeling, students talked quite extensively about how they reacted emotionally to their teachers' feedback.

Pleasure. In the first instance, they talked about how they were pleased with the feedback, particularly when the information indicated they had done well:

> I will feel pleased if the feedback is good (Wilson, Int)

> I am pleased because the feedback is usually motivating (Raina, Int);

> I am pleased because I now know new things. (Iting, Int);

For Rei, receiving information about his performance made him pleased because it showed that his teacher was paying attention and cared about his performance:

> I would feel pleased that my teacher actually cares about what I say, what
> I think, and what I do in front of the class. (Int)

Embarrassment. Besides positive feelings, students also mentioned how they experienced adverse emotions when they received feedback. In the main, these emotions were linked to mortification or embarrassment at having made a mistake in a public setting where other students could hear what was said:

> When it's correction, I was a bit embarrassed when I made a mistake.
> (Sky, Int);

Moreover, when teachers pointed out mistakes, students felt ashamed because other students knew a mistake had been made:

> Teachers often give feedback with a loud voice so I feel embarrassed. I
> am embarrassed because other friends are looking at me. (Emily, Int);
>
> I am embarrassed when teacher told me in front of the whole class.
> Everyone's attention will be on me. (Wilson, Int);
>
> I am embarrassed because she tells in front of the class. (Iting, Int)

As giving corrections in front of the whole class caused embarrassment, Kylie (Int) suggested that "it's better not to tell in front of the class if we make mistakes". As a result, some students indicated they would prefer individual, face to face oral feedback.

In contrast, different from typical students, Nichol (Int) stated he never felt embarrassed even though his teacher corrected him in front of the class:

> When it comes to English learning, I [am] never ashamed because [later]
> everybody [in the class] knows [how to] speak correctly because my
> teacher corrected me in front of the class. (Nichol, Int)

Nichol believed that it was beneficial for other students if the teacher corrected him in front of the class as his peers would not repeat his mistake. He saw feedback in a public setting as an opportunity for others to learn, and presumably when his peers were corrected, he saw this as an opportunity for himself to learn.

Feeling Upset. For some students, feedback from their teachers resulted in discomfort. They were upset not so much because of their teacher's feedback but because despite their teacher's effort to support their learning, they continue to make mistakes:

> I am upset because of the mistake part not because of the teacher. (Ciara, Int);

> I am upset because I keep making mistakes. (Raina, Int).

For others, however, the teacher's feedback caused genuine distress particularly if they did not believe they had made a mistake, felt the feedback was harsh, did not acknowledge the effort they had expended and/or was interpreted as reflecting on them as a person. It seemed feedback that pointed out mistakes was seen as criticism rather than being helpful. Teachers were considered not taking into account the effort that students put in:

> Sometimes when I believe that the answer is correct, I am upset with the teacher because she tells me I am wrong. (Iting, Int);

> If it [the feedback] was like critiques I would be upset (Dita, Int);

> Sometimes I'm feeling a bit upset because I already work hard but I get criticism. (Rei, Int);

> When the feedback is about criticism which tells bad things about me, I will be upset. (Durrant, Int).

Irfan (Int) also stated that sometimes he got upset with "the negative feedback which [had] no backing or had no backbone to support". This suggested that sometimes teachers may not have fully explained or justified their feedback to the student's satisfactions.

Feeling Discouraged. For a few students, their teachers' feedback made them feel discouraged especially when it was given in what they perceived as an unfriendly manner:

> Teacher gives comments but the comments make us feel down, discouraged, so instead of motivating, she makes us not confident For example, some teachers would say "you wrote this wrong, where did you cheat from? You should've written this right, so when you cheat, cheat right. (Jack, Int)

In this instance, Jack found the teacher's feedback offensive as she thought the teacher accused her of cheating. This accusation left her feeling dejected and unmotivated. Emily (Int)

also stated that her teacher's feedback had at times made her feel disheartened, especially when it was given "in an angry tone." As she elaborated:

> So when giving feedback, try to use encouraging words like supporting, not like angry, it makes us feel down… some teachers said you're lacking in this and that, like in an angry tone. That makes us feel down. (Emily, Int)

She believed feedback that was conveyed in a harsh way could impact on motivation and confidence.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings from teachers and students interview data. Teachers and students seemed to share similar beliefs that giving and receiving oral feedback as a response to students' performance was paramount as it could improve their ability to speak English correctly and cultivate their motivation. Similar views were also apparent regarding the respective roles teachers performed in the feedback process. While feedback was seen as fulfilling a learning purpose, a focus on corrections and praise seemingly restricted students' language learning development. As students did not have opportunities to be involved in the feedback process, they expected to take more active roles by engaging with their teachers in a dialogue which they were as having a potential in adding their understanding.

Next Chapter

The following chapter presents findings from observations of the three teachers' feedback practice.

Chapter Six: Observations Of Practice

This chapter presents the findings from observation data, highlighting the practice of feedback in each of the classroom. It provides answers to the research questions four and five:

4. What types of oral feedback are evident in the teaching and learning process?

5. How do students respond to oral feedback?

Thirteen sets of field notes (FN) were analysed to understand the practice in each classroom. A total of 152 minutes of video recordings (VR) were also analysed using an analytical framework to understand how the teachers used oral feedback (see Table 5) and how students responded to and engaged with their teacher's feedback (see Table 6) during English language lessons.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first two sections present a description of the respective teaching-learning contexts in the three classrooms and an overview of student activities and participation. The third section focuses on teachers' oral feedback in which the feedback types and strategies that the teachers used during the lessons are identified. The fourth section describes student engagement with feedback. The chapter ends with a short summary.

Description of the Teaching-Learning Context

This section describes the teaching-learning context in each of the teachers' classrooms. It includes general information about the students in each class, physical layout of the classrooms, and the focus of lessons and activities carried out by students.

General Information

All of the observations were of Year 11 students with teachers choosing the focus of the lessons. Table 7 identifies the teachers, class level, number and gender of students, focus of each lesson and number of observations carried out by the researcher. The number of students in each teacher's class was the same. The duration of each classroom observation was 90 minutes, but the number of observations differed. Five observations in total were carried out in Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's classes with three completed in Ms. Tuti's class. The focus of the lessons was different in each class. Ms. Catherine covered four areas or study or foci while Ms. Hasibuan addressedtwo foci over the five observations and Ms.Tuti three foci during the three observations.

Table 7

General Information about Each Class and Number of Observations

Teacher name	Class level	No. of students and gender	Focus of lesson	No. of observations
Ms. Catherine	Year 11	36 19 Females 17 males	• Retelling: Folklore	2 x 90 minutes
			• Making suggestion and making an offer	1 x 90 minutes
			• Expressing opinions	1 x 90 minutes
			• Expressing agreement and disagreement	1 x 90 minutes
Ms. Hasibuan	Year 11	36 20 Females 16 Males	• Poetry: Cinquain • Constructing conditional sentences	2 x 90 minutes 3 x 90 minutes
Ms. Tuti	Year 11	36 20 Females 16 Males	• Reading comprehension: Understanding invitation letters	1 x 90 minutes
			• Listening practice: The benefits of reading books	1 x 90 minutes
			• Understanding argumentative texts: Analytical exposition	
			• Understanding argumentative texts: Persuasive writing	1 x 90 minutes

The Physical Layout

Each classroom accommodated furniture for 36 students. The facilities in the classrooms were similar: each had a projector, air conditioner and artefacts on the wall. Figure 6 shows how the furniture in each classroom was set out.

Figure 6

The Physical Layout of the Three Classrooms

Ms. Catherine's classroom   Ms. Hasibuan's classroom   Ms. Tuti's classroom
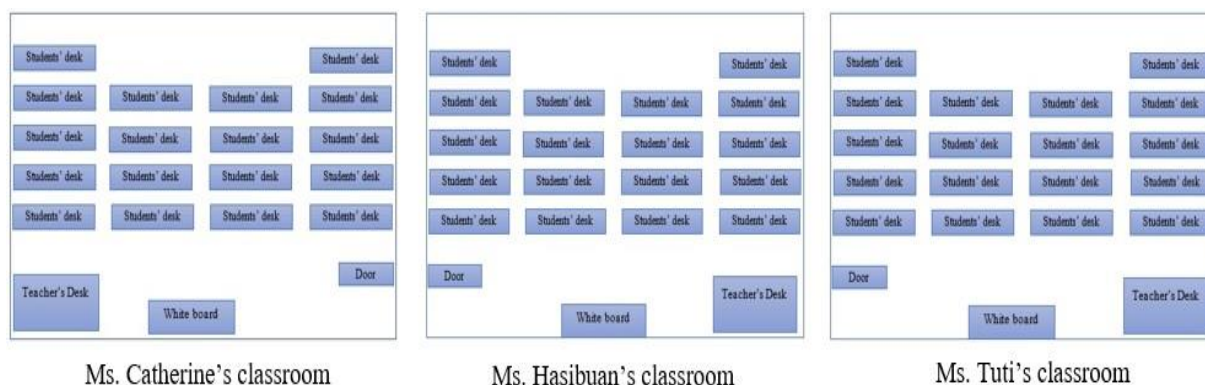
The teachers' desks were positioned at the front corner of each of the three classrooms, facing the students' desks. There were four rows of student desks with four to five desks in each row with students sitting in pairs at one desk. The pairs were usually comprised of students of the same sex. In the main, all three teachers stood at the front of the class when teaching. During activities they moved around the class to check students' work. On some occasions, Ms.

Catherine sat at her desk, listening to her students' presentations (FN Obs #1 & 2)[3] while the other two teachers were not observed sitting at their desks during the lessons.

Typical Lessons and Activities

The lessons in each classroom followed a similar pattern: an introduction by the teacher followed by a presentation/explanation, student activities, and closing. All three teachers began by greeting students, asking how they were doing that day, and checking attendance. After that, the teachers introduced the focus of the lesson for the day, told students what the objective of the lesson was, what they would learn and what they were expected to be able to do by the end of the lesson (FN Obs #1-5; FN Obs #1-3). For example, Ms. Catherine began the fourth observed lesson by saying:

> OK, so today we will learn about how to express our opinion. There are two things you will learn: asking for others' opinion and giving your own opinion to others. (VR Obs #4)[4]

Similarly, Ms. Hasibuan and Ms. Tuti began by introducing the day's lesson:

> Today we will learn how to create a cinquain poem. I will explain to you what it is later, and after that you will try to make it.(Ms. Hasibuan, FN Obs #1);

> Last week we learned a little bit about analytical exposition text, and today we will continue learning about argumentative text. (Ms. Tuti, FN Obs #3).

Following the introduction, Ms. Hasibuan and Ms. Tuti expanded the focus, displaying slides on the projector. During this phase, these teachers spent time explaining the content. For instance, at the start of lesson one, Ms. Hasibuan spoke about the rules of composing a cinquain poem such as how many syllables each line was composed of (FN Obs #1-2):

> A cinquain consists of five unrhymed lines. Each line has a set number of syllables. Line one, 2 syllables; line two, four syllables; line three, six syllables; line four, eight syllables, and line five, two syllables. (VR Obs #1);

and prior to lesson three she explained the grammatical structure of a conditional sentence by displaying examples on the slides (FN Obs #3-4):

---

[3] Refers to Field Notes Observation (number of field notes/observation)
[4] Refers to Video Recording Observation (number of observation)

How do we make this type of conditional sentence? Look at these examples: 1) **If** my friend **asked** for money**, I would lend** it to her. 2) Thomas **would be** happier **if** he **got** a less stressful job. (VR Obs #3).

Ms. Tuti was observed reviewing the structure of an invitation letter (FN Obs #1) and explaining the structure of a persuasive text (FN Obs #3):

So, what is the structure of an invitation letter that we discussed before? Iting [a student's name], can you tell me? (VR Obs#1);

The text organization for persuasive text is: look at the example. First is thesis. Thesis is the statement, state what you are talking about. Then, you have argument one, …(VR Obs #3).

The situation was different in Ms. Catherine's class. After she introduced the lesson, she handed the responsibility for elaborating the lesson foci to students. She did this by assigning a group of students to come to the front of the class to explain the lesson to others (FN Obs #3-5):

OK, now group two. Please come forward and present to your friends about suggestion and offer. (FN Obs #3).

Following the explanatory phase of a lesson, students in all three classes engaged in various activities. As the three teachers addressed different foci, student activities were also varied as exhibited in Table 8. In all three classrooms, the teachers allocated 50 to 60 minutes for student activities. During this phase, the three teachers were seen interacting with students. They moved around the class to check how students were progressing with their activities. After students completed all activities, the teachers drew the lesson to a close. Ms. Catherine and Ms. Tuti reiterated the objective of the lesson and summed up the activities the students had completed:

So we have learned how to make a suggestion and how to make an offer. You know now what to say if you want to ask for or give a suggestion and if you want to make an offer to others. (Ms. Catherine, FN Obs #3);

Today we have learned the parts to include in an invitation letter. You have answered all the questions. Very good. (Ms. Tuti, FN Obs #1).

Sometimes, when they ran out of time, these two teachers missed out the closing phase (Ms. Catheine, FN Obs #4-5; Ms. Tuti, FN Obs #2-3). Ms. Hasibuan varied the way in which she

closed the lesson. On some occasions she summed up the lesson (FN Obs #3,5), while at other times she invited her students to summarize the lesson and to reflect on their understanding and performance during the activities (FN Obs #1, 2, 4):

> Anyone wants to tell what we've learned today? What we did and how it went?"(FN Obs #2).

Table 8

Focus of the Lesson and Activities in the Three Classrooms

Class	Focus of lesson	Student Activities	Observations
Ms. Catherine	Retelling: Folklore	• Individual: Retelling folk story in English to the class	Observed lessons 1 and 2
	Making suggestion and offer Expressing opinions Expressing agreement and disagreement	• Group (6-7 students): Oral presentation in English with Power Point • Pairs: Constructing and practicing dialogues in English	Observed lessons 3, 4, and 5
Ms. Hasibuan	Poetry: Cinquain	• Compose a cinquain poem in English • Read the poem to the class individually	Observed lessons 1 and 2
	Constructing conditional sentences	• Write conditional sentences in English individually • Read conditional sentences to class and/or teacher	Observed lesson 3
		• Individual: students are asked to orally create a conditional sentence • Group of four or five: Creating a situation/role play where they converse using conditional sentence in English • Group presentation: presenting the role play to the class • Pair dialogue: Reading a dialogue in the textbook.	Observed lessons 4 and 5
Ms. Tuti	Reading comprehension: Understanding invitation letters	• Read a sample of invitation letter • Answer questions in writing on a worksheet • Students are asked to orally share answers to each question with the class (one student answers one question)	Observed lesson 1
	Listening practice: The benefits of reading books Understanding argumentative texts: Analytical exposition	• Students are asked to answer questions in writing based on the recorder on a worksheet	Observed lesson 2
	Understanding argumentative texts: Persuasive writing	• Group work: discuss and create a persuasive writing on certain topics • Group: Present the writing to the class	Observed lesson 3

In each of the classes, the students were observed engaging in individual and group work. The activities in Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's classes seemingly provided more

opportunities for interactions between the teacher and the students in English than in Ms. Tuti's class and hence it created more opportunities for students to practice their oral language. Meanwhile, in Ms. Tuti's class, the activities were focused on reading, listening, and writing which gave students comparatively fewer opportunities to speak or converse in English.

Student Participation in Lessons

Two main types of student participation were identified. These related to how students engaged in individual activities and how they participated in group and pair discussions. In the main, students in Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's class showed active engagement in individual and group activities. Students in Ms. Tuti's class engaged more in group activities than individual ones.

Engagement in Individual Activities

In Ms. Catherine's class, students were actively engaged in speaking tasks. For instance, students memorized and practiced the folk tale stories by themselves and presented the stories at the front of the class (FN Obs #1-2):

> The King tried to get Sri Tanjung. However, he failed. He was very angry. When the Prime Minister went there, the King told him that his wife was unfaithful to him. The Prime Minister was very angry with his wife. Sri Tanjung said that it was not true however he would kill her… (Ms. Catherine's student, VR Obs #1);

> My story is about Malin Kundang….He left his mother alone. Many years later Malin Kundang became wealthy. He had a ship and he was helped by many ship crews. Perfectly he had a beautiful wife… (Ms. Catherine's student, VR Obs #2).

Some students directed questions to the teacher when they did not understand or wanted to know more about the speaking task while others were seen reading silently. Similarly, in Ms. Hasibuan's class, students actively participated and engaged in individual activities. They showed enthusiasm and made an effort when their teacher asked them to create a poem and present it (FN Obs #1-2). Students raised their hands when they wanted to ask questions such as "Ma'am, can I describe a person in my poem?" and "My Girl- it's two syllables, isn't it, Ma'am?". Most students volunteered to answer the teacher's questions while a few gave answers when the teacher on them (FN Obs #3-4). In contrast, in Ms. Tuti's class, the students completed tasks on their worksheets. They did the tasks individually in silence

and when they finished, the students were quiet and waited until the teacher asked them to share their answers with the class (FN Obs #1-3).

