Errors and correction during peer and teacher-student interaction and their effect on second language learning and test outcomes.

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Contents

List of Tables

List of Charts

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Acronyms, Abbreviations and Terms

X^2 Chi-square Test	(min) Minutes
ʌ Omission	MLAT Modern Language Aptitude Test
ə Schwa	N= Number of people in participant population
[ʃ] [sh] Phoneme	(N) Native/L1; Non- participation
[n, t, d, s, z] Phonetic sounds	NNS Non-native speaker
* Incorrect language item	(NP) Non-participation
** p<.01 Very significant	NS Native speaker
* p<.05 Significant	NTIME It is normal practice for my peer's to ignore my errors
(A) Addition; Focused attention	NTIPE It is normal practice to ignore my peer's errors
(A+) Addition/Unnecessary; Focused attention	Older (24-51) Age Category
(A-) Unfocused attention	(O) Word order; Operation
All sets All sets included	p= Significance factor
CCSARP Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project	(P) Peer; Praise; Pronunciation; Active participation; Proposal with reasoning; Willing participation
CEAS Certificate in English and Academic Study	(P+) Willing participation
CL Cooperative Learning	(P-) Proposal without reasoning; Unwilling Participation
C Concord (subject-verb); Counter-proposal with reasoning	PET Cambridge Preliminary English Test
C- Counter-proposal without reasoning	PI Peer Interaction
DALT Durham Academic Language Test	Pre-MBA Pre-Masters in Business Administration
(D) Description; Distraction; Unfocused attention	(QA) Question/Answer disparity
df Degrees of freedom	r= Reliability coefficient
DOB Date of Birth	(r) Repeat
DTG Date/Time Group	(R) Recast
(E) Echo and emphasis	S Strong rhythmic patterns
EAP English for Academic Purposes	(S) Spelling; Supportive; Self
ESL English as a Second Language	(S-) Non-supportive
ESOL Cambridge English for Speakers of Other Languages	S.E Standard Error
ESP English for Specific Purposes	(SC) Self Correction
F Female	SD/sd Standard Deviation
(F) Filler/neutral	SLA Second Language Acquisition
FET Fisher Exact Test	SOV Subject Object Verb structure
FL Foreign Language	SPSS Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
GCSE General Certificate of Secondary Education	SVO Subject Verb Object structure

(G) Grammar	(T) Tense
(H) Hesitation; Hint/Prompt	TCU Turn-Constructional Unit
HTCP I am happy to correct my peer's errors	TI Teacher/student Interaction
HTIP I am happy to ignore my peer's errors	UCLES University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate
(I) Ignore	UK United Kingdom
I/S Improved/Same Progress Category	(U) Unfinished Utterances; Unreactive volunteering
i+1 Input Hypothesis	US United States
IALA In-sessional Academic Language Assessment	USA United States of America
IELTS International English Language Testing Systems	(V) Vernacular
IELTS ISA International English Language Testing Systems prep classes	V Hesitant volunteering; Reactive volunteering
J Gesture/expression	V+ Eager volunteering
K Clarify	V- Encouraged volunteer
KET Cambridge Key English Test	W Weak rhythmic patterns; Worse Progress Category
L Elicit	(W) Wrong Word
L1 First or native language	(WO) Word order
L2 Second language or first foreign language	(WP) Wrong phrase
LPTCM I would like my peer to correct my errors	(WW) Wrong word/choice
LPTIM I would like my peer to ignore my errors	X Explicit
M Male	Younger (16-23) Age Category
(M) Meaning; Meta-linguistic	ZPD Zone of Proximal Development
(M?) Meaning	

Abstract

This thesis aimed to identify the type and frequency of errors committed, and the corrections carried out, during peer and teacher-student interaction. It then aimed to assess their effect on second language learning, including test outcomes. Data were collected from 10 university classes of adult learners of English for academic purposes using structured observations, questionnaires, interviews, and standardised tests. The research was original, some results of which are significant, and reflects work that is worthy of publication.

Twelve types of error were identified, which differed in frequency with addition errors occurring at a substantially higher level than other types. Some speaking errors varied significantly by age, years of study, native/first language (L1), and by teacher-student and peer interaction. Nine types of correction were identified; ignoring was by far the most common. Some types of correction varied significantly by age and peer interaction. The majority of corrections occurred during peer interaction.

Questionnaire responses and interview data indicated that teacher-student interaction was positive and preferred to peer interaction. Students did not want to be ignored, which occurred twice as much during peer interaction. Although peer interaction was preferred less, being corrected by peers was preferred more to correcting peers. Furthermore, the greater the incidence of explicit correction the harder the students tried.

Errors and corrections relate to progress in language learning, which is beneficial in the long term. However, the link between corrections and progress was greater at lower levels of attainment. Highly significant results were identified where students who improved, or remained at the same level, committed errors and made corrections during both teacher-student and peer interaction. Despite the wide variety of errors and corrections being made, the evidence indicates that self-concept remained intact and positive, progress was made, and

learning was successful overall.

The implications for teaching are such that, errors committed and corrections carried out during both teacher-student and peer interaction are beneficial to learning and progress. Care should be taken to reduce ignoring as a strategy and replace it with explicit correction methods. The transfer of authority to peers during peer interaction needs to be reinforced to enable students to feel as good about correcting other peers, as they do about being corrected.

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Peer group, and teacher-student, error correction in English second language learning conversation provides the focus of this classroom-based research, which highlights the type, frequency, and periodicity of errors and error correction during peer/teacher interaction, and investigates their effect on learners' motivation, self-concept and learning.

Learning English as a Second Language (ESL) continues to present a complex interplay between linguistic, psychological, and social dimensions, particularly within academic contexts where learners must master both communicative competence and cognitive engagement in English. Within higher education environments, language learning is not only about acquiring vocabulary and grammar, but also about developing self-confidence, motivation, and positive self-concept through meaningful interaction and feedback.

Error correction has been identified as one of the most critical factors influencing language development and learner psychology. While traditional teacher-centred approaches emphasise accuracy and correction by authoritative figures, more recent communicative and socio-constructivist paradigms have expanded attention to peer interaction (PI) and collaborative learning, where feedback occurs within learners shared cognitive space. This view aligns with Vygotsky's (1978) Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), Bruner's (1983) scaffolding, and Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis (i+1), which together propose that language learning is a socially mediated, interaction-driven process.