Participation in Group Discussion and Oral Presentations

Noticeable across all three classes was students' active participation in group discussions. In Ms. Catherine's class, most students were observed discussing the task (FN Obs #3-5). During these activities, students used their mother tongue, Bahasa Indonesia. After they finished their group work, the teacher gave a number to each group and they did the group presentation in English according to the number. Not all group members were however involved in the oral presentation. For instance, during one group's oral presentation, two or three students remained silent while their fellow group members presented to the class (FN Obs # 3-5).

In Ms. Hasibuan's class, students were seen brainstorming ideas and exchanging opinions related to their English speaking tasks. They were asked to create a role-play which contained the use of conditional sentences (FN Obs #3-5). During group discussions, students used Bahasa Indonesia more frequently than English. In contrast to students in Ms. Catherine's class, groups volunteered to present when they finished their discussion. During the oral presentations, students in Ms. Hasibuan's class were seen performing different themes in the role-play. For example, when making a role play using conditional sentences, one group talked about their future aspirations, while other groups talked about love, celebrities, the environment and government policy. All group members participated and each student had a role and an opportunity to speak. The following example illustrates how students in a group presented their role-play:

Student 1	: Hello guys, how are you today?
Student 2	: I am fine
Student 3	: I'm fine, and you student 4?
Student 4	: Yeah I'm fine too. How are you student 1?
Student 1	: I'm not good this morning. I want to tell you what happened to me last night.
Student 4	: What happened?
Student 1	: I saw a ghost at my house last night. I am very sure it was a ghost.
Student 2 & 4	: So scary
Student 1	: Yeah, scary. What would you do if you saw a ghost at your house?
Student 3	: If I saw a ghost, I would flee or I would fight the ghost with my power.
Student 1	: You don't have power, OK.
All students laughed	
Student 4	: Oh My God, I couldn't imagine if it happened to me. Hey by the way, a new principal is coming to our school, do you remember?
Student 1	: Oh yeah I forgot
Student 4	: What would you do if you became a new principal?
Student 3	: If I were a new principal, I would give my best to be part of the school. What about you, Student 1?
Student 1	: I was really sad to leave my old school. OK, bye bye.

(VR Ob #5)

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Each of the group members had a turn to speak and seemingly the exchange of turns occurred smoothly.

In Ms. Tuti's class, students were enthusiastic and lively when doing their group work (FN Obs #3). For example, four students in group one were discussing how they should begin their argumentative writing. The topic for their writing was whether students should use motorcycles to travel to school. In the following instance, the students were talking about if they had to decide the thesis statement first or outline the reasons for using or not using motorcycle to school:

Student 1	: I think we should do the reason first, we state the reason why using motorcycle…
Student 2	: I think thesis comes first
Student 1	: Thesis first?
Student 3	: But have we decided that we want to agree or disagree with the topic?
Student 2	: It depends. But let's try with the reasons first
Student 1	: OK, let's make a notes on the reasons.
Student 2	: One, we don't have driving license
Student 1	: How do I write license? How to spell it?
Student 4	: it's LICENSE
Student 1	: OK, what else
Student 4	: We're not mature enough

(VR Obs #3)

Unlike the other two classes, students in Ms. Tuti's class used English more than Bahasa Indonesia during group activities. It seemed they used group activities and discussion as a time to practice their English with their classmates. The group discussions were very interactive, each group member contributing. However, similar to Ms. Catherine's class, when one of the groups had to present their work at the front of the class, not all group members spoke as one or two group members dominated the speaking (FN Obs #3).

Feedback Types and Strategies Used by the Three Teachers

Initiation, Response and Feedback or IRF, was used to identify teachers' and students' turns when analysing transcripts of feedback episodes from the three teachers' classrooms. The feedback (F) turn was coded further using the taxonomy of teachers' oral feedback (see Table 5 on page 62). The framework divided teacher feedback into three key types: affirmation, correction and understanding. Each type embodies strategies which were specifically used by the teacher when giving oral feedback. Confirmation and praise are strategies embodied in the affirmative feedback type; elicitation, explicit correction, repetition, clarification requests, disconfirmation, recasts and metalinguistic feedback are strategies of corrective type of feedback while seeking justification is part of understanding.

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Ms. Hasibuan and Ms. Tuti used all three types of feedback (affirmation, correction and understanding) while Ms. Catherine used two (affirmation and correction). Of the three types, the three teachers used affirmation most often. The three teachers used strategies from each feedback types to varying degrees. Metalinguistic feedback as part of corrective feedback did not occur in any of the three classes.

Affirmation

This type of feedback refers to the teacher showing acceptance of students' utterances.

Confirmation. Confirmation occurs when the teacher acknowledges or endorses students' answers and when they echo or repeat students' answers. This strategy is used to indicate students' answers are correct. Echoing students' answers occurred most frequently in Ms. Tuti's class. For instance, in Excerpts 1, 2 and 3 when teaching about writing an invitation letter, Ms. Tuti asked her students to label parts of an invitation letter on their worksheets. Then, students were asked to share their answers. Ms. Tuti echoed answers that students shared with the class to indicate those were correct. The nature of these interactions followed an IRF pattern with feedback taking the form of an 'echo':

<div>

Excerpt 1

Ms. Tuti	: Yeah, please mention number 1	I
Student 1	: Time, date, and place of event.	R
Ms. Tuti	: <u>Time, date, and place of event</u>.	F (echo)

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 2

Ms. Tuti	: Number 3, what is it about?	I
Student 3	: Deadline	R
Ms. Tuti	: <u>Deadline</u>, OK	F (echo)

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 3

Ms. Tuti	: … Number 4?	I
Student 4	: Requirement	R
Ms. Tuti	: <u>Requirement</u>. OK	F (echo)

(VR Obs #1)

</div>

Ms. Catherine confirmed the accuracy of her students' answers in two ways. In the first instance like Ms. Tuti, she echoed students' answers. In addition, she used affirmative phrases such as 'yes, that's right', 'right', or 'yes'. For example during Observation 1, after students had individually retold their folk story to the class, she called each student to her desk with the intent of commenting on her/his pronunciation or grammar. During these IRF exchanges she echoed instances where a student's pronunciation was correct:

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Excerpt 4

Ms. Catherine	: Gus, come here. How did you pronounce this?	I
Student 4	: <u>village</u>	R
Ms. Catherine	: <u>village</u>. And this one?	F (echo) /I
Student 4	: <u>Alone</u>	R
Ms. Catherine	: <u>Alone</u>	F (echo)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #1)</div>

In some of these exchanges she also used an affirmative expression followed by a brief explanation when a student's answer was grammatically correct:

Excerpt 5

Ms. Catherine	: Do you think it's don't or didn't?	I
Student 7	: didn't	R
Ms. Catherine	: <u>Right</u>, because it's past tense.	F (affirmation)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #1)</div>

Ms. Hasibuan also echoed students' answers and used affirmative expressions when giving feedback. In Excerpt 6, this teacher was explaining that a conditional sentence is used to describe a hypothetical situation which does not reflect the current reality. When she asked a question, one of her students answered correctly, and in that instance she echoed the answer to show it was correct. In Excerpt 7, Ms. Hasibuan's interaction followed an IRF pattern and she used an affirmative expression to confirm the response:

Excerpt 6

Ms. Hasibuan	: If I brought a camera, I would take some photos. Do you bring a camera?	I
Student 6	: No	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: so you can't?	F
Student 6	: I <u>can't take the photos</u>	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: You <u>can't take the photos</u>. That's the reality.	F (echo)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #2)</div>

Excerpt 7

Ms. Hasibuan	: How many syllables?	I
Students	: Two	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Yes, that's right.	F (affirmation)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #1)</div>

Praise. The three teachers affirmed student responses through their use of praise with Ms. Tuti using this form of feedback more often than the other two teachers. The use of phrases such as 'good', 'very good', 'good job' or 'good answer' were common when praising student utterances. Ms. Tuti often gave praise when her students answered questions on their worksheet correctly as they shared answers to the class . Again these interaction followed an IRF pattern. As shown in Excerpts 8-10, this praise generally followed her echoing of correct answers and it seemingly served to indicate the conclusion of the exchange:

Excerpt 8

Ms. Tuti	: October 21, 2016. And the place?	I
Student 1	: Boise Hilton	R
Ms. Tuti	: Boise Hilton, <u>Very good</u>.	F (echo, praise)

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 9

Ms. Tuti	: How do you know that?	I
Student 3	: Because there's the next week	R
Ms. Tuti	: The next week. OK. <u>Good job</u>.	F (echo, praise)

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 10

Ms. Tuti	: How do you know that?	I
Student 5	: We would like to invite you	R
Ms. Tuti	: We would like to invite you. OK. <u>Good answer</u>.	F (echo, praise)

(VR Obs #1)

While Ms. Catherine praised her students this was on fewer occasions when compared to Ms. Tuti. For example, after each student finished presenting her/his folk story, Ms. Catherine commented on the student's performance, identifying what the student did well. When making her comments, Ms. Catherine drew attention, as shown in Excerpts 11 and 12, to specific language features such as students' use of intonation and the accuracy of their pronunciation:

Excerpt 11

| Student 6 | : (Presenting her folk story) | |
| Ms. Catherine | : <u>Ok, It's good</u>. Your speech wasn't too fast and your intonation was also good. Thank you. | F (praise, specific comment) |

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 12

| Student 9 | : (Presenting her folk story) | |
| Ms. Catherine | : I didn't hear any wrong or incorrect words. <u>I think it was good</u>. Your intonation wasn't too fast. Thank you. | F (specific comment, praise) |

(VR Obs #2)

Ms. Hasibuan also praised the response of her students, but when compared to the other two teachers, this was rare. In one instance (Excerpt 13), Ms. Hasibuan commended a student

when she was able to answer and provide an explanation for her answer. In another instance (Excerpt 14), she complimented a student when he was able to correct a grammatically incorrect sentence.

Excerpt 13

Ms. Hasibuan	: If I broke a camera, I would… is it broke or brought?	I
Student 6	: Brought, the verb two of bring	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Oh brought. OK good. If I brought. Brought is simple past tense.	F (echo, praise, brief explanation)

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 14

Ms. Hasibuan	: …So who will give correction to his statement? If I were rich…	F
Student 6	: I would	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Aahhh, good. I would.	F (praise, echo)

(VR Obs #2)

It can be seen that each of the three teachers incorporated praise alongside the use of other strategies. Frequently, the praise was followed by or preceded the teacher echoing a response and to a lesser extent it was associated with specific comments on students' performance and/or a brief explanation regarding a specific language feature.

Correction

Corrective feedback includes the following strategies: elicitation, explicit correction, repetition, recasts, disconfirmation, seeking clarification and metalinguistic cue. Of these strategies, as mentioned above, the use of metalinguistic cues was not evident across any of the three classes. The three teachers used corrective feedback to amend students' mistakes or errors. While Ms. Catherine and Ms. Hasibuan were observed using a range of corrective strategies, Ms. Tuti was only seen using elicitation.

Elicitation. Elicitation can be carried out in three ways. First, the teacher prompts students to complete an utterance; second, the teacher uses a question to draw out the correct form; and third, the teacher asks students to reformulate their utterance. In the following excerpts, Ms. Hasibuan's students were asked to create a conditional sentence orally. As shown in Excerpt 15, in the main, when she found a mistake in students' utterances, Ms. Hasibuan either used questions to prompt a response from her students or asked students to complete her utterance:

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Excerpt 15

Ms. Hasibuan	: If I were rich, I will spend a lot of money, <u>is that right?</u>	F (elicitation)
Students	: Yes (choral response)	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: No. (3 seconds pause) So who will give correction to his statement? <u>If I were rich….</u>	F (elicitation)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #2)</div>

She also used a question as a prompt for students to elicit the correct grammatical structure (Excerpt 16 and 17) and the choice of vocabulary (Excerpt 18):

Excerpt 16

Student 8	: If my car dirty, I will wash it	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Oh, <u>If my car…</u>	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was dirty	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>was or were?</u>	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: If my car were dirty, <u>I would wash…I would wash?</u>	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: the car	R

<div align="right">(VR Obs #2)</div>

Excerpt 17

| Student 12 | : If I didn't know better, I thought he cheated | R |
| Ms. Hasibuan | : I thought?<u> Any other answer?</u> | F (elicitation) |

<div align="right">(FN Obs #5)</div>

Excerpt 18

| Nichol | : I would ride around the town. | R |
| Ms. Hasibuan | : <u>Are you sure ride? Car?</u> | F (elicitation) |

<div align="right">(FN Obs #3)</div>

Ms. Catherine's use of elicitation was mainly in the form of questions. As illustrated in Excerpt 19, when a student mispronounced a word or misused a tense, Ms. Catherine asked a question while at the same time embedding the correct pronunciation and tense in the question:

Excerpt 19

Ms. Catherine	: How did you pronounce this (the word 'promise')?	I
Student 7	: /promAis/	R
Ms. Catherine	: <u>/promAis/ or /ˈprɒmɪs/?</u>	F (elicitation)
Student 7	: /ˈprɒmɪs/	R

Ms. Catherine	: OK, and there was the sentence 'I don't understand, right? That's when the woman gave the bag?	I
Student 7	: Uh yeah	R
Ms. Catherine	: <u>Do you think it's don't or didn't?</u>	F (elicitation)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #2)</div>

Like the other two teachers, Ms. Tuti used questions when trying to elicit a correct answer. Excerpt 20 portrays how when one of her students was sharing his answer with the class, Ms. Tuti asked him to show where the answer came from. It was when the student pointed out the incorrect reference to his answer that Ms. Tuti inserted some clues, prompting the student where to look for the correct reference:

Excerpt 20

Ms. Tuti	: Persuasion. How do you know that's persuasion? What sentences support your answer?	F
Student 7	: (silent)	R
Ms. Tuti	: Which sentence?	I
Student 7	: We need your combination of compassion and competence in directing the Health Committee.	R
Ms. Tuti	: <u>but before that? Before that maybe they praised. So which sentence, which expression that someone gives like a praise or giving compliment? Which one?</u>	F (elicitation)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #1)</div>

Explicit correction. Explicit correction is when the teacher corrects mistakes. This correction may or may not be followed by an explanation. Ms. Catherine used it most often during the individual feedback session with her students after they had finished their speaking. In particular, Ms. Catherine corrected students' pronunciation (Excerpt 21 and 22) and grammatical mistakes (Excerpt 23). As evident in Excerpt 23, there were times when Ms. Catherine added a brief explanation regarding the correct answer:

Excerpt 21

Ms. Catherine	: OK. And then how did you pronounce this one?	I
Student 3	: /jenny/	R (mispronunciation)
Ms. Catherine	<u>: genie /ˈdʒiːni/</u>	F (explicit correction)

<div align="right">(VR Obs#1)</div>

Excerpt 22

Ms. Catherine	: How did you say this one?	I
Student 8	: /Ons/ upon a time	R (mispronunciation)
Ms. Catherine	: Once upon a time	F (explicit correction)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #2)</div>

Excerpt 23

Ms. Catherine	: And then you said 'ask she', right?	I
Student 8	: Yes, ask she	R
Ms. Catherine	: <u>it's 'ask her' because it's used as an object</u>	F (Explicit correction and explanation)

<div align="right">(VR Obs#2)</div>

<div align="center">97</div>

Similarly, Ms. Hasibuan used explicit correction which mostly focused on students' pronunciation. Excerpts 24 and 25 show how Ms. Hasibuan interrupted and immediately made corrections once she heard a mispronunciation or the use of incorrect grammar during students' speaking or presentations. On some occasions, as shown in Excerpt 26, she also corrected students' grammatical errors:

Excerpt 24

Student 11	: I'd spend most of the budget for infrastructure and education.	I
Ms. Hasibuan	: Infrastructure (correcting pronunciation)	F (explicit correction)
		(VR Obs #3)

Excerpt 25

Student 8	: Hmm, I would pri…	I
Ms. Hasibuan	: Prioritize	F (explicit correction)
Student 8	: Priorities	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Prioritize (correcting pronunciation)	F (explicit correction)
		(VR Obs #3)

Excerpt 26

Student	: If I were study	I
Ms. Hasibuan	: If I studied (correcting grammar)	F (explicit correction)
Student	: If I study	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Studied (correcting grammar)	F (explicit correction)
		(FN Obs #5)

While Ms. Catherine occasionally added an explanation, Ms. Hasibuan seemed to be more direct as she did not include comments or explanation with her correction– she focused on ammending the mistakes.