However, despite the breadth of literature addressing feedback in second language acquisition (SLA), gaps remain regarding how peer and teacher corrective feedback differentially influence learners' motivation, self-concept, and learning outcomes. Few studies have

examined these factors holistically by integrating affective, cognitive, and linguistic perspectives within authentic classroom and testing contexts. This study therefore aims to discover and analyse: 'Errors and correction during peer and teacher-student interaction and their effect on second language learning and test outcomes', focusing particularly on the effects on self-concept, motivation, and learning achievement.

1.2 Literature Review

The review of literature draws on existing research with a view to identify links and gaps in information about themes including incorrectness, motivation, self-concept, language learning, and listening skills during both teacher-student (TI) and peer interaction (PI), and testing and assessment of English as a second language.

In this thesis, the focus on errors and correction during peer and teacher-student interaction, and their impact on L2 learning outcomes, led to adopting a predominantly positivist assumption of viewing reality as objective, singular, and independent of the researcher in line with an ontological philosophy, and viewing knowledge gained through objective observation, and empirical measurement in line with an epistemological philosophy (Coe et al., 2021). The corresponding epistemological stance recognises that truth can be approached empirically through observable evidence, quantifiable data, and triangulated results. This provides the philosophical foundation and methodological justification for the mixed-methods design adopted in the present study.

A mixed-methods or 'blended' approach, as outlined by Teddlie & Tashakkori (2009), extends the researcher's worldview to incorporate both ontological and epistemological dimensions without necessarily compromising either. This integrated position allows the researcher to exploit the strengths of both paradigms to obtain a more complete understanding of the phenomenon.

The review first defines error within SLA and explores how error correction can be reframed as a facilitative mechanism rather than a negative process. It then examines motivation and self-concept, considering how these constructs relate to demographic and experiential variables such as age, gender, ethnicity, and prior learning. These affective dimensions are dynamic and context-dependent, complicating quantitative measurement but essential for understanding learner engagement.

Subsequent sections link error formation and correction to affective memory, achievement potential, and individual development through both teacher-student and peer collaboration. Theories including Vygotsky's ZPD, Bruner's scaffolding, Piaget's assimilation and accommodation, Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Selinker's Interlanguage, and Swain's Output Hypothesis provide the theoretical framework connecting social interaction and cognitive development.

The literature also considers the impact of testing and assessment, recognising that evaluative contexts often provoke anxiety that hinders performance. Research increasingly supports integrated formative and summative feedback systems that are timely, aligned, and constructive, reducing anxiety and reinforcing long-term learning.

The literature thus establishes the empirical and theoretical foundation for this study, directly informing the main research question and subsequent methodological design.

1.3 Methodology

1.3.1 Research Design and Paradigm

The research adopts a mixed-methods sequential explanatory design (Creswell et al., 2003, cited in Dörnyei, 2007), integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches to explore both measurable outcomes and experiential perspectives.

The study is positioned within a predominantly positivist framework, which views knowledge as objective and measurable, but incorporates interpretivist elements to capture learner perceptions and contextual meaning, and achieve triangulation (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

1.3.2 Primary and Secondary Data

According to Shuttleworth (2008), research may involve primary or secondary data sources. Primary data in this study were gathered through classroom observations, questionnaires, and semi-structured interviews, generating both quantitative and qualitative datasets (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). Secondary data included a comprehensive review of existing literature and theoretical models (Kara, 2012; Brown & Rodgers, 2002).

1.3.3 Data Collection and Instruments

Data collection employed both structured and unstructured observations (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991; Kara, 2012), allowing the identification of measurable patterns and spontaneous interactional dynamics. Additional instruments included:

Observation Charts for tracking errors, corrections, and behavioural responses

Codification Tables detailing interaction modes and feedback types

Questionnaires (English and Chinese versions) for quantitative attitudinal data

Semi-structured interviews for qualitative insights into learner experiences

Testing Instruments assessing listening, speaking, and comprehension performance

All instruments were piloted to ensure validity, reliability, anonymity, and ethical soundness.

1.3.4 Participants and Analysis

The participant group comprised 236 adult ESL learners from multiple national backgrounds enrolled in a UK university pre-sessional academic English programme. Data were analysed

using SPSS for quantitative analysis that included frequencies, cross-tabulations, and chi-square tests, and thematic coding for qualitative data. Triangulation across methods enhanced the validity and interpretative depth of findings.

1.3.5 Ethical Considerations

All procedures complied with institutional ethical standards. Participants received information sheets, provided informed consent, and were assured of confidentiality, anonymity, and data protection in accordance with research ethics protocols.

1.4 Results and Analysis Overview

Findings are organised in three parts: (1) Errors, (2) Corrections, and (3) Progress:

Part 1: Errors examines the types and frequencies of speaking errors across teacher–student and peer interaction, analysing variations by age, gender, L1 background, and self-concept.

Part 2: Corrections, investigates perceptions and frequencies of implicit and explicit corrections, including the role of ignored errors and their behavioural implications.

Part 3: Progress explores how errors and corrections relate to learning outcomes and test performance, linking classroom observation to assessment data.

Results were derived through triangulated data analysis, combining quantitative statistics with qualitative insights to ensure both depth and breadth of understanding.

1.5 Significance of Study

This research contributes to understanding corrective feedback as both a linguistic mechanism and a psychosocial process in second language learning. By comparing teacher-led and peer-led correction, it demonstrates how interactional context influences learning, affective engagement, and self-concept. The findings have several implications:

Pedagogical practice: Encouraging balanced integration of teacher and peer feedback to enhance engagement and autonomy.

Curriculum design: Promoting formative assessment practices that sustain motivation and reduce anxiety.

Teacher education: Enhancing awareness of the affective and interpersonal dimensions of feedback.

Ultimately, this study advocates for holistic and empathetic feedback practices that support both linguistic precision and learner confidence in higher education ESL contexts.

1.6 Conclusion

This introductory chapter has outlined the research focus, philosophical stance, methodological approach, and significance of the study. Subsequent chapters develop these themes in detail:

Chapter 2 provides the literature review;

Chapter 3 explains the methodology;

Chapter 4 presents results, analysis and discussion

Chapter 5 concludes with implications and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature on errors and correction within both peer and teacher–student interactions in English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms. The focus of this study lies in understanding how the type, frequency, and timing of error correction influence learners' motivation, self-concept, and ultimately, their learning outcomes and test performance.