Repetition. Here, teachers repeat, with rising intonation, the part of a student's response that contains an error. Ms. Hasibuan was the only teacher who used repetition to indicate students' mistakes. As shown in Excerpts 27 and 28 she used a questioning intonation (shown by the upward pointing arrow) as she repeated errors pertaining to students' grammar when constructing a conditional sentence:

Excerpt 27

Ms. Hasibuan	: What would you do if you had a nice car?	I
Nichol	: I would riding around the town.	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Riding ↑	F (repetition)
		(FN Obs #3)

Excerpt 28

Ms. Hasibuan	: Ok, now you.	I
Student 9	: If I were rich, I will…	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: I will ↑	F (repetition)
		(FN Obs #3)

Clarification requests. In clarification requests, teachers ask a student to clarify what she or he has said to make sure the teacher has correctly understood the student's intention. It is also used to indicate when a student's utterance is ill formed in some way. The occurrence of this strategy was sporadic in both Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's classes. As illustrated in Excerpts 29 and 30, the two teachers requested clarification mainly to check in case they had misheard an utterance:

Excerpt 29

Ms. Catherine	: …and what did you say about Buto Ijo? <u>I didn't hear it clearly, is it 'body'?</u>	F (clarification requests)
Student 4	: Which Buto Ijo?	R
Ms. Catherine	: The last part, the one when he threw something	R
Student 4	: oh 'muddy'	R

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 13a[5]

| Ms. Hasibuan | : If I broke a camera, I would…<u>is it broke or brought?</u> | F (clarification requests) |
| Student 9 | : brought, verb two of bring | R |

(VR Obs #2)

Diconfirmation. This feature is used when teachers refute or question the correctness of a student's answer, without providing any correction. They use phrases such as 'no', 'that's not right' or 'it's incorrect' in this manner to disconfirm students' utterances. Ms. Hasibuan was the only teacher who used this strategy, and it was a relatively common feature of her feedback. Particularly, it occurred during interactive question and answer sessions where Ms. Hasibuan posed a question and students spontaneously responded to it. For instance, as shown in Excerpts 31 and 32, when the class was learning about how to chunk a word into syllables, Ms. Hasibuan asked her students to identify how many syllables there were in a certain word and/or to write down the syllables on the whiteboard at the front of the class. If a student's answer was incorrect, she would indicate this was so without providing any correction:

Excerpt 31

Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, Nichol. Between, how many syllables?	I
Nichol	: (Nichol came forward and Ms. Hasibuan gave him a board marker) Two.	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, two. Now write down	F
Nichol	:(Nichol wrote the word between on the board and after that other students corrected him)	
Students	: Nichol, put a space or a dash, don't just write the word	F

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[5] When used, the letter 'a' indicates that the excerpt has been used previously. It is revisited and extended to highlight different emphasis.

Nichol	: Oh I see. (Nichol turned to the whiteboard again and fixed his writing by adding a dash between syllables: 'bet-ween')	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: OK. Is it right?	F
Students	: Yes	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>No</u>	F (disconfirmation)
	(Students chattered)	
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>No, it's not right.</u>	F (disconfirmation)
		(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 32

Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, you student 2. How many syllables? (the word beauty)	I
Student 2	(Student 2 came forward and took a marker) : Three	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, try it	F
Student 2	: (student 2 wrote on the board)	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Is it right?	F
Students	: Yes	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>No.</u> who else?	F (disconfirmation)
		(VR Obs #1)

Recasts. When recasting, the teacher reformulates all or parts of a student's utterance, minus the error. Ms. Hasibuan was the only teacher observed using this strategy and her use of recasting was relatively infrequent when compared to the other strategies she used. Excerpt 33 shows how she corrected the order of a phrase in her student's sentence, while Excerpt 16a portrays how she inserted the correct grammatical form following a student's incorrect response. Seemingly, recasts were used when other corrective strategies had not generated correct grammatical forms:

Excerpt 33

Student 7	: If I were a rich people, I would buy all the <u>book series</u> in the bookstore	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: If I were a rich people, I would buy all the <u>series books</u> in the bookstore. Good.	F (recasts)
		(VR Obs #3)

Excerpt 16a

Student 8	: If my car dirty, I will wash it	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Oh, If my car…	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was dirty	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: was or were?	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>If my car were dirty</u>, <u>I would wash…I would wash?</u>	F (recasts, elicitation)
Student 8	: the car	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: I would wash <u>it</u>.	F (recasts)
		(VR Obs #2)

Understanding

The third type of oral feedback present related to information about students'
understanding. Teachers check if students understand how to use a particular language feature
by seeking justification.

Seeking justification. Teachers use this strategy to ask students to explain their use of
specific language features or their choice of answers. Feedback that probed student
understanding by seeking justification for choice of answers occurred mostly in Ms. Tuti's
class. Excerpts 34 to 36 showed how Ms. Tuti was constantly asked students to explain their
choice of answers, how they knew their answers were correct and to indicate the sentence
from the text which support their answers:

Excerpt 34

Ms. Tuti	: Number 4	I
Student 4	: Requirement	R
Ms. Tuti	: Requirement. How do you know that?	F (seeking justification)

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 35

Ms. Tuti	: Number 2?	I
Student 2	: Request	R
Ms. Tuti	: Request. Why do you say so?	F (seeking justification)

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 36

Ms. Tuti	: Number 3? What is it about?	I
Student 3	: Deadline	R
Ms. Tuti	: Deadline. OK. How do you know that?	F (seeking justification)

(VR Obs #1)

Ms. Hasibuan sought justification from her students when she wanted them to validate their
use of a particular language feature. Excerpt 37 shows that Ms. Hasibuan wanted to know why
Student 7 used 'were' rather than 'was' when constructing her sentence:

Excerpt 37

Student 7	: If I were a rich people, I would buy all the book series in the bookstore	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: If I were a rich people, I would buy all the series books in the bookstore. Good. Why did you use were?	F (seeking justification)
Student 7	: because I am not a rich people.	
Ms. Hasibuan	: Yeah, because you are not a rich people. Why did you use I were not was?	F (seeking justification)

(VR Obs #3)

The overall pattern of each teacher's feedback can be found in Appendix N. the following
section addresses how students responded to their teachers' oral feedback.

Student Responses to Feedback

The analysis of students' responses to feedback was similar to that when identifying teachers' feedback types. As such it focused on the Response (R) turn after teacher feedback (F). These responses to feedback were coded using the taxonomy of student response to feedback (see Table 6 on page 63). This taxonomy categorises student responses according to five types of responses: (1) modification of an utterance/answer; (2) no modification of an utterance/answer; (3) non-verbal response; (4) provides clarification; and (5) provides justification and explanation.

Modification of an answer/utterance

This refers to students correcting and/or modifying an incorrect answer following their teacher's feedback. Students in all three classes made such responses to their teacher's corrective feedback. For instance, students modified their use of specific language features after feedback that aimed at eliciting corrections. Excerpt 19a[6] shows how Student 7 modified her pronunciation of the word 'promise' after Ms. Catherine prompted her with the correct pronunciation. Excerpt 15a illustrates how student 10 amended his answer following Ms. Hasibuan's utterance which required completion while in Excerpt 20a Student 7 corrected his answer after Ms. Tuti provided a prompt:

Excerpt 19a

Ms. Catherine	: How did you pronounce this (the word 'promise')?	I
Student 7	: /promAis/ (wrong pronunciation)	R
Ms. Catherine	: /promAis/ or /ˈprɒmɪs/?	F (elicitation)
Student 7	: /ˈprɒmɪs/	R (modification of answer)
		(VR Obs #2)

Excerpt 15a

Ms. Hasibuan	: If I were rich, I will spend a lot of money, is that right?	F (elicitation)
Students	: Yes (choral response)	R (wrong answer)
Ms. Hasibuan	: No. (3 seconds pause) So who will give correction to his statement? If I were rich….	F (disconfirmation, elicitation)
Student 10	: I would	R (modification of answer)
		(VR Obs #2)

Excerpt 20a

Ms. Tuti	: Persuasion. How do you know that's persuasion? What sentences support your answer?	F
Student 7	: (silent)	R
Ms. Tuti	: Which sentence?	I

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[6] The letter 'a' in the Excerpt indicated that the excerpt has been previously used. It is revisited here to highlight different emphasis.

Student 7	: We need your combination of compassion and competence in directing the Health Committee.	R
Ms. Tuti	: <u>but before that? Before that maybe they praised. So which sentence, which expression that someone gives like a praise or giving compliment? Which one?</u>	F (elicitation)
Student 7	: <u>Your leadership are essential and your dedication was apparent</u>	R (modification of answer)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #1)</div>

The following excerpts illustrate how students in Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's class repeated and modified their pronunciation of certain words after their teachers had made explicit corrections of their utterances:

Excerpt 21a

Ms. Catherine	: OK. And then how did you pronounce this one?	I
Student 3	: genie /jenny/	R
Ms. Catherine	: <u>genie /ˈdʒiːni/</u>	F (explicit correction)
Student 3	: <u>Oh, genie /ˈdʒiːni/</u>	R (modification of utterance

<div align="right">(VR Obs#1)</div>

Excerpt 24a

Student 11	: I'd spend most of the budget for infrastructure and education.	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>Infrastructure</u> (correcting pronunciation)	F (explicit correction)
Student 11	: <u>Infrastructure</u>	R (modification of utterance)

<div align="right">(VR Obs #3)</div>

In a similar manner, Excerpt 27a shows how Nichol modified his utterance after Ms. Hasibuan repeated the incorrect form of a word, indicating to him that he had made a mistake:

Excerpt 27a

Ms. Hasibuan	: What would you do if you had a nice car?	I
Nichol	: I would riding around the town.	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>Riding?</u> ↑	F (repetition)
Nichol	: I would <u>ride</u> around the town.	R (modification of answer, riding-ride)

<div align="right">(FN Obs #3)</div>

Modification of an answer also occurred when Ms. Hasibuan use a disconfirmation strategy to explicitly indicate that students had made mistakes:

Excerpt 31a

Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, Nichol. Between, how many syllables?	I
Nichol	: (Nichol came forward and Ms. Hasibuan gave him a board marker) Two.	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, two. Now write down	F
Nichol	:(Nichol wrote the word between on the board and after that other students corrected him)	

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Students	: Nichol, put a space or a dash, don't just write the word	F
Nichol	: Oh I see. (Nichol turned to the whiteboard again and fixed his writing by adding a dash between syllables: 'bet-ween')	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: OK. Is it right?	F
Students	: Yes	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>No</u> (Students chattered)	F (disconfirmation)
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>No, it's not right. Come on</u> (A student raised her hand) Yes, you, Jack	F (disconfirmation)
Jack	: (Jack came forward, took the marker and wrote on the board 'be-tween')	R (modification of an answer)
		(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 32a

Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, you student 2. How many syllables? (the word beauty)	I
Student 2	(Student 2 came forward and took a marker) : Three	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, try it	F
Student 2	: (student 2 wrote on the board)	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Is it right?	F
Student 3	: Yes	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>No.</u> who else?, you? (give a board marker to Student 4)	F (disconfirmation)
Student 4	: (Came forward and wrote the syllables)	R (modification of an answer)
Ms. Hasibuan	: Is it right?	F
Students	: Yes	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: No, (students laughed) so how many syllables?	F
Student 5	: I think it's two	R (modification of an answer) (VR Obs #1)

Excerpts 31a and 32a above illustrate how students in Ms. Hasibuan's class, following her disconfirmation, attempted to amend their answers. These excerpts are distinguished from the others in relation to the way the modification was carried out by students other than the one who committed the mistake. In Excerpt 31a, Nichol's incorrect answer was successfully modified by Jack while in Excerpt 32a, Student 2's incorrect answer was successfully modified by Student 5 after an unsuccessful attempt from Student 4.

While elicitation, explicit correction, repetition, and disconfirmation led students to modifying answers or utterances, there were times when students did not immediately act on their teacher's oral feedback.

No Modification of an Answer/Utterance

This response feature occurs when students does not act on teachers' corrective feedback. For example, students in Ms. Hasibuan's class did not always correct their

utterances after Ms. Hasibuan used corrective feedback strategies such as elicitation and repetition. Excerpt 39 provides an illustration of how Student 9 continued her sentence instead of amending her use of the word 'will', even after the teacher indicated it was incorrect by repeating the word. Excerpts 16a and 40 show how students kept their previous utterances unchanged following the teacher's feedback which prompted their incorrect utterances. It appeared that as these corrective feedback strategies were not explicit, students had perhaps misunderstood the feedback – they may have thought the teacher's intention when repeating and prompting was to clarify rather than correct their previous utterances.

Excerpt 39

Student 9	: If I were rich, I will…	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: I will? ↑	F (repetition)
Student 9	: I will spend a lot of money	R (no modification)

(VR Obs #2)

Excerpt 16a

Student 8	: If my car dirty, I will wash it	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Oh, If my car…	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was dirty	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: was or were?	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was	R (no modification)

(VR Obs #2)

Excerpt 40

Student 6	: If I brought a camera, I would take some photograph	R (student mispronounced the word photograph and did not put plural 's' at the end)
Ms. Hasibuan	: I would take some…	F (elicitation)
Student 6	: Photograph, like photo	R (no modification)

(VR Obs #2)

In the gathered data, it was apparent that Ms. Hasibuan's students were also noticed making no amendments of their utterances following her recasts. In Excerpt 33a, Ms. Hasibuan's use of recasts was followed by praise which acted as a close to the sequence. Here praise seemed to dismiss the student's opportunity to modify her utterance. In a similar manner, Excerpt 16a illustrates how the student did not have a chance to correct his utterance as Ms. Hasibuan's recasts were followed by another question and a discourse marker such as "OK" to indicate sequence closing:

Excerpt 33a

| Student 7 | : If I were a rich people, I would buy all the book series in the bookstore | R |
| Ms. Hasibuan | : If I were a rich people, I would buy all the series books in the bookstore. Good. | F (recasts, praise) |

(VR Obs #3)

Excerpt 16a

Student 8	: If my car dirty, I will wash it	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Oh, If my car…	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was dirty	R (incorrect response)
Ms. Hasibuan	: was or were?	F (elicitation)
Student 8	: was	R (incorrect response)
Ms. Hasibuan	: <u>If my car were dirty</u>, I would wash…I would wash?	F (recasts, elicitation)
Student 8	: the car	R (incorrect response)
Ms. Hasibuan	: I would wash <u>it</u>. If my car were dirty, I would wash it. OK, now you (pointing at other student)	F (recasts)

(VR Obs #2)

No modifications of utterances by students were observed in Ms. Catherine's class. One particular interaction stood out however where a student rejected the explicit correction of her pronunciation, indicating that another teacher had pronounced the word in that same manner:

Excerpt 41

Ms. Catherine	: And this cucumber / kʌːkʌmbə / how did you pronounce this?	I
Student 7	: /ˈkjuːkʌmbə/	R
Teacher	: it's / kʌːkʌmbə /	F (explicit correction)
Student 7	: <u>but my other teacher said /ˈkjuːkʌmbə/</u>	R (rejecting correction)

(VR Obs #2)

Non-verbal

This response feature occurs when students use gestures such as a smile, nod, raised eyebrows or the like, or use of body language such as a shrug when responding to the teacher's feedback. Although observations of non-verbal responses were rare, students in Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's class were seen using this feature to respond to their teachers' praise (see Excerpt 11a) and confirmation of their answers (see Excerpt 42):

Excerpt 11a

| Ms. Catherine | : <u>Ok, It's good</u>. Your speech wasn't too fast and your intonation was also good. Thank you. | F (praise) |
| Student 6 | : (<u>nodded and smiled</u>) | R (non-verbal) |

(VR Obs #1)

Excerpt 42

Ms. Hasibuan	: So, how many syllables?	I
Student 5	: I think it's two	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: OK, Student 5 (hand in the market to Andy)	F
Student 5	(Andy came forward and write the syllables)	R
Ms. Hasibuan	: Yes, that's right.	F (confirmation)
Student 5	: (Student 5 <u>smiled</u> and walked back to his desk)	R (non-verbal)

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In Excerpt 11a Ms. Catherine praised Student 6 after her presentation of a folk story and commented on her speech and intonation. As a response to the praise and comment, Student 6 nodded and smiled. In Excerpt 42, Student 5 smiled after Ms. Hasibuan confirm his correct answer. Again there is a sense here that the teachers' use of praise and confirmation marked a close to the sequence and hence students might have thought a non-verbal response was sufficient as their answers were correct.