The chapter begins by defining and conceptualising errors and their distinction from related notions such as mistakes, slips, and lapses. It then explores research on how errors are classified, prioritised, and treated through corrective feedback, both explicit and implicit, within teacher–student and peer interactional contexts. This is followed by a discussion of how feedback practices relate to key psychological constructs such as motivation and self-concept, which are known to influence second language acquisition (SLA) outcomes. Motivation and self-concept constructs are further described in relation to other factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, prior learning experiences, which appear to be closely linked to needs analysis and ever-changing in a state of flux in a dynamic process making accurate quantitative data analysis difficult.

The review also situates peer interaction within socio-constructivist frameworks, notably Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), Bruner's scaffolding, Piaget's assimilation and accommodation, Krashen's Input Hypothesis (i+1), Selinker's Interlanguage, and Swain's Output Hypothesis. These perspectives illuminate how interaction and feedback mediate cognitive and linguistic development.

Finally, the chapter addresses the tension between accuracy-oriented correction and meaning-focused communication, as well as the role of testing and assessment in shaping feedback

practices. Testing and assessment by its very nature tends to cause stress and anxiety for all concerned prompting the need to incorporate increased and aligned formative and summative testing systems with appropriate and timely feedback. Collectively, these discussions establish the theoretical and empirical foundation for this study's exploration of how error correction practices by both teachers and peers affect language learning, motivation, and performance within the classroom. Research covering the types of error, correction and their effects during and as a result of peer interaction supports the notion that there is increased potential for learning by comparison to isolation, and/or teacher interaction and that all forms are necessary.

The basis for study is reflected in the literature review and provides relevant material in support of the major research question mentioned in Chapter 1.2 above.

2.2 Errors and Correction

2.2.1 Errors, Mistakes, and Incorrectness

In the context of language learning incorrectness is unavoidable and takes various forms such as errors, mistakes, slips, attempts, imperfections, trouble sources, lapses, and deviance. Each term can be used distinctively, but also as an umbrella-term encompassing all occurrences without distinction, which can cause confusion. The relationship between errors and learning has generated extensive debate. Early SLA research viewed errors as signs of failure (Dekeyser, 1993), whereas later perspectives, particularly those influenced by Corder (1981), reframed them as essential to development. Errors, in this sense, become evidence of hypothesis-testing and progress toward greater linguistic competence (Bartram & Walton, 1994).

2.2.1.1 Errors

Some researchers distinguish between errors and mistakes (Miller, 1966; Corder, 1981; Bartram and Walton, 1994). Other research distinguishes between errors and slips, or attempts (Edge, 1989; Harmer, 2007; Wong & Waring, 2010). Either way a distinction is highlighted between types of incorrectness where errors are singled out for their significance at stages throughout the process of learning and treated as a priority accordingly (Corder, 1981; Harmer, 2007). Competence errors are considered a main problem area where errors are often systematic (Miller, 1966) and seen as trying something new and getting it wrong (Bartram and Walton, 1994). Even after errors have been identified research shows difficulty exists to distinguish between errors of understanding, reception, or expression (Corder, 1981). Another consideration is that errors are language items students cannot correct themselves (Edge, 1989). Corder (1981) points out that timing dictates the occurrence of errors, which can only exist as a result of performance failure once language is learned.

2.2.1.2 Mistakes

Bartram and Walton (1994) concur with Corder (1981) that input must be learned and although mistakes do occur, they indicate learning is taking place the distinction being that they are not practiced enough at that particular stage. Another distinction identifies mistakes as performance errors, which are often non-systematic (Miller, 1966), and can be ignored (Corder, 1981). One further consideration is that slips are mistakes students can correct themselves (Edge, 1989).

Signs of incorrectness in speaking are also known as trouble-sources defined as a word, phrase or utterance considered as problematic, but not necessarily an error (Wong & Waring, 2010). Problematic areas such as lapses include slips, false starts, and changes of mind, which do not constitute errors (Corder, 1981). Research shows differentiating between lapses, deviance, and error remains difficult (Hockett, 1948). Even well-formed and/or appropriate

language can be erroneous when incorrectly applied in terms of context, referential boundaries, memorized, or simply repeated devoid of intended interpretation (Corder, 1981; Brown & Frazer, 1964). In speaking it is difficult to distinguish one imperfection from the other or the frequency of occurrence with precision because it is impossible to know what, if anything, has been learned correctly (Harmer, 2007; Cohen, 1975).

2.2.1.3 Errors and Learning

Strong views identify errors as unavoidable and that they will occur regardless of teaching and learning standards, which gives the impression that errors are something we all have to expect as a matter of course (Corder, 1981; Cohen, 1975). A positive view is that errors provide evidence of learning or developing awareness because they are items that are relatively new and have not been learned properly (Bartram & Walton, 1994; Wong & Waring, 2010). Errors can also serve as learning opportunities as moments when learners test hypotheses about language structure and meaning. For example, studies on reading aloud found that making and correcting errors within a learner's zone of optimal development led to measurable gains in attainment (Tymms, Merrell, Thurston, Andor, Topping & Miller et al., 2011). Yet, despite these benefits, excessive error correction may discourage risk-taking and reduce learners' communicative confidence, highlighting the need for balance (Dekeyser, 1993). This balance is central to the current study, which investigates how both teacher-led and peer-led corrections contribute not only to linguistic improvement but also to affective dimensions such as motivation and self-concept.

2.2.1.4 Classification and Prioritisation of Errors

The definition and prioritisation of errors provide the framework necessary in setting goals and forming learning objectives (Tudor, 1996). Error classification provides a framework for diagnosis and remediation. Corder (1981) proposed structural categories such as omission, addition, selection, and ordering, while subsequent research expanded classifications to

include phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical, and discourse-level errors (Nystrom, 1983; Brown & Rodgers, 2002).

Teachers' prioritisation of errors often reflects pedagogical focus (Tudor, 1996). Harmer (2007) found that teachers tend to prioritise errors of commission as in incorrect use, over errors of omission, described as absence of expected forms, while Nystrom (1983) observed emphasis on phonological errors. Conversely, in meaning-focused instruction, such as the Bangalore Project (Alderson & Beretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977), content-related errors received more attention.

These variations indicate that correction practices are not purely linguistic but are influenced by pedagogical goals such as accuracy over fluency, and interactional context (Boomer & Laver, 1968; Corder, 1981; Harmer, 2007). This insight directly informs the present study's comparative analysis of teacher and peer correction priorities.