Provide Clarification

This feature is specifically used when students react to their teacher's feedback in the form of a request for clarification. Excerpts 29a and 30a portray how students in Ms. Catherine's and Ms. Hasibuan's class provided clarification regarding the use of a specific word:

Excerpt 29a

Ms. Catherine	: …and what did you say about Buto Ijo? I didn't hear it clearly, is it 'body'?	F (clarification requests)
Student 4	: Which Buto Ijo?	R
Ms. Catherine	: The last part, the one when he threw something	R
Student 4	: oh 'muddy'	R (provide clarification)

Excerpt 30a

| Ms. Hasibuan | : If I broke a camera, I would…is it broke or brought? | F (clarification requests) |
| Student 9 | : brought, verb two of bring | R (provide clarification) |

What happened in Excerpt 29a was Ms. Catherine asked Student 4 to clarify a word he had said during his presentation because she did not hear that part clearly. Before Student 4 provided clarification, he first asked for further information of the particular part that Ms. Catherine had missed. In Excerpt 30a, it seemed Ms. Hasibuan might have thought she misheard a word so she asked Student 9 which verb she had used. Student 9 then provided clarification and explained the verb he had used was 'brought', the past form of the verb bring. Perhaps, Student 9's brief explanation was to avoid a misunderstanding as the way she pronounced the word 'brought' and 'broke' was similar.

Provide Justification

This type of response refers to the ways in which students explain their answers and/or their use of specific language features following their teacher's request to do so. This occurred frequently in Ms. Tuti's class especially during activities where students had to provide answers to worksheet questions and then asked to share answers with the class. Excerpts 35a

and 36a illustrate how Ms. Tuti asked her students to provide the reason for their answers. Students then provided justification by showing the reference of the answers:

Excerpt 35a

Ms. Tuti	: Number 2?	I
Student 2	: Request	R
Ms. Tuti	: Request. <u>Why do you say so?</u>	F (seeking justification)
Student 2	: <u>Because the sentence 'we would like to speak'</u>	R (provide justification)
		(VR Obs #3)

Excerpt 36a

Ms. Tuti	: Number 3? What is it about?	I
Student 3	: Deadline	R
Ms. Tuti	: Deadline. <u>OK. How do you know that?</u>	F (seeking justification)
Student 3	: <u>Because there's 'the next week'</u>	R (provide justification)
		(VR Obs #3)

In another instance, one of Ms. Hasibuan's students also justified why she used 'were' when creating a conditional sentence:

Excerpt 37a

Ms. Hasibuan	: If I were a rich people, I would buy all the series books in the bookstore. Good. <u>Why is it used were?</u>	F (seeking justification)
Student 7	: <u>because I am not a rich person.</u>	R (provide justification)
		(VR Obs #3)

Overall, students' responses showed how in the main they engaged non-verbally with affirmative feedback. Their response to corrective feedback mainly took the form of modifying and clarifying utterances, but at times they were observed not taking any action to the feedback as they did not correct or modify their utterances. Students responded to feedback related to their understanding of the use of particular language features by providing justifications for their answers.

Chapter Summary

Observations conducted in the three teachers' classrooms were captured during lessons using field notes and video recordings of feedback episodes occurred during the lessons. The main aims of the observations were to understand the types of feedback used by the teachers when teaching English as a foreign language and to understand how students responded to and engaged with the feedback during learning. Appendix O provides a brief summary of the types

of feedback the teachers used and the students' responses to the teachers' feedback. Overall, it was evident that the IRF pattern of interaction was dominant across all three classrooms. Teachers were the initiators of feedback while students remained the recipients of the feedback. Affirmation was the most frequent type of oral feedback used with teachers confirming and praising students' use of specific features of the English language. Student responses to this type of feedback were generally non-verbal as the teachers' use of confirmation and praise was indicative of a close to a sequence. The second type of oral feedback that was most commonly observed was correction. Here the teachers used a range of strategies to identify and correct students' mistakes in relation to their pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Some corrective feedback strategies, when noticed, led to students correcting their utterances, while in other instances when unnoticed, did not necessarily result in correction of student utterances. The least used type of oral feedback observed was related to student understanding where teachers sought justification from students about why they had used specific language features. To show their understanding, students responded by giving justification of their utterances and/or answers.

Next Chapter

The following chapter provides a discussion of findings presented in this chapter and the previous chapter, Chapter Five.

Chapter Seven: Discussion

This case study set out with the aim to investigate how oral feedback supports and engages students in learning English as a foreign language. It addresses five research questions:

1. What beliefs do teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback?
2. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the teacher in the feedback process?
3. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the students in the feedback process?
4. What types of feedback are evident?
5. How do students respond to oral feedback?

The current chapter, structured according to two main themes, provides an in-depth discussion of findings presented in Chapters Five and Six. The first theme draws attention to the use of a traditional approach to feedback whereby teachers' use feedback to effect improvement through the use of corrections and praise. However, it is argued that the latter is not the best way to improve students' English language learning. Moreover, it is maintained that the traditional roles performed by teachers and students in feedback-as-correction potentially hinders improvement and long-term learning. The second theme discusses a contemporary approach to feedback, again addressing the enactment of feedback for improvement and the respective roles of the key players. This section elaborates on the significance of dialogue in the feedback process in order to bring about student improvement. It also discusses the importance of teachers and students engaging in a collaborative approach to the feedback process, one where students increasingly take responsibility for managing their learning.

A Traditional Approach to Support Improvement

Participants in the current study believed the purpose of feedback was to improve students' ability to speak English. This purpose aligns with literature where it is argued that the significance and impact of feedback lies in its power to improve students' learning by closing the gap between current and desired performance (Black & Wiliam, 2005; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Shute, 2008; William, 2016). While there are a number of ways in which this gap can be closed, the participants in the current study believed this could best be achieved through the constant corrections of students' mistakes/errors. In other words, the participants assumed that correction of errors would improve students' achievement and learning. This assumption is consistent with Kulhavy's (1977) traditional view of feedback.

He describes how feedback that provides students with information about the correctness of responses "magnif[ies] learning yields" (Kulhavy, 1977, p. 212) for students:

> [Feedback] confirms correct responses, telling the student how well the content is being understood, and it identifies and corrects errors…This correction is probably the most important aspect of feedback…(Kulhavy, 1977, p. 229)

The Tools for Improvement: Correcting Mistakes and Using Praise

In the context of EFL, teachers and students deem error correction necessary as they believe it will help students' language development and learning (Tran & Nguyen, 2020). Error correction is a prevalent theme in the EFL literature – moreover it is common practice and presented as a key strategy to bring about successful language learning (Sepasdar & Kafipour, 2019). Some scholars (e.g. Long, 1996; Lyster, 2004) consider corrective feedback facilitative to language learning and as such, they have focused their studies on ascertaining what constitutes the most effective types of corrective feedback to promote language learning. While the results of such studies have been inconclusive, academics continue to claim explicit corrective feedback is particularly effective as it highlights for students' gap between their language production and the desired form (Ellis et al., 2018). Thus, it is not surprising that the teachers in the current study believed feedback to be primarily a process of correcting student errors and were constantly observed correcting errors. Such corrections were intentional as it seemed the teachers thought students would then notice the discrepancies in their oral production. However, while students' successful uptake of their teachers' corrections may indicate they have noticed the gap in their language production (Akiyama, 2017; Sheen, 2004), this does not necessarily mean they know how, in the future, to close the gap.

In the current study, the teacher participants believed that correcting mispronunciation and grammatical mistakes would lead to students' oral language improvement. Consistent with this belief they were observed on a number of occasions making corrections to their students' linguistic features. Getting the pronunciation and grammar correct is a focus of English speaking lessons in the EFL context as these features determine the clarity of speech when used for communication. However, when considering the more general educational literature, correction is only one type of feedback. In Hattie and Timperly's (2007) feedback framework, correction of pronunciation and grammar fall into the category of feedback about task, a type of feedback that is not necessarily the most effective. According to Hattie and Timperley (2007) feedback directed at the task level draws students' attention to the immediate goal, that is to carry out the task correctly, instead of encouraging them to achieve the longer-term goal of taking responsibility for identifying and making their own correction. As apparent in the

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current study, explicit corrections of oral mistakes resulted in students repeating what their teachers said. The immediate goal here was for students to get their pronunciation and/or grammatical form correct. Seemingly, there was an expectation on the teachers' part that when the mistakes had been corrected, these errors would not occur in the future. However, as noted earlier, it can be argued that evaluative feedback which only addresses right and wrong responses does not necessarily have a lasting impact on students' long-term language learning. In contrast to feedback that encourages students to exercise their ability to recognise mistakes, it was the teachers who recognised the errors and took action for students.

In addition to corrections, teachers of the Year 11 students also made extensive use of feedback in the form of praise as a way of encouraging and improving students' oral language capability. There seemed to be an assumption that giving students praise would increase their motivation and encourage them to improve their speaking skills. The use of praise in feedback has been reported as a common practice in the classroom both in EFL and general educational contexts (Orsmond & Merry, 2011) - teachers seem to believe praise has a linear relationship with motivation. There are different types of praise with Mercer and Ryan (2013, p. 21) observing "not all forms of praise are intrinsically good". One of the most common forms of praise occurs as a "spontaneous reaction to student behaviour" or performance (Brophy, 1981, p. 11) and this usually addresses personal attributes rather than deeper features of the task. Hattie and Timperley (2007) have argued that feedback in the form of personal praise, which is directed at the level of the self, is the most ineffective type because it contains little to no information about students' learning and it potentially detracts students' attention from the focus of their learning.

If feedback in the form of praise is to enhance students' motivation, it needs to be specific and credible (Brophy, 1981; Henderlong & Lepper, 2002) and it has to focus more on the effort students have put into the task rather than their ability (Dweck, 2007). Ability-focused praise negatively affects student motivation while effort-focused praise has been found to positively affect motivation (Mueller & Dweck, 1998). Praise which focuses on the ability causes students to think that ability or intelligence is a fixed trait and therefore it cannot be changed or improved. As a result, students do not feel confident in seeking new challenges as it will make them appear as incapable and not clever if they fail or make errors. In contrast, if praise is directed at students' efforts in doing the task, they will feel their efforts are appreciated and consequently they will want to try harder and do better in the future.

There were abundant instances of praise directed at the self from teachers to students in the current study and an absence of effort related praise. Teachers used phrases such as 'very

good [girl]' or 'good job' with the probable expectation that students would feel motivated to do better. Students reported they felt happy and proud when personally praised. Perhaps this sense of happiness and pride motivated them to do better in the hope of getting more praise (Burnett & Mandel, 2010). However, as argued by Wong and Waring (2009) personal praise directed at the self does not necessarily lead to increased motivation and it functions as little more than a means of closing an interaction or question-answer sequence indicating that a student's answer is correct. As apparent in the current study, such praise occurred automatically following students' correct responses and there was evidence it was used as a sequence closing strategy as the participants then moved to discussing another part of the lesson.

Promoting the purpose of feedback as improvement through the corrections of errors and personal praise is a traditional and somewhat narrow view of how feedback can be used to support and enhance learning. However, if feedback is to lead to improvement, it has to include information about the goal or expected learning, how students will attain this goal and where the learning is heading next (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Having such information will enable students to reflect on their works or performance and thus it will lead to increased understanding and adjustment of learning strategies to achieve learning goals. Hattie and Timperley (2007) reasoned that if feedback is to enhance learning it is most effective when directed at the levels of cognitive processing and self-regulation. Moreover, while feedback about the task is seen as ineffective in and of itself, this type of feedback can be more powerful when combined with feedback addressing cognitive processes and/or self-regulation (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Feedback about cognitive processing relates to students' strategies for detecting errors and it often acts as "a cueing mechanism" (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 93) which helps students recognise errors and modify strategies in approaching the task. In other words, students are informed or given cues about their mistakes, but corrections are not explicitly provided. As a result, students are invited to think about and actively seek the correct form. In the Year 11 English language classes, cognitive process feedback was scarce. Only one of the three teachers used it through a series of elicitation and repetition strategies which provided her students with cues. Occasionally, students noticed these cues and thus they realised that an error had occurred before re-considering how they would engage with the task. However, there were also times when students failed to recognise the cues. While reasons for this failure were not articulated during the interviews, one possible explanation was that students misunderstood their teacher's feedback. Elicitation and repetition strategies are implicit types

of feedback (Li, 2010) and the subtlety of these strategies may mean students overlook or misunderstand them.

If students are to be successful in their learning, feedback has to promote students' self-regulating skills (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Developing students' self-regulation is an important part of supporting learning. Feedback directed at students' self-regulation is arguably the most effective in supporting learning as it addresses students' capability to monitor, direct and regulate their thinking, affect and actions towards the learning goal (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Not only does such feedback allow students to generate information from within themselves, it also results in students becoming more autonomous and independent in their learning. However, it is noted in the literature that evidence of feedback addressed at the level of student self-regulation is infrequent (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Hawe et al., 2008; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). Therefore it is not unexpected that this type of feedback was absent in the current study. The explanation for this could be that the participants are not familiar with the notion of self-regulation and the need to deliberately encourage development of this skill in their students. Furthermore, it may be that the prevalence of feedback which tells and corrects students' mistakes/errors is so deeply rooted in teachers' practice and the student psyche that it is hard to alter.

The Role of the Teacher and Student in the Feedback Process

Previous studies have demonstrated that more often than not feedback is construed and practiced as information given by the teacher to students (e.g. Dann, 2015; Tunstall & Gipps, 1996). In line with such findings, the current study illustrated how teachers considered themselves, and were considered by their students, as the experts in the classroom and as a corollary it is only to be expected that they would be the primary and major source of feedback information. This practice has created an imbalance of power and role distribution between the teacher and the students, a feature of the more traditional view of feedback where teachers are seen as the more knowledgeable expert.

Especially in Indonesia, there is a perception that teachers are the experts, a view that is somehow inseparable from the cultural values embodied in the relationship between children and adults. Zulfikar (2013) has asserted that "most Indonesian students have been exposed to cultural and social contexts, in which elders are seen as wiser, more intelligent, and more experienced individuals, and thus they are worth respecting" (p. 128). One of the ways in which students can demonstrate respect towards their teacher is by accepting, without question, whatever she or he says. This act of acceptance was well-captured in the current study in the way teachers provided or told students what was right and wrong in their

utterances. The students accepted the information given by the teachers. Furthermore, in their study investigating the teachers' roles in an Indonesian secondary school context, Rindu and Ariyanti (2017) provided an example of the central role of the teacher. In their study, twenty-two students were given a questionnaire about what their teacher did and how the teacher managed the class. From the students' perspectives, the teacher performed various roles including controlling the class, assessing student works, motivating students, participating in class activities and providing students with information during teaching and learning. Observations of the teacher in action illustrated how she enacted these roles. These findings echoed Harmer's (2015) ideas about the teacher's role in a traditional classroom where "[teachers] are in charge of the class and of the activity taking place and are often 'leading from the front" (p.108).

In the context of EFL, the dominance of the teacher's role is not surprising because historically EFL curriculum and teaching approaches have been strongly influenced by the principles of behaviourism where the teacher assumes a central and influential role (Lie, 2007). In EFL contexts there has been a widespread use of Grammar-Translation methods which emphasise the decoding of complex grammatical structures, the translation of English words and sentences to the first language or vice versa, and the Audiolingual method which focuses on listening, repeating and memorising dialogues in English (Rilling, 2018). Such traditional methods place a strong emphasis on the pivotal role of the teacher – she or he is responsible for students' learning hence it is her/his role to make sure students follow their instructions and act on corrective feedback in order to achieve the desired learning goal. When both teachers and students view their roles in such a way, it will create a dependency by students on their teachers for information about their progress and learning.

In the current study, students were observed as passive recipients of information who carried out their teachers' directives, that is, to modify their speech in the light of their teacher's feedback. This passive role of students seemingly misaligned with the characteristics of the K-13 where students are supposed to be active participants in the process of teaching and learning, including feedback. However, as noted above, the cultural values within Indonesian society can account for students' passiveness in the feedback process. Lengkanawati's (2004) study comparing Indonesian and Australian students highlighted a possible reason for the passive conduct of Indonesian students. Lengkanawati argued that in Australia students are encouraged to engage in intellectually stimulating discussion both within the family and the classroom while in Indonesia students are accustomed to obeying what their parents and teachers say as such behaviour shows politeness and respect. While

following what the teacher says represents students' obedience in an effort of doing the right thing, it can result overtime in an inability on the behalf of students to take ownership of their learning. As apparent in the current study, students did not seem to be able to evaluate the correctness of their speech or utterances, as they were too dependent on their teacher's judgement. It may be because teacher feedback does not result in student understanding about the nature of their errors and/or indeed of their correct utterances. Moreover, students' perceptions of teachers as experts may have led them to think their teachers are a credible source of valid feedback (Harris et al., 2014) and in time this may cause "a lack of trust in [their] own judgements and [their] own goals" (Hargreaves, 2012, p. 9).