2.2.1.5 Types and Causes of Error

There are several types of error that stem from elaborative simplification, miscues, negative transfer, overgeneralisation, and overuse of items. Elaborative simplification is discourse simplification where the speaker tries to enrich or expand input, which includes elision described as the omission of individual phonemes to simplify pronunciation, and ellipsis that refers to the omission of elements in speech that are presumed to be known by the listener. Another often experienced problem is described as a minimal pair where two words sounding alike in all but one feature (heating/hitting) can create very different outcomes. Miscue analysis in oral reading can reveal problems such as omission, substitution, word insertion, mispronunciation and prosodic effect, and repetition to correct.

Errors stem from multiple sources, including interference, negative transfer from L1, overgeneralisation, simplification, and miscommunication. Incorrect addition in terms of L1

negative transfer can be seen in the form, ‘This is the boy I spoke about him*’, while overgeneralization demonstrates rule extension beyond valid limits as in, ‘He didn’t found* it/He found it’ (Cohen, 1980), and overuse of uncertainty markers that become part of normal conversation such as, ‘how you say’; ‘you mean’ (Corder, 1981).

Understanding such error sources is crucial for identifying effective feedback strategies. Teachers and peers who can diagnose error origin, whether phonological, syntactic, or pragmatic, are better equipped to tailor corrective responses that promote learning rather than mere surface repair.

2.2.2 Correction, Concepts and Processes

Correction, or error treatment, refers to any response aimed at transforming incorrectness into correctness (Alderson & Beretta, 1992). Within conversation analysis, it overlaps with notions of repair (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977), encompassing both who initiates and who executes the correction in terms of self or other.

Errors can be corrected by an array of methods or techniques (Cohen, 1975; Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977), which can be sorted into two forms based on level of exposure such as exposed and embedded, and also known as overt and covert, direct and indirect, or explicit and implicit correction (Gass & Mackey, 2006; Harmer, 2007). An order of use and more favourable option for reducing exposure and limiting disruption situates indirect/covert/implicit correction types over direct/overt/explicit correction types the latter being exploited in terms of a final solution (Alderson & Beretta, 1992).

Gass and Mackey (2006) classify corrective feedback broadly as explicit or implicit, differing in the degree of learner awareness and disruption to interaction. Explicit correction provides direct metalinguistic information or the correct form, whereas implicit correction, such as recasts or reformulations, embeds correction within the flow of discourse.

Although implicit feedback is often less face-threatening and more naturalistic (Han, 2002), it may fail to draw sufficient learner attention for uptake. Conversely, explicit correction is highly salient, but risks interrupting communicative flow (Jefferson, 1987; Wong & Waring, 2010). The balance between these modes remains a central question for SLA pedagogy and a key variable in the present study.

2.2.3 Explicit and Implicit Correction

Errors can be corrected by an array of methods or techniques (Cohen, 1975; Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977), which can be sorted into two forms based on level of exposure such as exposed and embedded, and also known as overt and covert, direct and indirect, or explicit and implicit correction (Gass & Mackey, 2006; Harmer, 2007). An order of use and more favourable option for reducing exposure and limiting disruption situates indirect/covert/implicit correction types over direct/overt/explicit correction types the latter being exploited in terms of a final solution (Alderson & Beretta, 1992).

2.2.3.1 Explicit Correction

Explicit corrections give an answer, compare wrong and right answers, or give a grammar explanation. Mostly explicit correction strategies are used by the learner (*Ibid*, 1992). Exposed, overt, or direct correction or repair highlights points in an abrupt and openly invasive way, which interrupts or stifles any initial conversation (Jefferson, 1987; Wong & Waring, 2010). Nystrom (1983) further suggests explicit disruption of conversation is appropriate and there may be opportunities where this method is used more often than not. Explicit correction by its invasive nature highlights error and correction, whereas implicit correction provides the opportunity to correct more sensitively.

2.2.3.2 Implicit Correction

Embedded, covert, or indirect correction is different to explicit correction in that any correction is surreptitiously slipped in to the conversation in a less invasive way (Gass & Mackey, 2006; Nystrom, 1983). Covert types such as recasts, reformulations and embedded correction may be effective under certain conditions, but the less invasive nature may fail to highlight a problem where even the intention could be missed (Han, 2002).

2.2.3.3 Implicit Correction Types

Recasts and reformulations (Rost, 2002; Harmer, 2007; Gass & Mackey, 2006) are the most commonly observed implicit strategies, offering immediate and context-sensitive correction. Repetition and echoing serve to highlight unclear utterances, prompting self-correction (Harmer, 2007; Corder, 1981). Self-repair, self-correction, or self-righting, where learners identify and fix their own errors, is widely viewed as the most effective form of correction for long-term acquisition (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Nakamura, 2008; Celce-Murcia, 2007; Corder, 1981; Schlegoff et al., 1977).

Recasts

Reformulation, or recasts (Rost, 2002), repeat back a corrected version of what the student said (Harmer, 2007). Recasts offer the opportunity to practice elaboration and reduction in terms of simplification (Gass & Mackey, 2006). Recasting, rephrasing, or restating a correct utterance is common and provides negative evidence of speech and comprehension attempts (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977; Rost, 2002; Wong & Waring, 2010). Recasts are the most commonly preferred type of correction (Rost, 2002).

Repetition

Universal correction in terms of further drilling and exercise techniques is common and deals with evidence of non-acquisition and the number of exceptions or unpredictable items that

emerge despite systematic removal of predicted L1 interference errors (Corder, 1981). Repeating is where the same utterance is said again at least once showing something isn't clear (Harmer, 2007). Echoing is where a repeated utterance includes emphasis on the unclear part (*Ibid*, 2007).

Self-repair

Self-repair (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Nakamura, 2008; Celce-Murcia, 2007), also known as self-correction (Corder, 1981), or a self-righting mechanism (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977) appears to be an important correction method supported by many researchers, which is considered either the best correction method in terms of generating and maintaining error-free conversation, or is often applicable in differentiating between lapses, deviance and error, or helps to achieve and maintain understanding in social interaction, respectively. The self-initiated self-repair type is preferred and the same-turn repair is the most employed sub-type in everyday conversation, which identifies oral language development (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Other methods include clarification requests (Wong & Waring, 2010; Harmer, 2007), negotiation of meaning (Gass & Mackey, 2006), cueing or prompting (Alderson & Beretta, 1992), and the use of meta-language in teacher-led grammatical explanations (Alderson & Beretta, 1992). Hattie and Timperley's (2007) meta-analysis of 74 studies identified cues and reinforcement as particularly effective in sustaining learning gains.

Clarification

Conversations contain many errors, some of which are caused by mishearing or slips, result in imperfections, and may require clarification (Wong & Waring, 2010). Statement and question is where something is not quite right and peers are invited to agree or disagree (Harmer, 2007).

Negotiation of Meaning

Repair methods include negotiation of meaning through turn-taking (Gass & Mackey, 2006).

Gesture

Expression is through the use of physical and/or facial gestures (Harmer, 2007).

Hinting/Cueing

Hinting, or cueing (Alderson & Beretta, 1992), or prompting, is an efficient way to reactivate rules using trigger words (Harmer, 2007). Research from 74 studies in a meta-analysis showed that the most effective forms of feedback include cues and reinforcement to learners (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Meta-language

Meta-language terms or linguistic items are used more often by the teacher (Alderson & Beretta, 1992).

Orderly Manner

Wong & Waring (2010) suggest that as L1 speakers make similar mistakes in L2 learning the errors can be corrected in an orderly manner. Corder (1981) argues errors should be corrected on an opportunistic basis due to their inevitability. Cohen (1975) stresses the importance of correction, but limits the scope to correcting limited and selected errors.

In contrast, ignoring certain errors, especially developmental or non-salient ones, can be pedagogically strategic, and preserving fluency and learner confidence (Harmer, 2007). This selective correction aligns with the need to tailor feedback to learners' developmental stage and communicative goals, a principle central to both teacher and peer feedback contexts examined in this study (Rost, 2013; Boomer & Laver, 1968; Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977; De Luque & Sommer, 2000).

Ignoring

Ignoring errors or situations where errors remain unnoticed or untreated suggests parameters exist for allowing error. It appears that errors are overlooked or missed as long as interpretation remains unaffected (Boomer & Laver, 1968), adverse effects are not experienced, or delays in getting to the conclusion are not experienced (Rost, 2013). More specifically, ignoring form and linguistic error is deemed appropriate teacher behaviour during error treatment according to research carried out in the Bangalore Project (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977). Harmer (2007) mentions ignoring developmental errors as a correction method set aside from overt or covert correction. In terms of corrective feedback errors made outside lesson objectives and errors conforming to views of initial instruction are ignored (De Luque & Sommer, 2000).

2.2.3.4 Teacher and Peer Correction Areas, and Types

Harmer (2007) notes teacher corrections are listed in terms of implicit and explicit correction types. The implicit correction types are favoured initially with the explicit forms being utilised in the event of failure (Alderson & Beretta, 1992). Peer correction is employed where students are asked to help or correct each other, but without the benefit of correction type or order afforded teacher/student interaction. The default position among learners is mostly the use of implicit strategies (*Ibid*, 1992). Observations also indicated that there might be an optimal level of error correction to promote attainment during paired reading (Tymms, et al., 2011).

2.2.3.5 Corrective Feedback Framework

Four levels of feedback focus on what is correct or incorrect in a task as well as processes, strategies, and compliments (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

The focus of this thesis is errors and correction, which draws on the corrective feedback level in terms of incorrectness or problems in speaking, listening and understanding. More specifically, the pedagogical repair sub-level involves teachers or peers in the classroom and focuses on specific comprehension and production problems including linguistic errors (Wong & Waring, 2010).

Corrective feedback commonly attracts 90% of teachers' questions in classrooms, which focus on lesson objectives. Other errors excluded from correction remain developmental in the scope of initial instruction (De Luque & Sommer, 2000).

2.2.3.6 Timing and Effectiveness of Feedback

Timing of feedback is another critical variable. Immediate correction tends to enhance focus and retention during task performance (Corder, 1981), while delayed feedback allows for reflection and metacognitive engagement (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The present study considers how feedback timing interacts with learner motivation and test outcomes, offering insights into the optimal conditions for corrective intervention.

2.2.3.7 Prediction

Corder (1981) further mentions that understanding the nature of errors provides the means to identify their systematic removal by way of prediction at the institutional level, which can mean complete avoidance in terms of removal from the syllabus altogether rather than removal by methods of correction or perfect learning and teaching.

2.2.3.8 Synthesis and Rationale

The literature reveals that error correction is not a monolithic construct but a complex pedagogical process influenced by linguistic, psychological, and social factors. While the debate between explicit and implicit correction persists, consensus emerges around the need for adaptive, context-sensitive feedback strategies.

Importantly, most prior studies have examined teacher feedback, leaving peer correction relatively underexplored, particularly in relation to learners' affective responses and test performance. By analysing both peer and teacher–student interactions within authentic classroom discourse, this study addresses this gap, advancing understanding of how correction practices influence not only linguistic outcomes but also the motivational and self-concept dimensions of language learning.

2.3 Motivation

2.3.1 Drive and Magnitude

Motivation is widely recognised as a central yet multifaceted construct in second language acquisition (SLA). It is often described as an internally generated force that determines the direction and magnitude of human behaviour such as an impulse or striving toward the fulfilment of needs or goals (Dörnyei, 2001; Harmer, 2007; Piaget, 1978; Oxford & Shearin, 1996). In language learning, motivation encompasses the desire to communicate, the persistence to overcome difficulty, and the energy invested in achieving proficiency.

Although its temporal boundaries are difficult to define, motivation has been conceptualised as both the cause and consequence of action and inaction (Ushioda, 1996). It evolves dynamically as mental structures become increasingly complex and differentiated through development and learning (Piaget, 1978; Oxford & Shearin, 1996). Goals play a pivotal role in this process, providing both the stimulus that initiates engagement and the impetus that sustains it over time (Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Observable manifestations of motivation occur across micro-stages of the learning process—through goal-setting, persistence, self-regulation, and achievement (Harrison, 1983; Black & Wiliam, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001). In one of the most extensive observational studies in SLA,

Dörnyei (2001) reported that 99% of learners who expressed a genuine desire to learn a foreign language achieved satisfactory levels of competence, underscoring the predictive value of motivational drive in successful L2 acquisition.

2.3.2 Abstract Variables

Motivation is underpinned by three primary mental functions: conative, related to will or desire; cognitive, related to thought; and affective, related to emotion, which together form the psychological foundation for action (Dörnyei, 2001). Within this framework, motivation emerges as a complex, multidimensional construct influenced by a wide array of interrelated variables, both intrinsic and extrinsic (Harmer, 2007; Harrison, 1983; Black and Wiliam, 1996).

These variables interact dynamically and are continually reshaped by internal conditions (e.g., needs, beliefs, and attitudes) and external conditions (e.g., feedback, environment, and social influences). The balance among these factors determines the degree of motivation a learner experiences and their likelihood of sustaining engagement (Ushioda, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). As such, motivation cannot be reduced to a static attribute but is better understood as a process of ongoing regulation and adjustment, sensitive to both personal and contextual influences.