As passive recipients of feedback, students are constantly being told by the teacher about the correctness of their speech and/or answer, and this can have an impact on their emotions. It has been reported that students experience a range of emotions (positive and negative) when given feedback by their teachers - they feel happy, content, proud, sad, angry and ashamed (Ryan & Henderson, 2018). More specifically, students show positive emotions when they receive feedback in the form of new information and praise (Mahfoodh, 2017), but are frustrated when the teacher corrects their oral mistakes. In terms of the latter they are often embarrassed because they know the teacher will correct the mistakes in front of other students in the class (Zrair, 2019). Such feelings were also reported in the present study by the Grade 11 students across the three schools - they felt alternately pleased, embarrassed, upset and discouraged by their teacher's feedback. Positive feelings emerged particularly when they received feedback which they perceived as good, motivating, provided new knowledge and added to students' new understanding, while the negative feelings appeared as a consequence of the ways in which feedback was conveyed. For instance, students felt embarrassed when the teacher told them they were wrong in front of the class. Here they felt upset because the teacher told them they had made mistakes, and they felt discouraged because the teacher provided feedback in what they perceived as an unfriendly manner.

Overall, students in the current study expressed more negative feelings than the positive in relation to their teachers' feedback. This is not surprising considering that the role distribution placed an emphasis on teachers telling students of their mistakes. Consequently, "the asymmetrical power relations inherent in the [feedback] process risk[s] invoking negative emotions" (Carless, 2006, p. 229) which in turn affects students' confidence and motivation. It can be a barrier for students to understand, act on and learn from feedback.

Feedback for Improvement: A Contemporary Approach

The Significance of Feedback Dialogue for Improvement

While the purpose of feedback in the traditional approach is to improve student learning, there is an argument that suggests the ways in which the traditional feedback process is enacted is insufficient to affect student improvement (Sadler, 2010). Critique of the traditional approach includes the transmissive and monologic nature of feedback interactions (Boud & Molloy, 2013) which makes it impossible to know if "the feedback provided is meaningfully received and then interpreted by a learner to some effect or not" (Hattie & Gan, 2011, p. 257). Noting this, it is important for teachers to ensure students understand feedback in order for them to act on it. Therefore, it is necessary for the feedback process to shift from a traditional approach to a more contemporary one (Carless et al., 2011; Hounsell, 2007; Molloy & Boud, 2012). A contemporary approach adopts a socio-constructivist perspective which focuses on the role of the students in making sense of and acting on feedback information to enhance their learning (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Carless & Boud, 2018). It places emphasis on students as active agents who are able to generate internal feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018; Hounsell, 2007) and promotes the use of dialogue to develop shared and individual interpretations of the information (O'Donovan et al., 2016).

The contemporary approach highlights the significance of dialogue as a way to enhance student understanding of the gap between student's current and expected performance (Dann, 2015) and to account for student emotions (Ajjawi & Boud, 2018). It stresses the importance of students' understanding of the feedback in order for them to move forward and self-regulate their learning so that they can be independent learners. In the current study, the occurrence of dialogic feedback was scant. This was anticipated considering the strong influence of the traditional approach to feedback in EFL classrooms not only in Indonesia but also globally. For instance, Vattøy and Gamlem (2020) investigated teacher and student interactions and feedback in the context of Norwegian EFL classrooms. Observing nine experienced lower secondary teachers' practices, the authors found that teachers' feedback was predominantly at the self and task level which aimed to correct mistakes and control students' work. Only one teacher in their study occasionally engaged students in a dialogic exchange and supported active participation. Besides, in a general educational context, there is also an evidence that dialogic feedback rarely occurs in the classroom. Gamlem and Smith (2013) investigated secondary student perceptions of feedback using the feedback typology developed by Tunstall and Gipps (1996). Their study found that feedback type D, which is dialogic in nature, was rarely used in class. However, on the few occasions where it was used,

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this type of feedback enhances learning in the way that students "have instant, ongoing access to their thoughts, actions and work" (Gamlem & Smith, 2013, p. 165). Similar findings were also found in the work of Kerr (2017) where she explored four secondary students' perceptions of oral feedback. Using data from classroom observations and students' learning diaries, she found students indicated that oral feedback that was dialogic helped them in developing understandings.

While the view of a traditional approach was dominant throughout the present study, findings from student interviews in particular provided important insights related to students' expectations that the feedback process would or could move beyond correcting and praising. For example, students mentioned teachers should not only point out mistakes and made corrections but it was important that students understand why the mistakes occurred and was unacceptable so in the future they could fix those mistakes themselves. They preferred getting more information about how they could improve rather than mere praise because it did not contain information related to their progress. Students also articulated their willingness to have an opportunity to discuss the feedback with their teacher so they could have a better understanding of their mistakes and improve their English speaking skills. These expectations could mean students recognise potential benefits of a two-way feedback as not only would it allow them to extend understandings and reflect on their performance, it also creates a supportive learning environment. In a study exploring students' perceptions of teachers' two-way or diaogic feedback, Tan et al. (2019) found students perceived this feedback as beneficial. In the study, thirty-two Year 9 students from six independent schools in Perth, Western Australia were interviewed. Students reported positive experiences of dialogic feedback in the way that it encourages students' critical and reflective thinking as well as making them feel empowered and more capable of regulating their learning.

As noted by Yang and Carless (2013), effective feedback that aims to improve students' learning should promote three key dimensions: cognitive, social-affective and structural. A dynamic interplay between the three dimensions is possible through the use of dialogic feedback (Ajjawi & Boud, 2018). Dialogic feedback activates cognitive processes, triggering the teacher and students to ask questions, elaborate ideas, promote critical evaluation and engage beyond the task. Ajjawi and Boud (2018) argue that question asking is an important part of dialogue as it has the capability to move students "beyond the immediate task to a more self-regulatory frame" (p. 10). In other words, question asking mediates students' thinking and reflection of their work/performance. Indeed, there were some instances in the current study where one of the teachers, Ms. Hasibuan, prompted students with

questions when a mistake had occurred in her students' utterances. These questions had the potential to allow students to engage in a cognitive processing activity which in turn could lead them to evaluate and modify their answers. However, there was also an instance where a student asked a question regarding her teacher's (Ms. Catherine) feedback on her pronunciation, yet she was observed not responding to the student's question, leaving the student confused about the incorrectness of her speech. Had Ms. Catherine responded to the question, she would have created an opportunity to negotiate meaning with her student hence allowing the student to extend her understanding. As Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) has noted language learning should be seen as a social process which put a significant emphasis on negotiation of meaning – an act that can be achieved through a series of dialogues between the teacher and the student. An exchange of ideas through dialogue has the power to "encourage and guide the learner to participate in activity and to assume increased responsibility for arriving at the appropriate performance" (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 469). Perhaps, a possible explanation for the absence of this negotiation between Ms. Catherine and her student is because she doubted her own pronunciation while secretly acknowledging that the student's pronunciation was correct. However, she did not concede it publicly as she wanted to prevent a loss of face in front of her students. In Indonesia, EFL teachers who do not speak English fluently are commonly found with several studies have pointed out EFL teachers' lack of English language competence such as grammar, pronunciation, reading, speaking, writing and listening skills (Lengkanawati, 2005; Lie et al., 2019). However, as the perceived expert in the classroom, teachers avoid showing their weaknesses and admitting their mistakes.

The concept of dialogic feedback is not a new idea in the context of EFL, but it is not until recently that feedback as dialogue has received serious attention. However, the majority of work in this area comes from the context of written feedback on student writing (e.g. Lee, 2016; Lee, Mak, & Burns, 2015, 2016) with few studies from the area of oral feedback on student oral language. This lack of attention is surprising in that ideally in speaking or oral language lessons, students have greater opportunities to be involved in a dialogue with their teacher during the feedback process. For example, when the feedback addresses the incorrect use of a certain grammatical feature or pronunciation of a word, students can immediately seek an explanation or ask a question regarding the feedback. In this way, the teacher and students can engage in a two-way conversation. Engaging in such conversation is paramount as it will deepen students' understanding of the nature of their mistakes and help them plan a new strategy to avoid similar mistakes in the future. Aljaafreh and Lantolf's (1994) study exploring the nature of feedback as dialogue has revealed that any type of corrective feedback can be effective if it is mediated through a dialogue between the teacher and the student. This finding

seems to refute one of the prominent ideas in the EFL literature that explicit corrective feedback is more effective than the others. Here the notion of ZPD is brought to the fore as within this framework a dichotomy of explicit and implicit feedback does not exist (Ortega, 2013). In other words, what matters in oral feedback is not so much the explicitness or implicitness, but it is how to carry out feedback as a meaningful dialogue so student can achieve understanding. The role of language thus becomes an indispensable component in feedback dialogue. As argued by Tunstall and Gipps (1996), language plays an important role in describing student's competence and achievement as well as articulating the way forward that provides students with more responsibilities.

As found in the current study, students expressed predominantly negative emotional response to their teacher's oral feedback. There are two possible explanations for such emotions. Firstly, teachers' corrective feedback occurred in public situations causing students to worry about how they were perceived by others. For some, being corrected was seen as a sign of weakness and incompetence (Papi et al., 2019). This in turn can cause students to shut down as they are afraid of being wrong (Hawe & Dixon, 2017) and as a result they are less likely to learn from the feedback (Poulos & Mahony, 2008b). Secondly, teacher feedback is often ambiguous and lacks consistency, and negative emotions appear because of students' inability to understand the teacher's feedback (Martínez, 2014). To this end, dialogue in the feedback process is important to clarify students' understandings. However, the potential of dialogic feedback to develop and eventually support learning depends on the trust between the teacher and students (Carless, 2013; Price, Handley, & Millar, 2011). As dialogic feedback can risk students exposing themselves, showing vulnerability and revealing misunderstandings (Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017), students need reassurance that mistakes and misunderstandings are acceptable. The notion of trust is paramount in building supportive classroom atmosphere. When mutual trust with teachers has been developed, students are likely to feel less anxious to communicate problems with their learning (Plank et al., 2014).

It has been argued that students' emotions are a key factor which affects their ability to regulate their learning (Evans, 2013). The feedback process indeed often solicits strong emotional reactions and it is the relationship between the teacher and students that influences how feedback is perceived emotionally. As discussed elsewhere, positive feedback generates positive emotional responses but negative feedback might cause anxiety and other negative emotions to students. This is when the social-affective dimension of feedback comes into play. This dimension is concerned with "how feedback implies messages about students' social role in the learning environment, and how students' emotions are engaged as they undertake

learning and assessment tasks" (Yang & Carless, 2013, p. 289). If feedback is to mitigate students' negative emotional responses, it has to be tactful which is why the contemporary approach underscores the importance of collaboration between the teacher and students by giving the latter an increased role, hence reducing the power imbalance in the feedback process. The teacher and students need to interact more and engage in a collaboration which looks like a partnership in order to achieve mutual understanding. Such collaboration opens up an opportunity to establish rapport (Carless, 2013; Tan et al., 2019). It also creates a room for teachers to show empathy and respect which consequently results in establishing a trust relationship with the students, the one where teacher and students can share interpretations, negotiate meaning and clarify expectations (Carless, 2013). Ways in which this collaboration can be advanced include allowing students to communicate the types, the modes and timing of feedback they prefer, request feedback on issues they consider important and valuable, negotiating around the affective dimension of the feedback and discuss how the benefits of feedback can be amplified (Carless, 2020).

Chapter Summary

The traditional approach to feedback that places emphasis on improving students' oral language knowledge and skills through correcting mistakes and giving praise seems to be a common practice in English language learning. While theoretical background underpinning this approach has been well-established in the literature, such traditional approach undeniably results in the dependency of students on the teacher. As the perceived experts, teachers are responsible for student learning in the way that they feed students with all the information about their progress and learning. However, in the long run, this is not enough to assist improvement and there is a potential threat on students' emotions. A contemporary approach where teacher and students have a more distributed role is needed in order to sustain the impact of feedback. The utilisation of dialogic feedback has been demonstrated to be advantageous for students in shaping their learning and nurturing their psychological state. The collaborative or partnership scheme of this approach has placed teacher and students in a trusting relationship which then creates a supportive learning environment.

The Next Chapter

The final chapter outlines conclusions, implications and contributions of the current study as well as addressing future possible research directions.

Chapter Eight: Conclusions, Implications, Contributions and Future Directions

This study investigated how oral feedback was used to support and engage students when learning English as a foreign language. The research questions proposed in the current study were:

1. What beliefs do teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback?
2. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the teacher in the oral feedback process?
3. How do teachers and students perceive the role of the students in the oral feedback process?
4. What types of oral feedback are evident in the teaching and learning process?
5. How do students respond to oral feedback?

In addition to presenting conclusions in relation to each research question, this chapter highlights the implications for teachers and addresses the contribution of the current study to the field. Future research directions are then proposed and a final remark presented.

Conclusions

The findings from the current study have provided an in-depth picture of teachers' and students' beliefs and practices of oral feedback in the EFL context. The following conclusions have been made in relation to the each of the five research questions:

In relation to the first question, Participants believed the primary purpose of oral feedback was to improve students' English speaking ability. Teachers viewed improvement as best achieved by telling students of and correcting their mistakes as well as giving them praise. However, while students appreciated and acknowledged that error corrections and praise could result in an improvement in their speaking skills and confidence, they wanted to understand why their utterances were incorrect and how they could avoid making the same mistake.

The second and third questions addressed the role of the teacher and students, respectively, in the feedback process. It can be concluded that both sets of participants had a traditional view regarding the role of the teacher in the oral feedback process. They perceived teachers as the experts who told students what needed correction. Students were perceived by both parties as novices whose role was to listen to and carry out their teacher's directives. As

such, students were assigned a passive rather than active role in the feedback process. Placing students in a passive role is at odds with the characteristics of the K-13 where a stated aim is to develop active learners. Significantly, it can also be concluded that there were glimpses of students wanting the opportunity to become more active participants as illustrated by their expressed desire for engagement in a more dialogic form of feedback.

The fourth question considered the types of oral feedback evident in the observed lesson. It was found that teachers used a limited range of oral feedback types, most of which operated at the task level. There was little to no evidence of feedback used to develop students' understanding and self-regulation knowledge and skills. Consequently, it can be concluded that students had few opportunities through the feedback process to take responsibility for their learning, to develop understanding and skills of self-monitoring and self-regulation of their learning.

The final question was concerned with the ways in which students responded to oral feedback. Students showed a range of responses to their teacher's oral feedback. It can be concluded that these responses were very much dependent on the types of feedback their teachers used and the way in which the teacher delivered the information. For example, students echoed or repeated what their teacher had said when the feedback was direct and they attempted to modify their utterances when the teacher prompted an occurrence of errors.

Collectively, the findings and conclusions indicate that the teachers in the current study were relatively impoverished in terms of their feedback literacy. Carless and Winstone (2020) define teacher feedback literacy as "the knowledge, expertise and dispositions to design feedback processes in ways which enable student uptake of feedback and seed the development of student feedback literacy" (p. 4). They further note that teacher feedback literacy is related to teachers' capability to design environments facilitative to effective feedback process, show relational sensitivities and manage practicalities in the feedback process. Teachers who are feedback literate will be able to create a supportive learning environment for students, which allows for a co-construction of knowledge and understanding as an aspect of an effective feedback process, and enable students to become self-monitoring and self-regulating. They will be sensitive in the way they share the feedback and treat students as partners in the feedback process. In addition, they will be able to use technology to make feedback process more timely, convenient and practical. Specifically, feedback literate teachers will take the responsibility for offering students a range of opportunities that in turn will develop feedback literacy. In doing so, teachers will be committed to developing students' understanding of the goals of learning and the associated standards of desired performance in

an ongoing and substantive manner (Sadler, 1989). Further, teachers must be both willing and able to promote the active engagement of students in the processes of learning and feedback through the use of modes of feedback that develop students' understanding and fosters student self-monitoring and self-regulation (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). In regard to the teachers in the current study arguably they need more time to develop their own feedback literacy and their students' feedback literacy.

Student feedback literacy is defined as "understandings, capacities and dispositions needed to make sense of information and use it to enhance work or learning strategies" (Carless & Boud, 2018, p. 1316). Carless and Boud (2018) highlight four features of student feedback literacy: appreciating feedback, making judgements, managing affect and taking action. In appreciating feedback, students understand their role as active learners in the feedback process, and they welcome feedback as a way to help them improve. Students in the current study seemed to show glimpses of feedback literacy as they showed appreciation of their teacher feedback. Furthermore, they expressed willingness to engage in a dialogue with their teachers about the teacher's oral feedback which means they started to recognise their role as active agents in the feedback process. This is heartening given that many studies have shown students often underplay their role in the feedback process (Carless & Boud, 2018). Feedback literate students are also able to develop capacities to make judgements about their own performance and others' performance. Developing these capacities helps promote students' agency and self-regulatory behaviour (Dixon et al., 2011a). Seemingly, students in this study were developing a recognition that if they were to take an active role in generating feedback, they needed to have the pre-requisite knowledge to be able to make judgements about the quality of their oral productions. Unfortunately, they did not have such knowledge, as their teacher's feedback seemed to shut down access to it. In terms of managing affect, students are able to maintain their emotional stability and avoid being defensive especially when receiving critical feedback. While students in the current study expressed a range of emotions, these were not shown during the feedback interactions. Feedback literate students also have an ability to develop a range of strategies for acting on feedback. Students in the current study wanted the feedback that moved beyond correction or praise as such feedback would assist their understanding and help to make sense of information in order to take action. Unfortunately, while students seemed willing to develop their feedback literacy, teachers' actions seemed to impede this development.