2.3.3 Integrative and Instrumental Motivation

Foundational theories of motivation in SLA distinguish between integrative and instrumental orientations (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, 1985). Integrative motivation reflects the learner's interest in identifying with the target language community, developing linguistic self-confidence, and fostering positive attitudes toward the language and its speakers. Instrumental motivation, in contrast, is driven by pragmatic considerations such as gaining employment, status, or academic advancement.

Gardner's (1988) socio-educational model posits that integrative motivation is positively associated with achievement because it is linked to active engagement and personal identification with language learning (Appendix 2.1). Subsequent research confirmed that aptitude and motivation are largely independent yet mutually reinforcing factors in SLA (Au, 1988; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

However, the integrative–instrumental dichotomy proved insufficient to capture the full complexity of motivational dynamics. Later models expanded the construct to include variables such as need for achievement, self-efficacy, locus of control, expectancy-value beliefs, mastery orientation, and attributions (Dörnyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Okada, Oxford, and Abo, 1996, Dörnyei, 2001) (Appendix 2.1). These developments led to multi-level frameworks that considered the language level (integrative/instrumental motives), learner level (personal attitudes and self-concept), and situational level (course, teacher, and group-specific motivation) (Dörnyei, 2001; Oxford, 1996).

This three-level model is especially relevant to the present study, which explores motivation within both peer and teacher–student interactions, contexts inherently shaped by course design, instructional style, and social dynamics (Appendix 2.2).

2.3.4 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors

Williams and Burden (1997) proposed a framework distinguishing between internal (intrinsic) and external (extrinsic) sources of motivation. Intrinsic factors include interest, perceived competence, self-concept, confidence, developmental stage, and gender, while extrinsic factors encompass teacher feedback, classroom climate, peer relationships, and societal expectations (Appendix 2.3).

Intrinsic motivation, defined as engagement driven by curiosity or enjoyment, is associated with deeper learning and long-term persistence (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001). Conversely, extrinsic motivation where engagement driven by external rewards or pressures may sustain effort in the short term, but tends to decline without reinforcement.

Research indicates that adult learners tend to exhibit more intrinsic motivation, while school-aged learners are more extrinsically oriented (Brown, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001). Interest and affective involvement are maximised when challenge and skill are both high, a state Csikszentmihalyi (1989) termed flow. Conversely, mismatches between challenge and ability lead to apathy, boredom, or anxiety (Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996; Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 1989; Wong & Csikszentmihalyi, 1991; Krashen, 1985; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1996; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978). Schmidt et al. (1996) research shows a sample size of 1464 adult learners from the American University in Cairo where high affective motivation scores are also related to an interest in more communicative lessons. Conversely, affective motivation and conformity to the established and traditional approach to learning, i.e. sitting in isolation in rows, or groups, and listening to, or chorally repeating, the teacher's utterances, appear to result in students' interest or preference for memorization strategies and teacher-led classes (Oxford, 1996).

Attitudes, perception, and beliefs affect behaviour and willingness for and against engagement, persistence, or activity level in both L1 and L2. Any aspect of motivation can be positively and negatively affected by perception regardless of actuality (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996).

Empirical findings reveal that high affective motivation correlates with preference for communicative, interactive language classes, whereas high anxiety is associated with avoidance of group work and preference for traditional, teacher-controlled instruction

(Oxford, 1996). These observations reinforce the interplay between affect, motivation, and classroom methodology, a relationship central to this study's exploration of feedback and peer interaction.

The Psychology for Language Teacher's framework of L2 motivation (Williams & Burden, 1997) distinguishes between internal and external factors, which are responsible for intrinsically and extrinsically affected factors (Appendix 2.3).

Important Intrinsic factors in realising goals include interest, perception, expectation, ability, competence, self-concept, attitude, confidence, anxiety, developmental age and stage, and gender (Williams & Burden, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001). Similarly, a language learning motivation definition consists of seven elements some of which are shared with Williams & Burden (1997) factors above which include: interest, relevance, expectancy of success or failure, belief in forthcoming awards, decision to be involved, persistence, and high activity level (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991) L2. Research into learners who are more intrinsically oriented identifies an older category of adult, and the exceptional few school-level L2 learners (Brown, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001). Intrinsic motivation may represent the more openly used variable in terms of conducting research and correlates with general motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Levels of interest have been represented through motivation, affect, arousal, and concentration during involvement, the highest of which is attained when challenge and skill are equal and high. Boredom and apathy result from a lowering of challenge or skill respectively (Schmidt, Boraie, & Kassabgy, 1996; Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 1989; Wong & Csikszentmihalyi, 1991; Krashen, 1985; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Oxford & Sherin, 1996; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978). Schmidt et al. (1996) research shows a sample size of 1464 adult learners from the American University in Cairo where high affective

motivation scores are also related to an interest in more communicative lessons. Conversely, affective motivation and conformity to the established and traditional approach to learning, i.e. sitting in isolation in rows, or groups, and listening to, or chorally repeating, the teacher's utterances, appear to result in students' interest or preference for memorization strategies and teacher-led classes (Oxford, 1996).

Attitudes, perception, and beliefs affect behaviour and willingness for and against engagement, persistence, or activity level in both L1 and L2. Any aspect of motivation can be positively and negatively affected by perception regardless of actuality (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996).

Expectation and value of future success from as far back as the initial interest phase in learning language depends upon processing past experiences. Attribution theory, self-efficacy theory aspects such as judging one's own ability and competence, and attempting to maintain self-esteem from self-worth theory such that the more positive the factors the higher the degree of positive motivation contribute towards the extent of expectation and value of success experienced (Dörnyei, 2001).

Self-efficacy, expectation of ability to cope, or self-confidence through abilities can vary according to subject matter or learning context, shows predictive effects on academic achievement, can be modified, and applies to both teacher and students' behaviour (Schunk, 1991; Gallagher, 1994). A correlation between self-efficacy and speaking proficiency, and also the words in sentences aspect of the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) is positive, however self-efficacy and anxiety are negatively correlated (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Level of self-esteem or judgement about self-worth has a reciprocal relationship with success in personal endeavours and is a stable trait such that students who perceive their ability as

low or fixed also limit achievement accordingly (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Anxiety is a form of arousal that is usually based on fear, but appears when personal challenges are too high in relation to the skills applied (Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 1989; Wong & Csikszentmihalyi, 1991). Anxiety is negatively correlated with final ratings in speaking, reading, and MLAT, which reflects a pattern of behaviour where students avoid difficult or awkward situations, for example, less teacher involvement in favour of more traditional classroom teaching or controlled situations (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Further Schmidt et al. (1996) research into a sample size of 1464 university level students found that those with high anxiety stated that they neither liked group work nor communicative language pedagogy preferring traditional teacher-controlled activities.