Implications

If teachers persist in their traditional and 'comfortable' role as the providers of information to students who correct mistakes without explanation, students will not have the opportunity to become self-regulating. Therefore, teachers need to have opportunities to reflect on and recognise areas for improvement in their current practice. There is an urgency for teachers to develop feedback literacy. As teacher feedback literacy and student feedback literacy are inter-related and inter-dependent (Carless & Winstone, 2020), teachers need to recognise the importance of involving students as partners in the co-construction of meaning and understanding during the feedback process.

Indeed changing teachers' beliefs and shifting their practice will take time. It is particularly challenging as beliefs generally "do not change even when it is logical or necessary for them to do so" (Pajares, 1992, p. 317) and they are particularly resistant to change during adulthood. However, a change is possible when the newly acquired beliefs proved effective (Pajares, 1992). For example, it has been found that teachers are willing to examine and change their beliefs after they are shown how to use a procedure and they find it successful in improving student achievement (Guskey, 1986, as cited in Pajares, 1992). As teachers' beliefs change, a change in their teaching practice follows.

One of the ways in which teachers can change their beliefs and practice over time and become feedback literate is through professional learning opportunities which emphasise the pivotal role of oral feedback during the classroom interaction process. In Indonesia especially, teachers are given a range of opportunities for professional learning which aim to improve teacher quality and create effective teachers. These programs, however, focus heavily on the importance of improving teacher content knowledge (Harjanto et al., 2018; Rahman et al., 2015) but are lacking focus in terms of developing teachers' feedback literacy and improving feedback practice. Therefore, the government, educational policy makers and schools need to consider introducing a professional learning program which specifically design to raise teachers' awareness about their beliefs about feedback and to develop teachers' feedback literacy and as a corollary develop students as self-regulating learners. Over time, teachers are expected to change their feedback practice.

Contributions

As mentioned in Chapter Three, there is a limited number of studies investigating the use of oral feedback within the context of oral language learning. Within the context of EFL in general, the focus of investigations has been on determining the most effective types of oral

feedback, exploring teachers' and students' beliefs about corrective feedback and/or investigating a mismatch between beliefs and practice of feedback. This study, however, has addressed a gap in the literature – it has included the authentic lived experiences of the participants, in particular student voices. The current study sheds new light on our understanding of the oral feedback phenomenon in the context of EFL by providing a robust description and interpretation of teachers' and students' beliefs and practice of oral feedback in the context of the classroom.

As mentioned in Chapter One, in Indonesia, oral feedback studies in the context of senior high school have only examined feedback from teachers' perspectives. The current study is one of the first studies in Indonesia to consider feedback from both teachers' and students' perspectives. Therefore, its contribution to the EFL feedback literature is two-fold. Firstly, it highlights the underdeveloped nature of teacher feedback literacy. Secondly, it highlights students' willingness to move from passive to active participants in the processes of learning and feedback.

Future Research Directions

The current study proposes three possible areas for future research. Firstly, considering the small number of participants in the recent study, it would be interesting if future research could extend it to a larger scale to capture a more comprehensive representation of teachers' and students' beliefs and practices of oral feedback. Secondly, as this study has shown that students have begun to develop feedback literacy, an in-depth study of how students perceive oral feedback would be a valuable area to further. Thirdly, future studies could address teachers' narratives of their professional learning experiences related to feedback. Such studies would provide insights into teachers' views of professional learning programs and the ways in which teachers' feedback literacy can be developed.

A Final Remark

Whilst this case study cannot be generalised to a wider population, there are some important messages to consider related to EFL teaching and learning within the Indonesian context. The present study has demonstrated how a traditional approach to feedback has been a normal and thus an expected practice of EFL teachers. As such, teachers' beliefs and practices have highlighted several significant issues. If teachers' traditional beliefs and current practices of feedback continues, students will be hampered in their desire to take a more active role in their learning. There is now a need to pay attention to students' voices and their desire to

become active participants in their learning. Arguably, if teachers are to capitalise on students'
desire to become active participants in learning and feedback a more contemporary view of
feedback must be enacted. However if teachers and students are to successfully engage in this
way both parties must develop their feedback literacy. Hence the development of teachers'
feedback literacy knowledge and skills is a challenge that must be addressed if students are
going to be afforded to opportunities to become feedback literate, which in turn will enable
them to move from a state of passive participation to active agents of their own learning.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Permission to access school

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
Phone: +64 9 623 8899

Requesting permission to access school

Auckland, [Date]

The Principal of Senior High School [..]

[Address]

Indonesia

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Junita Duwi Purwandari. I am a Doctoral student at the School of Learning Development and Professional Practice, Faculty of Education and Social Work in the University of Auckland, New Zealand. Through this letter, I would like to request your permission to conduct my research in your school.

My research will be looking at teachers' oral feedback in English language learning. The research outcome is expected to enrich our understanding about oral feedback in terms of supporting and engaging students when learning English.

For this study, I will need to recruit as participants, one Grade 11 teacher and her/his students. My data collection methods will include the following: interviews with the teacher and students, classroom observations, and collection of documents (e.g. lesson plan, syllabi, and curriculum guideline). Interviews will involve audio recording and classroom observations will involve video recording of oral feedback occurrences during classroom interactions.

If you are interested in supporting this research, please read the attached information sheet and either reply this letter or contact me via email jpur215.aucklanduni.ac.nz.

Thank you for your consideration of my request.

Sincerely,

Junita Duwi Purwandari

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on ….. for three years. Reference Number 020509.

Appendix B: Principal Information Sheet

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
Phone: +64 9 623 8899

PRINCIPAL INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: Oral feedback in English language learning: Teachers' and students' beliefs and practices

Name of researcher : Junita Duwi Purwandari

Name of Supervisors: Associate Professor Helen Dixon
Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe

Researcher Introduction
My name is Junita Duwi Purwandari. I am a Doctoral student at the School of Learning Development and Professional Practice, Faculty of Education and Social Work in The University of Auckland, New Zealand. My supervisors are Associate Professor Helen Dixon and Dr Eleanor Hawe.

This Project
Rationale

The reason that I am doing this research is to investigate the ways in which oral feedback supports and engages students in English language learning particularly during oral language activity (e.g. speaking) and to understand teachers' and students' beliefs and practices regarding oral feedback in English language classrooms.

Aims

This research aims to explore the beliefs that teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback. This will include an investigation of how teachers and students engage in oral feedback, what types of feedback are used, how students respond to oral feedback, and how teachers and students perceive each other's role in the feedback process.

Duration

The participants will participate in the project for approximately 2 months

Benefits

This research could reveal interesting results, which will add to our understandings of oral feedback from the perspectives of teachers and students and how it can be used to support and engage students when learning English, particularly in the context of Senior High Schools in Indonesia where a study such as this is rare.

Risks

While I expect there to be no risks to participation, I understand that participating in this project might cause anxiety. Therefore, I will assure the participants that I will not judge their teaching/learning performance, personality, or their English language proficiency in any way.

Invitation to Participate

Your school is invited to participate in this research project because your school is a public school with accreditation A and is located in the Eastern region of Jakarta.

Permission to access site and recruit participants

I seek your permission to conduct the research in your school and to invite Grade 11 English teachers to participate. I am seeking to recruit one teacher so if I have more volunteers than needed, I will make a random selection and thank those who are not selected. I will need students in the teacher's class to be involved in the observation phase of the research. Although it would be better if all students participate in the observation phase of the research, the number of students to be involved is not significantly crucial given the focus is the feedback interactions. I will also seek 6 of these students to volunteer in two semi structured interviews. If I have more volunteers than needed, with the help from the teacher I will select the students who are 1) articulate in both Bahasa Indonesia and English; and 2) confident to speak with me who is a stranger. Those who are not selected will be thanked for their interest in this research. I will ask for your help to distribute a Participant Information Sheet to Grade 11 English teachers. In appreciation of their participation, I will give the teacher a shopping voucher worth IDR 150,000 and the students a New Zealand postcard.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may decline this invitation to participate without penalty. If you choose to participate, this voluntary condition also applies to your teachers and students. Therefore, I am seeking your assurance that the teachers' decision to participate or not in this research will not affect their standing in the school or tenure. In addition, I would seek your assurance that students' decision to participate or not in this study will not affect their grades in any way.

Project Procedures

Data collection in this research will include the following:

- Semi-structured interviews with the teacher and six of her/his students. With the teacher, the semi-structured interviews will be conducted twice: before the first classroom observation (45-60 minutes) and after the last classroom observation (60-90 minutes). The interviews with students will also be conducted twice: before the first classroom observation and midway through the observation, each will last for about 30-45 minutes. These interviews will be audio-recorded and transcribed by myself. During the interviews, the participants may refuse to answer any questions or choose to have the recorder turned off at any time. Participants will have the right to go through their individual interview transcripts for their verification/amendment. Once the transcript is emailed to the participants, they have two weeks to return any changes they wish to make.

- Classroom observations which will be conducted five times. During the observations, notes of the classroom setting, context, and teacher instructions will be recorded. The observations will involve video recording of the teacher and students oral feedback interactions. In other words, I will not record the entire lesson. These video recordings will be taken and transcribed by myself. Students' participation in classroom observations will be identified using a colour card system. All students will be given a card with different colours. Students with the same colour cards will have to sit in the

same group/row. One colour will be used to identify those who do not wish to be observed and video recorded.

- Documents such as curriculum guidelines, syllabi, and lesson plans will be collected from the teacher.

Data storage, Retention, Destruction and Future Use

<u>Data storage</u>

Softcopies of all data from interviews, classroom observations, and collection of documents will be stored in a password protected computer and an online storage system (Dropbox). Hard copies will be stored securely in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office at the Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Auckland. Consent form will be stored in a locked cabinet in the main supervisor's office at Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Auckland.

<u>Data Retention</u>

All written and digital data will be retained for a maximum of six years.

<u>Data Destruction</u>

After six years, digital data will be permanently erased from the computer and Dropbox and hard copies will be shredded.

<u>Data Future Use</u>

Data will be used for my Doctoral thesis and may also be used for journal publications and conference presentations.

Right to Withdraw from Participation

Participants have the right to withdraw from the research at any time without giving a reason.

Right to Withdraw Data from Research

Participants are entitled to withdraw interview data they have provided up until the time of analysis (approximately by January 2019). Classroom observation data, however, cannot be withdrawn since it contains data from other participants.

Anonymity and confidentiality

Possibly other staff members and students at the school will know of the school's participation in the research, which is why ensuring anonymity is not possible. However, your school participation in this research will be kept confidential. The information I obtained from the school will be reported and published without identifying the school, the teacher, and the students. Instead, pseudonyms will be used.

If you agree to grant me access to your school to conduct this research, please sign and return the accompanying consent form.

Contact Details and Approval

Education Authorities of DKI Jakarta	School of Learning Development and Professional Practice Faculty of Education and Social Work The University of Auckland		
Local contact	**Researcher**	**Supervisors**	**Academic Head**
Chendy disdikjkt@gmail.com pusdatikomdik@jakarta.go.id	Junita Duwi Purwandari jpur215@aucklanduni.ac.nz	Associate Professor Helen Dixon h.dixon@aukland.ac.nz +64 9 373 7999 ext 48547 Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz +64 9 373 7999 ext 48733	Dr Richard J Hamilton rj.hamilton@auckland.ac.nz +64 9 923 5619

For queries regarding ethical concerns, you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Aucklasn, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone +62 9 373 7599 ext. 83711.
Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on December 14, 2017 for three years. Reference Number 020509

Appendix C: Principal Consent Form

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
Phone: +64 9 623 8899

CONSENT FORM

(PRINCIPAL)

THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project title: Oral feedback in English language learning: Teachers' and students' beliefs and practices

Name of researcher	:	Junita Duwi Purwandari
Email address	:	jpur215@aucklanduni.ac.nz
Supervisor details	:	Associate Professor Helen Dixon
		h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz
		Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe
		e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

I have read the Principal Information Sheet, and I have understood the nature of the research and why my school has been chosen. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- ☐ I agree to give permission to access the school to recruit participants.
- ☐ I understand participation is voluntary.
- ☐ I give my assurance that the teacher's standing in the school and the students' grades will not be affected by their agreement or refusal to participate.
- ☐ I understand that participants will participate in this research for the duration of two months.
- ☐ I understand that all interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed and participants may choose to have the recorder turned off at any time during the interviews.
- ☐ I understand that classroom observations will be video recorded and transcribed.
- ☐ I understand that participants are free to withdraw participation at any time without giving a reason, and to withdraw interview data that have been provided up until the time of analysis.
- ☐ I understand that classroom observations data cannot be withdrawn.
- ☐ I understand that if the information is published, pseudonyms will be used to protect the school identity, the teacher's identity, and the students' identities.
- ☐ I understand that all written and digital data will be retained for a maximum period of six years and after that the data will be destroyed. Hard copies of data will be shredded and digital data will be erased from the computer and Dropbox.

Name: _____   Signature: _____
Date: _____

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on…….. for three years. Reference Number 020509

Appendix D: Participant Information Sheet (Teacher)

THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND
Te Whare Wānanga o Tāmaki Makaurau
NEW ZEALAND

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WORK
SCHOOL OF LEARNING DEVELOPMENT AND PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
Phone: +64 9 623 8899

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

(TEACHER)

Project Title: Oral feedback in English language learning: Teachers' and students' beliefs and practices

Name of researcher : Junita Duwi Purwandari

Name of Supervisors: Associate Professor Helen Dixon
Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe

Researcher Introduction

My name is Junita Duwi Purwandari. I am a Doctoral student at the School of Learning Development and Professional Practice, Faculty of Education and Social Work in The University of Auckland, New Zealand. My supervisors are Associate Professor Helen Dixon and Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe.

This Project
Rationale

The reason that I am doing this research is to investigate the ways in which oral feedback supports and engages students in English language learning particularly during oral language activity (e.g. speaking) and to understand teachers' and students' beliefs and practices regarding oral feedback in English language classrooms.

Aims

This research aims to explore the beliefs that teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback. This will include an investigation of how teachers and students engage in oral feedback, what types of feedback are used, how students respond to oral feedback, and how teachers and students perceive each other's role in the feedback process.

Duration

You will participate in the project for approximately 2 months.

Benefits

This research could reveal interesting results which will add to our understandings of oral feedback from the perspectives of teachers and students and how it can be used to support and engage students when learning English, particularly in the context of Senior High School in Indonesia where a study such as this is rare.

Risks

While I expect there to be no risks to your participation, I understand that participating in this project might cause anxiety. Therefore, I assure you that I will not judge your teaching performance, personality, or your English language proficiency in any way.

Invitation to Participate

You are invited to participate in this research project because you are an English teacher of Grade 11. I am recruiting one teacher, so if more than one teacher volunteers I will make a random selection. If you are selected to be a participant, I will ask for your help to distribute a Participant Information Sheet to your students. Although it would be better if all students participate in the observation phase of the research, the number of students to be involved is not significantly crucial given the focus is the feedback interactions. Also, I need six of these students to volunteer for individual semi structured interviews. If there are more than six volunteers, I will need your assistance to select students who are articulate in both Bahasa Indonesia and English and confident to speak with me who is a stranger. Students who are not selected will be thanked for their interest. In appreciation of your participation, you will be given a shopping voucher worth IDR 150,000.

Voluntary Participation

Your school principal has given assurance that your participation is voluntary and you may decline this invitation to participate without consequences. The principal has also assured that your standing in the school will not be affected by your agreement or refusal to participate.

Project Procedures

I wish to collect data through semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and the collection of documents. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to attend two semi-structured interviews – one before the first classroom observation and another one after the last classroom observation. The first interview will last for about 45-60 minutes and the second interview will last between 60-90 minutes since we will talk about some clips from the classroom observations. The interviews will be audio-recorded. During the interviews, you may choose to have the recorder turned off at any time or refuse to answer any question. The purpose of the first interview is to understand your beliefs about oral feedback and to understand how you perceive your roles and your students' roles within the feedback process. The second interview is more about understanding what you did in relation to oral feedback during the classroom interactions.

I will transcribe the interviews. You will have the right to go through the interview transcripts for verification/amendment. Once the transcript is emailed to you, you have two weeks to return any changes you wish to make.

I will observe in your classroom five times during which notes of the classroom setting, context and your instructions will be recorded. The observations will also involve video-recording of the oral feedback interactions with your students. In other words, I will not record the entire lesson. The video recordings will be transcribed by myself.

Students' participation in classroom observations will be identified through a coloured card system. All students will be given a different coloured card (e.g. blue, green, yellow, red, and white). Students with the same coloured card will sit together in the same group/row. One colour will be used to indicate which students do not wish to be observed/videoed.