Research by Oxford (1996) into a sample of 1109 people with job-related needs for language indicates they are highly educated and motivated to train further. Oxford's (1996) sample also identified 55% male and 45% female respondents participated, but highlighted a, higher than normal, mean age in L2 learning research of 39 (SD=9). Schmidt et al. (1996) research shows 1464 adult learners in the American University in Cairo used factors linked to age, gender, and proficiency, which showed motivation is also related to learning strategies and preference for certain kinds of classes and learning tasks.

2.3.5 Motivational Dynamics

Dörnyei (2001) advanced a dynamic perspective of motivation, viewing it as a process comprising three interrelated phases: pre-actional for goal setting and intention formation; actional for sustaining effort and coping with challenges; and post-actional for evaluating outcomes and adjusting goals (Appendix 2.4). Motivation must therefore be generated,

maintained, and protected over time, especially in classroom contexts where task difficulty, perceived relevance, and feedback influence persistence.

Expanding this dynamic view, Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System integrates self-concept theory into SLA motivation, which comprises the ideal L2 self, representing one's desired future identity as a competent L2 user; the ought-to L2 self, reflecting perceived obligations and responsibilities; and the L2 learning experience, encompassing situational factors such as teacher support and task engagement (Gardner, 1985; Noels, 2003; Norton, 2001; Ushioda, 2001).

Motivation arises from the perceived discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal/ought-to selves, prompting behavioural regulation to close the gap (Higgins, 1987, 1998). This model offers a powerful lens for understanding how learner identity, aspiration, and feedback converge to sustain or inhibit motivation in language learning.

2.3.6 Executive Motives and the Classroom Context

At the actional stage of learning, motivation is shaped by executive motives, which are situation-specific influences such as attention, task engagement, and persistence (Heckhausen, 1991; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000). These motives explain why learners with similar initial motivation may diverge in actual performance, depending on classroom environment and interactional opportunities.

Crucially, both teacher and peer generated feedback and correction serve as key regulatory mechanisms that influence these executive motives. Supportive, autonomy-promoting feedback can enhance engagement and self-efficacy, while controlling or overly corrective feedback, can undermine intrinsic motivation and provoke anxiety (Dörnyei, 2001). This theoretical link underpins the relevance of motivation research to the current study on feedback practices.

2.3.7 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is the result external affective influences have on learners in terms of significant others, type and quantity of feedback, the learning environment, cultural norms, and societal expectations and attitudes, among other variables (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Self-reported extrinsic motivation correlates with extroversion, perceiving, Modern Language Aptitude Test number recognition, and negatively with anxiety, but does not correlate with general motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Other research identifies school level L2 learners are predominately extrinsically oriented compared to adult learners (Brown, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001).

2.3.8 Cultural and Socio-cultural Aspects of Motivation

Cultural values profoundly shape motivational orientations. Learners from collectivist cultures often prioritise harmony, group belonging, and external approval, while those from individualist cultures emphasise autonomy and self-realisation (Triandis, 1995; Littlewood, 1999). However, these distinctions are fluid and mediated by factors such as age, gender, and prior learning experiences (Dörnyei, 2001).

Research in Thailand (Komin, 1990; Schmidt & Savage, 1992) revealed that motivation is tied to interdependence and social harmony, whereas Western learners often associate motivation with self-actualisation and personal success. Such findings suggest that peer collaboration and group learning structures can serve as culturally responsive strategies that enhance motivation across diverse learning contexts (McInerney, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001).

Cultural aspects of motivation reflect high value beliefs strengthened through conditioning of specific group practices over time. In terms of academic achievement this is reflected in the value of education, perception of learning, and also the shared support of peers and family (Komin, 1990; Phalet & Lens, 1995; Chen & Stevenson, 1995).

Research in social psychology suggests that self-reported responses are affected by attitudes, attributions, and expressions of interest, but also by conceptions of the 'ideal self', which are individualistic as well as heavily influenced by cultural values (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Todd, 1995). Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura's (1989) research identified ethnocentric values as a factor worthy of consideration in motivational research. Later research identified Thai people thrive on interdependence, enjoyment, interpersonal and harmonious relationships, and also the perception of education as a means to improve status (Komin, 1990). Research using *Thai learners of English* (Schmidt & Savage, 1992) helped corroborate Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura's (1989) and Komin's (1990) findings, but suggest that the reductionist model may be naive in relation to universal versus ethnocentric, and limited versus multiple factor involvement (Oxford & Shearin, 1994), which is supported by Littlewood (1999), and Dörnyei (2001).

2.3.9 Peer Dynamics and Cooperative Learning

Motivation in the classroom is inherently social (McCaslin & Good, 1996). Peer relationships involve factors strongly associated with sustained effort that contribute to belonging, recognition, and shared purpose (Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998). Cooperative learning structures, where peers collaborate to achieve shared goals, have been shown to enhance motivation, self-esteem, and achievement (Slavin, 1996; Schmidt et al., 1996; Dörnyei, 2001).

Positive peer dynamics involve elements such as shared time, mutual investment, and interdependence, which together foster learning kinship (Dörnyei, 2001). In such contexts, correction and feedback are reframed as collaborative processes of scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978; Oxford & Shearin, 1996), in which learners jointly construct understanding and gradually internalise language norms. This perspective provides a socio-constructivist foundation for the present study's emphasis on peer correction as a motivationally supportive form of feedback.

2.3.10 Individual Difference Characteristics and Cognitive-Motivational Links

Individual difference variables including age, gender, aptitude, personality, and learning strategies mediate the effects of motivation on learning (Dörnyei, 2006). Younger learners tend to be extrinsically motivated and reliant on teacher scaffolding (Williams & Burden, 1999), while adult learners display greater intrinsic motivation and autonomy (Brown, 1994). Gender differences are also evident, with females generally reporting higher strategy use and motivational engagement (Oxford, 1995).

Cognitive strategies (e.g., rehearsal, elaboration, organisation) and metacognitive strategies (e.g., planning, monitoring, regulation) operate under motivational control (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Motivation thus drives both effort and strategic behaviour, influencing the quantity and quality of input processed (Krashen, 1982; Schmidt, 1993).