In addition, I wish to collect documents such as curriculum guidelines, syllabi, and lesson plans from each of your lessons. You can either hand in or email the copy of these documents to me.

Data storage, Retention, Destruction and Future Use

Data storage

Softcopies of all data from interviews, classroom observations, and collection of documents will be stored in a password protected computer and an online storage system (Dropbox). Hard copies will be stored securely in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office at the Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Auckland.

Signed consent form will be kept in a locked cabinet in the main supervisor's office at the Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Auckland.

Data Retention

All written and digital data will be retained for a maximum of six years.

Data Destruction

After six years, digital data will be permanently erased from the computer and Dropbox and hard copies will be shredded.

Data Future Use

Data will be used for my Doctoral thesis and may also be used for journal publications and conference presentations.

Right to Withdraw from Participation

You have the right to withdraw from the research at any time without giving a reason.

Right to Withdraw Data from Research

You are entitled to withdraw interview data you have provided up until the time of analysis (approximately by January 2019). Classroom observation data, however, cannot be withdrawn since it contains data from other participants.

Anonymity and confidentiality

Possibly other staff members and students at the school will know of your participation in the research, which is why ensuring anonymity is not possible. However, your participation in this research will be kept confidential. The information you provide will be reported and published without identifying your identity, your school or your students' identities. Instead, pseudonyms will be used.

Assurance for your students' participation

I seek assurance from you that your students' decision to participate or not in this research will not affect their grades in any way.

If you are willing to participate and help approach your students to participate in this research, please sign and return the accompanying consent form. A summary of findings will be made available to you upon the completion of data analysis if requested.

Contact Details and Approval

Education Authorities of DKI Jakarta	School of Learning Development and Professional Practice Faculty of Education and Social Work The University of Auckland		
Local contact	**Researcher**	**Supervisors**	**Academic Head**
Chendy disdikjkt@gmail.com pusdatikomdik@jakarta.go.id	Junita Duwi Purwandari jpur215@aucklanduni.ac.nz	Associate Professor Helen Dixon h.dixon@aukland.ac.nz +64 9 373 7999 ext 48547 Dr Eleanor Hawe e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz +64 9 373 7999 ext 48733	Dr Richard J Hamilton rj.hamilton@auckland.ac.nz +64 9 923 5619

For queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone +62 9 373 7599 ext. 83711.
Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on December 14, 2017 for three years. Reference Number 020509

Appendix E: Teacher Consent Form

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
Phone: +64 9 623 8899

CONSENT FORM
(TEACHER)
THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project Title: Oral feedback in English language learning: Teachers' and students' beliefs and practices

Name of researcher	:	Junita Duwi Purwandari
Email address	:	jpur215@aucklanduni.ac.nz
Supervisor details	:	Associate Professor Helen Dixon
		h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz
		Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe
		e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, and I have understood the nature of the research and why I have been recruited. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand my participation is voluntary.
- I understand my standing in the school will not be affected by my agreement or refusal to participate.
- I understand that I will participate in this research for the duration of two months.
- I understand that all interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed and I may choose to have the recorder turned off at any time during the interviews.
- I understand that classroom observations will be video recorded and transcribed.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw participation at any time without giving a reason, and to withdraw interview data I have provided up until the time of analysis.
- I understand that classroom observations data cannot be withdrawn.
- I understand that if the information I provide is published, pseudonyms will be used to protect my identity, my school, and my students' identities.
- I understand that all written and digital data will be retained for a maximum period of six years and after that, the data will be destroyed. Hard copies of data will be shredded and digital data will be erased from the computer and Dropbox.
- I give my assurance that the students' decision to participate or not in this research will not affect their grades in any way.
- I wish to receive summary of findings, which can be emailed to me at this email address: _____

Name: _____   Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix F: Participant Information Sheet (Student)

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

(STUDENT)

Project Title: Oral feedback in English language learning: Teachers' and students' beliefs and practices

Name of researcher : Junita Duwi Purwandari

Name of Supervisors : Associate Professor Helen Dixon
Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe

Researcher Introduction

My name is Junita Duwi Purwandari. I am a Doctoral student at the School of Learning Development and Professional Practice, Faculty of Education and Social Work in The University of Auckland, New Zealand. My supervisors are Associate Professor Helen Dixon and Associate Professor Eleanor Hawe.

This Project

Rationale

The reason that I am doing this research is to investigate the ways in which oral feedback supports and engages students in English language learning particularly during oral language activity (e.g. speaking) and to understand teachers' and students' beliefs and practices regarding oral feedback in English language classrooms.

Aims

This research aims to explore the beliefs that teachers and students hold about the purpose and the nature of oral feedback. This will include an investigation of how teachers and students engage in oral feedback, what types of feedback are used, how students respond to oral feedback, and how teachers and students perceive each other's role in the feedback process.

Duration

You will participate in the project for approximately 2 months.

Benefits

This research could reveal interesting results, which will add to our understandings of oral feedback from the perspectives of teachers and students and how it can be used to support and engage students when learning English, particularly in the context of Senior High Schools in Indonesia where a study such as this is rare.

Risks

While I expect there to be no risks to your participation, I understand that participating in this project might cause anxiety. Therefore, I assure you that I will not judge your learning performance, personality, or your English language proficiency in any way.

Invitation to Participate

You are invited to participate in this research project because you are a student of Grade 11 and your English teacher is participating in this research. I am inviting all students (approximately 40 students) in

your class to participate in classroom observations, but I only need six volunteers for individual semi structured interviews. You can choose to participate in the classroom observations and interviews or just the observations. If there are more than six volunteers for the interviews, with your teacher's help, I will select based on a set of criteria. In appreciation of your participation, I will give you a New Zealand postcard.

Voluntary Participation

Your school Principal and your English teacher have given assurance that your participation is voluntary, and you may decline this invitation to participate without consequences. They also have given assurance that your grades will not be affected by your agreement or refusal to participate.

Project Procedures

For the interviews, you will be asked to attend two semi-structured interviews – one before the first classroom observation and another one midway through the classroom observations. Both interviews will last for about 30-45 minutes. The interviews will be audio-recorded. During the interviews, you may choose to have the recorder turned off at any time or refuse to answer questions. The purpose of the first interview is to understand your beliefs about oral feedback and to understand how you perceive your roles and your teacher's roles within the feedback process. The second interview is more about understanding what you did in relation to oral feedback during the classroom interactions.

I will transcribe both interviews. You will have the right to go through the interview transcripts for verification/amendment. Once the transcript is emailed to you, you have two weeks to return any changes you wish to make.

For the classroom observations, I will observe in your classroom five times during which notes of the classroom setting, context and teacher instructions will be recorded. The observations will involve video-recording of the oral feedback interactions with your teacher. In other words, I will not record the entire lesson. The video recordings will be transcribed by myself. Your participation in classroom observations will be identified using a coloured card system. All students will be given a card with different colours. Students with the same colour cards have to sit together in the same group/ row. One colour will be used to identify those who do not wish to be observed and video recorded so that I can focus on observing/videoing other groups/rows.

Data storage, Retention, Destruction and Future Use

Data storage

Softcopies of all data from interviews, classroom observations, and collection of documents and material that identifies you will be stored in a password protected computer and an online storage system (Dropbox). Hard copies will be stored securely in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office at the Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Auckland.

Signed consent form will be kept in a locked cabinet in the main supervisor's office at the Faculty of Education and Social Work, University of Auckland.

Data Retention

All written and digital data will be retained for a maximum of six years.

Data Destruction

After six years, digital data will be permanently erased from the computer and Dropbox and hard copies will be shredded.

Data Future Use

Data will be used for my Doctoral thesis and may also be used for journal publications and conference presentations.

Right to Withdraw from Participation

You have the right to withdraw from participation at any time without giving a reason.

Right to Withdraw Data from Research

You are entitled to withdraw data you have provided up until the time of analysis (approximately by January 2019). Classroom observation data, however, cannot be withdrawn since it contains data from other participants.

Anonymity and confidentiality

Possibly other staff members and students at the school will know of your participation in the research, which is why ensuring anonymity is not possible. However, your participation and information you provided in this research will be kept confidential. The information you provide will be reported and published without identifying your identity, your school or your teacher's identity. Instead, pseudonyms will be used.

If you are willing to participate in this research, please sign and return the accompanying consent form. A summary of findings will be made available to you upon the completion of data analysis if requested.

Contact Details and Approval

Education Authorities of DKI Jakarta	School of Learning Development and Professional Practice Faculty of Education and Social Work The University of Auckland		
Local contact	**Researcher**	**Supervisors**	**Academic Head**
Chendy disdikjkt@gmail.com pusdatikomdik@jakarta.go.id	Junita Duwi Purwandari jpur215@aucklanduni.ac.nz	Associate Professor Helen Dixon h.dixon@aukland.ac.nz +64 9 373 7999 ext 48547 Dr Eleanor Hawe e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz +64 9 373 7999 ext 48733	Dr Richard J Hamilton rj.hamilton@auckland. +64 9 923 5619

For queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Aucklasn, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone +62 9 373 7599 ext. 83711.
Email: ro-ethics@auckland.ac.nz

Approved by the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on December

14, 2017 for three years. Reference Number 020509

Appendix G: Student Consent Form

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom
Auckland 1023, New Zealand
Phone: +64 9 623 8899

CONSENT FORM

(STUDENT)

THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS

Project Title: Oral feedback in English language learning: Teachers' and students' beliefs and practices

Name of researcher	:	Junita Duwi Purwandari
Email address	:	jpur215@aucklanduni.ac.nz
Supervisor details	:	Associate Professor Helen Dixon
		h.dixon@auckland.ac.nz
		Dr Eleanor Hawe
		e.hawe@auckland.ac.nz

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, and I have understood the nature of the research and why I have been recruited. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- I agree / do not agree to take part in this research.
- I agree / do not agree to be observed and video recorded.
- I agree / do not agree to be interviewed.
- I understand my participation is voluntary.
- I understand my grades will not be affected by my agreement or refusal to participate.
- I understand that I will participate in this research for the duration of two months.
- I understand that all interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed and I may choose to not answer questions or to have the recorder turned off at any time during the interviews.
- I understand that classroom observation will be video recorded and transcribed.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time without giving a reason, and to withdraw interview data I have provided up until the time of analysis.
- I understand that classroom observations data cannot be withdrawn.
- I understand that if the information I provide is published, pseudonyms will be used to protect my identity, my school, and my teacher's identity.
- I understand that all written and digital data will be retained for a maximum period of six years and after that the data will be destroyed. Hard copies of data will be shredded and digital data will be erased from the computer and Dropbox.
- I wish to receive summary of findings, which can be emailed to me at this email address: _____

Name: _____   Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix H: Pre-Observation Interview Questions

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom

Auckland 1023, New Zealand

Phone: +64 9 623 8899

PRE-OBSERVATION INTERVIEWS: INTERVIEW AREAS AND INDICATIVE QUESTIONS

TEACHERS

Beliefs about and engagement in oral feedback

The focus of my research is oral feedback. What does the term oral feedback mean to you?

Tell me about the reasons why you give oral feedback.

Can you give me examples of the feedback you might give to your students? Which one(s) do you prefer?

In what ways does oral feedback support learning?

In what context do you give oral feedback to students (e.g. individually, whole class, groups, publicly, privately? Why do you do that?

What do you focus on when giving oral feedback? (e.g. errors, effort, pronunciation, etc) Why?

Let's say one of your students makes an error or mispronounced a word when speaking. What will you do? Will you immediately give feedback or will you wait until the student finish? Why?

What sorts of feedback do you think students like? Why?

What sorts of feedback do you think are helpful to students in their language learning? Why?

Students' response to oral feedback

How do you think students use the oral feedback you give them?

How do you describe students' reaction when they receive oral feedback? Why do you think they reacted that way?

Do they always respond to feedback that way or differently sometimes? Why?

Can you think of an example of other responses that you might receive as a result of your oral feedback to students?

Teachers' and students' role in the feedback process

Do you see yourself as the main source of feedback in the classroom? Why is that?

How can students help each other in their learning of English as a foreign language?

Have you noticed students giving feedback to each other? When does this occur?

What sort of feedback have you noticed students giving each other?

How do you encourage students to give feedback to each other?

What do you think the advantages of students giving feedback to each other?

Appendix I: Post-Observation Interview Questions

74 Epsom Avenue, Epsom

Auckland 1023, New Zealand

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POST-OBSERVATION INTERVIEWS

TEACHERS

The purpose of this interview is to better understand why teachers did the things during the observation period from their perspectives. The interview aimed at probing their intentions, pedagogical decisions and embedded beliefs. The exact questions cannot be pre-identified, but generally the questions will include:

I noticed that you often give feedback to (a group or an individual). Why?

During a lesson, you spent a lot of time on…. Can you tell me why?

Your focus when giving feedback was mostly on correcting (grammatical errors/pronunciation). Why was that?

At different time, you also gave positive feedback such as "Excellent" or "Very good". What was your intention?

Appendix J: Pre-Observation Interview (Student)

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PRE-OBSERVATION INTERVIEWS: INTERVIEW AREAS AND INDICATIVE QUESTIONS

STUDENTS

Beliefs about and engagement in oral feedback

If you could recall, what did your teacher do when you made mistakes and when you don't make mistakes in your speaking?

Can you think of the reasons why your teacher give you feedback?

Can you give me examples of the feedback that you've received?

How does oral feedback support your learning?

In what context does your teacher give you oral feedback? (e.g. individually, whole class, groups, publicly, privately). Why do you think your teacher does that? Which one do you prefer?

What does your teacher focus on when giving feedback? (e.g. errors, effort, pronunciation, etc) Why?

Let's say you make an error or mispronounced a word when speaking. What will your teacher do? Will she/he immediately give feedback or will she/he wait until you finish? Why?

What sorts of feedback do you like? Why?

What sorts of feedback do you think are helpful to you as a student learning English? Why?

Students' response to oral feedback

How do you use the oral feedback that you received?

How do you describe your reaction when you receive oral feedback? Why do you react that way?

Do you always respond to feedback that way or differently sometimes? Why?

Can you think of an example of other responses that you might give to your teacher as a result of your teacher's feedback?

Teachers' and students' role in the feedback process

Do you see your teacher as the main source of feedback in the classroom? Why is that?

Do you think other students can help you in regard to learning of English as a foreign language? In what ways?

Can you think of some times when you've given feedback to your friends or the other way around? What sort of feedback did you give/receive? Why that sort?

Have you noticed students giving feedback to each other?

Does your teacher encourage students to give feedback to each other? How does she/he do that?

What do you think the advantages of students giving feedback to each other?

Appendix K: Mid-Observation Interview

MIDPOINT OBSERVATION INTERVIEWS

STUDENTS

The purpose of the midpoint observation interviews is to gain better understandings of students' experiences of oral feedback. At this point, the exact questions cannot be preidentified, but typically the questions will include:

I noticed that your teacher gave some positive feedback to you. How did you feel?

I noticed that your teacher gave you some feedback on your (e.g. pronunciation, grammatical errors). How did that help you?

Tell me how you felt when you got this feedback.

What have you done with the feedback?

There were times when you gave some feedback to your classmates. Why did you do that?

How did your classmates respond to your feedback? Why do you think they responded that way?

I also noticed that you were receiving feedback from your classmates. For example…. How did you feel?

Appendix L: Field Notes

14 Aug 2018

Observation 1   (Ms. Catherine's Class)

Topic :   Retelling folklore   (06:45 - 08:15)

- Students are to present the story using their own words

  [expected : feedback to Individual or whole class after each presentation

- T asks Ss to read a story of their preference and ask them to retell the story after they finish. (Individual)

  [would be better if T explains 'how' to retell and 'what to retell   e.g : what, why, who, how, where, etc]

- T moves around the class as Ss are reading (memorizing perhaps) the story, asking if Ss are ready

- Ss come forward, one by one, telling the story. Some stories are long, some are pretty short. [better If T limits their time]

- T provides Individual feedback right after each presentation. She calls the Student to come closer to her.

  [I missed 2 episodes of feedback since I sat far at back corner of the class] [but then I moved]

- T writes down some words / phrases which are Incorrect in terms of pronunciation

- Other students also provide direct correction to

front

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their friend's pronunciation

[not noticeable is feedback about Ss performance and how to improve their performance in the future]

Notes and thoughts :

Things learned from this first observation

① Should always sit close to the Teacher as she doesn't move around. It is Ss presentation and individual Ss will come forward presenting their story and T will give individual feedback, asking Ss to come close to the T's table.

② Feedback will mainly about their pronunciation

③ Expect that T's feedback won't be found very often. Time is very limited. letting Ss doing the presentation is time-consuming especially when T does not specify how long the presentation should be and how many students should present in one meeting

Observation 4

19 September, 2018

Wednesday : 08.20 - 09.40

Topic : Conditional sentence — continue —

* T begins the class by asking Ss if they still remember their last lessons unreal conditional . T asks Ss to give examples about it [check the recordings, it'll be interesting to follow up for the interview]

* T's presentation → displaying slides, giving examples of Conditional sentence (unreal /imaginary)

* She continue explaining the rules

After the If , use simple past

In the other clause , use would + verb.

* T asks Ss to identify the conditional sentence from the dialogue in the textbook

* T ask Ss to perform the dialogue in front of the class

* one pair of Ss came forward presenting the dialogue, left without any comments from teacher.

* Ss : Corruption → Koruption ⟩ mispronounce

T : Corruption → korruption ⟩ Individual

S : Corruption

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[Couldn't record the dialogue, too noisy]

S : Poverty   > mispronounced   — Individual
T : Poverty

S :   Poverty

[other Ss are busy and noisy. They are memorizing
the dialogue to be presented in front of the class.]

Ss Just present the dialogue in front of the T.

* I notice that not all mispronunciation is corrected
by the T.   ex: Infrastructure (infrastruktur).
                    great   (greet)
T give score for each Student& after the performance

* S: appear   > mispronounced — Individual
T: appear

S: appear

* prioritize [I think T pronounce it incorrectly]

* S: I would   > mispronounce .
T: I would

S: $ would

Ms. Tufi

23/10/2018

Observation 1

SMAN 21   XI MIPA 1

09.05 — 10.35

Topic :   Invitation letter

Class Room is clean, Ss sits in pairs, boys with boys and girls with girls. AC is working well. Pictures of President and vice pres on the wall and so some of Indonesian national heroes.

- T Review the previous lesson. Asking about how many Invitation cards / letters they've got.
- Ss give their answer
- T asks if Invitation letter / card is formal or informal.
- T says they're going to discuss about invitation letter and she distributes a handout for students

    T : What is Carmen and Ted Schmitt ?
    S : Sender
    T : Sender ?! It's Invitee   (To the whole class)

- T Then asks students to do the task / activity

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In the handout: Finding main idea of the letters / ~~xxxxx~~
                    main idea of each paragraph of the letters

- Students are seen doing the task. T is moving around the class to see how Ss is going with the task
- The class isn't so interactive, probably cause they aren't doing speaking activities, just reading.

- T and Ss discuss the answers together (see recording) [feedback is present / does occur, it's just it doesn't seem that Ss care about it. The feedback is mainly "very good", "good answer", and other kinds of compliment. [this worth asking in the second interview both for students and teacher]

- After that, T asks Ss to read the explanation in the handout and asks them to do another task: answering multiple choice questions. Ss do the task quietly and individually. But then when it comes to essay questions, Ss start having a discussion with their *pairs.
- T ask Ss to submit their answer
no closing

Field notes: classroom and lesson context

Ms. Cathrine's class

Classroom setting: Thirty-six students are sitting in pairs. The class is quite big. There are some pictures on the wall, two ACs, one projector hanging on the ceiling, and curtains for the window

Teacher Instruction	Meeting 1	Meeting 2	Meeting 3	Meeting 4	Meeting 5
Beginning the lesson	Greetings, instruction of what students should do today	Greetings, instruction of what students should do today	Greetings, instruction of what students should do today	Greetings, asked students if anyone was absent	Greetings, asking students if they were ready for a presentation
The objectives of the lesson	Retelling folklore	Retelling folklore	Suggestion and offer	Expression of opinion	Expression of agreement and disagreement
How the teacher explain the topic (e.g. whiteboard, ppt, oral explanation)	Brief oral explanation	-	*Oral explanation using ppt	*Oral explanation using ppt	Oral explanation using ppt
Resources used (e.g. textbook, worksheet)	Internet-students were asked to find and read a story	-	Textbook	Textbook	-
Types of activities (e.g. answering questions, role play)	Storytelling	Storytelling	Presentation Dialogue	Presentation Making a dialogue Present the dialogue	Presentation Dialogue
The nature of activities/tasks (e.g. individual, pair work, or group work)	Individual	Individual	Group Pair	Group Pair	Group Pair
How teacher ends the lesson	Giving information that the rest of the students should present their stories tomorrow.	Reviewing what they have done	Thanking students	Asking students to submit the task to her in the office later	Asking students to conclude their presentation and give applause

Ms. Hasibuan's class

Classroom setting: Thirty-six students are sitting in pairs. The class is quite big. There are some pictures on the wall, two ACs, one projector hanging on the ceiling, and curtains for the window

| Teacher Instruction	Observation 1	Observation 2	Observation 3	Observation 4	Observation 5
Beginning the lesson	Greetings, asking students if anyone is absent and how students are doing	Greetings, asking students if anyone is absent	Greetings, asking students if anyone was absent, brief review of previous materials	Asking students if they still remember the previous lesson	Asking if anyone is absent, reviewing the topic
The objectives of the lesson	Cinquain Poem Syllables	Cinquain poem-continue	Unreal conditional sentence	Conditional sentence-continue	Conditional sentence-continue
How the teacher explain the topic (e.g. whiteboard, ppt, oral explanation)	Oral explanation using ppt, white board	Oral explanation using ppt-other type of cinquain, whiteboard	Oral explanation using ppt, whiteboard	Oral explanation using ppt, whiteboard	Oral explanation using ppt
Resources used (e.g. textbook, worksheet)	Textbook	-	Textbook	Textbook	Textbook
Types of activities (e.g. answering questions, role play)	Writing a poem Reading the poem to the class	Writing a poem Reading the poem to the class	Presentation Making a dialogue	Presentation Making a dialogue Present the dialogue	Group performance
The nature of activities/tasks (e.g. individual, pair work, or group work)	Individual	Individual	Group Pair	Group Pair	Group
How teacher ends the lesson	Summarizing what they have learned and asking if students have questions	Summarizing what they have learned and asking if students have questions	Summarizing what they have learned and asking if students have questions	Asking if students have questions	Summarizing what they have learned and asking if students have questions

Field notes: classroom and lesson context

Ms. Tuti's class

Classroom setting: Thirty-six students are sitting in pairs. The class is quite big. There are some pictures on the wall, one AC (broken), and one projector hanging on the ceiling, and curtains for the window

Teacher Instruction	Observation 1	Observation 2	Observation 3	Observation 4	Observation 5
Beginning the lesson	Reviewing the previous lesson	Reviewing the previous lesson	Reviewing the previous lesson		
The objectives of the lesson	Invitation letter	Listening practice, analytical exposition	Persuasive text		
How the teacher explain the topic (e.g. whiteboard, ppt, oral explanation)	Oral explanation using ppt	Oral explanation	Oral explanation using ppt		
Resources used (e.g. textbook, worksheet)	Handout	Handout	Textbook		
Types of activities (e.g. answering questions, role play)	Answering questions	Answering questions	Presentation		
The nature of activities/tasks (e.g. individual, pair work, or group work)	Individual	Individual	Group		
How teacher ends the lesson	Asking students to submit their answers	-	-		

Appendix M: Example of Interview Coding Categories
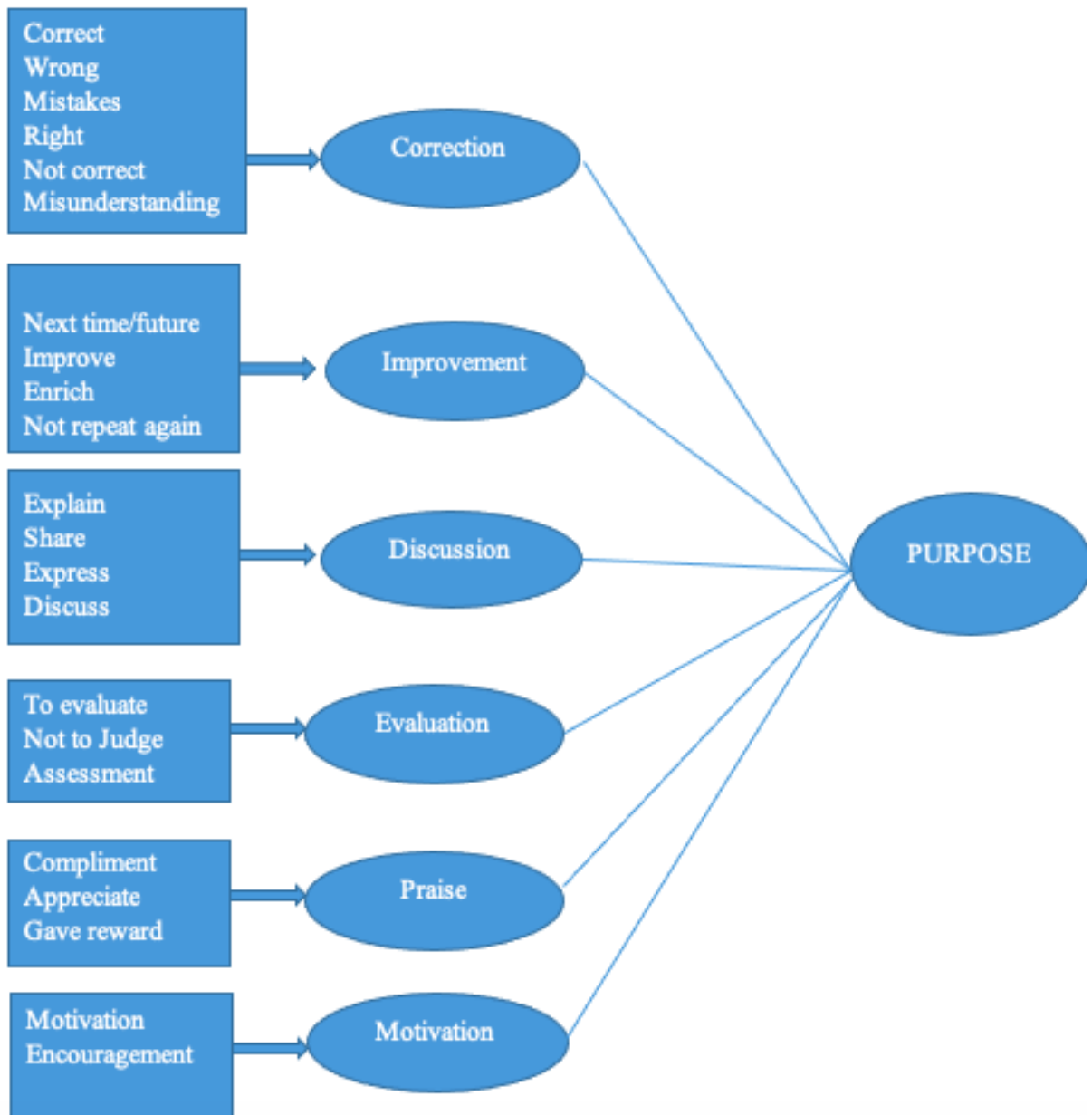
Appendix N: Samples of Observation Coding Categories

Ms. Tuti's class

Observation 1

Context: question and answer. The teacher asked students to answer some questions on the handout

Teacher	: Yeah please mention number 1	I	
Student 1	: Time, date, and place of event	R	
Teacher	: Time, date, and place of event. Yeah, why did you say that?	F	Seeking justification
Student 1	: Because there is the date	R	Give justification
Teacher	: What is the date?	I	
Student 1	: October 21, 2016	R	
Teacher	: October 21, 2016. And the place?	F/I	Confirmation/echo
Student 1	: Boise Hilton	R	
Teacher	: Boise Hilton, Very good. Do you have the same answer with your friend? Number 1 is time, date, and place of event	F/I	Confirmation, praise
Students	: Yes	R	
Teacher	: Ok Good. Number 2?	I	
Student 2	: Request	R	
Teacher	: Request. Why do you say so?	F	Echo, seeking justification
Student 2	: Because the sentence we would like you to speak	R	Give justification
Teacher	: we would like you to speak, yes, it's a kind of request. Yes. Do you have the same answer? Is there any different? (Students silent) No, yeah. Thank you very much. Number 3? What is it about?	F/I	Confirmation

Ms. Hasibuan's class

Observation Transcript

Teacher	: So you can't?		
Student 6	: I can't take the photos	R	
Teacher	: You can't take the photos. That's the reality, yeah. Just only imagine. Ok, once again. Come on. (student 7 raise her hand) Yes you.	F/I	Echo
Student 7	: If I were a rich person, I would buy all the book series in the bookstore	R	
Teacher	: If I were a rich person, I would buy all **the series books** in the bookstore. Good. **Why it is used were?**	F	Recasts, seeking justification
Student 7	: because I am not a rich people	R	Give justification
Teacher	: Yeah, because you are not a rich people. Why you use I were not was?	F	Confirmation
Student 8	: Mam, I want to try, like the previous one	I	
Teacher	: OK you want to make a sentence? Ok, give one example, OK. Next I will explain about that, yeah.	R	
Student 8	: If my car dirty, I will wash it	R	
Teacher	: I will?	F	Repetition
Students	: No	R	
Student 8	: Eh, I would. I would, right?	R	Modification of utterance
Teacher	: If I had three cars, is that what you mean?	F	Clarification request
Student 8	: *Koto*r, dirty	R	Give clarification
Teacher	: Oh, dirty. If my three cars were	R	
Student 8	: No not three, just one	R	
Teacher	: Oh, If my car…	R	
Student 8	: was dirty	R	
Teacher	: was or were?	F	Elicitation
Student 8	: was	R	Incorrect response
Teacher	: If my **car were** dirty, I would wash.. I would wash?	F	Recasts, repetition
Student 8	: the car	R	Incorrect response
Teacher	: I would wash it. If my car were dirty, not was, yeah. If my car were dirty, I would wash it. OK, now you (pointing at student 9)	F	Recasts

Ms. Catherine's class

Day 1 Observation

Transcript

<u>Video 1</u>

Teacher	: What did you say? This? Once /ons/? It's once /wʌns/ not /ons/	I/F	Initiating feedback: Intended to ask for clarification but then made explicit correction
Student 1	: Oh yes, I forgot, I forgot	R	Accepting/approving correction
Teacher	: and then 'area', area	I/F	Initiating feedback: explicit correction
Student 1	: area area [repeating after the teacher]	R	Echo
Teacher	: What else..well, this was certainly wrong, yeah. It's /wAns/ not /ons/	I/F	Emphasizing, explicit correction
Student 1	: yes, /wAns/	R	Accepting, echoing
Teacher	: OK, thank you Dita	F	Thanking student

Teacher	: I think it's not bad, though. Thank you	F	Praise
Student 2	: Thank you		Thanking teacher

Teacher	: Ok this one 'had', try saying that 'had'	I/F	Initiating feedback: Asking student to repeat
Student 3	: 'had' 'had'	R	Repeating what T said

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Appendix O: Summary of teachers' feedback types and students' responses

Ms. Hasibuan's Summary

Teacher's Feedback	Students' responses	Notes
Disconfirmation	Modification of answer	
Confirmation/Praise	Non-verbal (Smile) No response	
Repetition,Elicitation	Modification of answer	
Checking understanding	Confirmation (Yes)	
Elicitation	Giving answer	
Recasts	Modification of answer	
Seeking Clarification*	Giving clarification	*T sought clarification because she misheard students' word. It might be because the student's pronunciation was not clear or it might be because of the noise in the class.
Elicitation	No modification	Student did not notice the feedback. She/he might not realize that teacher's elicitation indicated that s/he has made an error.
Recasts	No response	Related to the above statement. Since the student did not make any modification to her/his speech , the teacher did recast, which again was not noticed by student.
Repetition	Continue the sentence	Teacher's repetition indicating an error. "I will?" but student thought the teacher asked him so he continued the sentence "I will spend a lot of money". (it should be I would) Again, feedback is not noticed.
Disconfirmation, Elicitation	Modification of answer	
Explicit correction	Modification of pronunciation	
Metalinguistic feedback	Modification of answer	

Ms. Catherine's summary

Teacher's Feedback	Students' Responses	Notes
Explicit correction	Accepting/approving corerction	
	Modification of answer	
	Rejecting corerction	
Metalinguistic (Appreciation)	no response	
	Thanking teaher	
	non-verbal	
Repetition	Modification of answer	
Recasts	modification of answer	
Confirmation	no response	when followed by metalinguistic/appreciation
	Showing understanding	when followed by explanation
	Acknowledging feedback	when the confirmation is followed by an explanation
Seeking clarification	Giving clarification	
Elicitation	modification of answer	
Checking understanding	Showing understanding	

Ms. Tuti's Summary

Teacher's Feedback	Students' Responses	Notes
Seeking justification	Give justification	
Confirmation	No response	
Praise	No response	
Elicitation	Wrong attempt Modification of answer	

Overall summary:

Most forms of Correction generally lead to modification of answer.

Elicitation sometimes is not noticed so it **doesn't lead to modification**. As elicitation is done in the form of question, there is a possibility that the student misunderstands it as a question which needs an answer. The same thing happens with **Repetition.**

Confirmation of student's answer in the form of praise and affirmation most of the time led to no response from student