Empirical work shows that learners with higher motivation use a greater variety and frequency of strategies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989) and that intrinsic motivation correlates strongly with cognitive strategy use (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996). These findings highlight motivation's mediating role between feedback, learning strategies, and performance, which are core themes of the present study.

The manipulation of integrative and instrumental motivational aspects direct selection in terms of acceptance of and willingness to participate in the L2 programme, the learning environment, and achieve qualifying grades (Gardner, 1985). The socio-educational model exhibits individual differences in L2 learning the aspects of which include antecedent factors (biological or experiential (age, gender, or prior learning experience)), learner variables (intelligence, aptitude, strategies, attitudes, motivation, and anxiety), SLA contexts, and learning outcomes.

2.3.11 Biological or Experiential Antecedent Factors

In terms of age is important to point out micro and macro motivation, which occurs throughout the various stages of language learning life from infancy to adulthood, the former stages of which may influence the latter. Piaget (1978) suggests children are motivated to develop their cognitive or mental abilities in stages from sensorimotor to formal. Oxford and Shearin (1996) add that children's motivation is a built-in striving toward more complex and differentiated development of the individual's mental structures and adaptation to the environment throughout the learning and development process. Early development of fluency and natural pronunciation in L2 learning contributes to higher motivation and progress at a younger age (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). According to Ford (1992) from an extrinsically motivated aspect most learners are motivated to learn under the right classroom conditions. In the 10-12 age range motivated learner attributions transition from listening and concentrating to a wider range including level of work and peer influences (Williams & Burden, 1999). Further transitions involving school level to adult L2 learner research identify a move from being extrinsically to intrinsically motivated (Brown, 1994), and a shift from control in younger learner L2 development to facilitation in adulthood (Wlodkowski, 1986). So far the age distinction covers younger or children, and older or adult, learners, but motivational teaching practice may be undermined by motivational strategies affected by differences in culture, age, gender, ability level and attitude (Dörnyei, 2001).

A study of adult language learners of various languages for government service shows students perceive intrinsic motivation and teachers perceive extrinsic motivation in connection with end-of-training proficiency outcomes (Ehrman & Oxford, 1991). Other research suggests that motivation is more situation specific or person and situation specific (Oxford, 1996).

Considerably higher motivation levels and use of a wider range of language learning strategies were found in research into 1,109 English speaking adults with a mean age of 39 (SD=9), 55% of whom are male learning a difficult second language such as Japanese compared to Spanish (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996).

Schmidt, Boraie and Kassabgy (1996) point out 1464 adult learners responded that motivated students who are not anxious like communicative group work and students following traditional teacher-controlled classes prefer memorization strategies (Oxford, 1996).

Research shows a distinct difference between gender in language learning strategies where female students often use more strategies at higher levels than males, regardless of cultural background (Oxford, 1995; Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996).

2.3.12 Learner Variables

Researchers argue that much of the variation in language learning outcomes appears to be the result of psychology and unique individual differences in terms of a variety of learner characteristics, the most important of which include motivation, personality, aptitude, learning styles, and learning strategies (Dörnyei, 2006). Dörnyei (2006) also mentions the variance in individual difference variables can be a negative factor in reaching statistical significance in research, however the characteristics used most often with success appear to be motivation and aptitude. The relationship between personality factors and learning achievement is often non-linear and indirect and loosely connected as a consequence (Matthews et al., 2000), whereas personality in terms of anxiety attributed to a willingness to communicate has a stronger connection to outcomes (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Farsides & Woodfield, 2003).

Individual differences displayed by respondents exhibiting extravert behaviour relate to a higher fluency level in L1 and L2 (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). This includes being more

able to integrate colloquial words freely in speech (Dewaele, 2004). Despite introverts having a lower fluency level and a tendency to avoid colloquial words their strengths appear to involve memorising vocabulary or assignment preparation (Skehan, 1989; Schmidt et al., 1996; Oxford, 1996).

L2 research in the Netherlands examined teenage learners' communicative competence in relation to personality characteristics, the results of which show openness to experience correlated (r=0.43) with linguistic abilities to a high level, and extraversion in terms of strategic competence (r=0.51) with conscientiousness, and organisational competence sharing a moderate correlation (r=0.28) (Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002).

In summary influential variables have been identified and include L2 aptitude and attitude, gender, age, cultural and family background, language spoken at home, and previous L2 learning experience (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

2.3.13 Learner Variables: Strategies

Motivation drives effort and ultimate success (Clement, Major, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Gardner, 1985; Samimy & Tabuse, 1991) and in specific skill areas (Genesee, 1978; Genesee & Hamayan, 1980; Tucker, Hamayan & Genesee, 1976). High motivation leads to interaction and increased input, which supports the intensity and extent of language learning (Krashen, 1982; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Motivation research during the learning cycle shows that more motivated learners share an increased frequency of language learning strategy use (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Motivation helps maintain language ability subject to the type and number of strategies required beyond classroom or programme activities (Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft & Evers, 1985). The choice of L2 language is an important strategy in itself, which varies relative to L1 and determines the level of motivation and subsequent performance achieved such as a stronger link between learners of French and German compared to English

than those of Spanish (Youssef, 1984). Similar research into the connection between motivation and strategy use among 72 adult students learning Japanese and Spanish in the USA identified learners of the more difficult Japanese (Level 4) are more motivated and use more strategies more frequently than learners of Spanish (Level 1), and significant correlations exist between motivation and strategy use for each language group despite the relative cultural differences experienced in learning respective languages (Oxford, Hollaway & Murillo, 1992; Reid, 1987, 1995; Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996).

2.3.14 Motivation and Cognitive Processes

Gardner's hypothesis considering integrative motivation, success and active learning suggest that these are determining factors in L2 learning (Gardner, 1985, 1988). Schumann's (1986) view of motivation, interaction, and then provision of comprehensible input have provided a foundation for a model, which further includes the addition of cognitive factors, and learning outcomes for academic subjects (Pintrich, 1988, 1989).

Cognitive strategies, which are also termed learning strategies in a L2 learning context such as rehearsal, elaboration, and organisation operate under the assumption that attention to particular tasks lead to the input being encoded into memory as a consequence of motivation (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Carr & Curran, 1994; Logan, 1988; Schmidt, 1993, 1995; Tomlin & Villa, 1994). Metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, and self-regulation play an equally important role in a regulating capacity of cognition whilst affected by motivation (Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

2.3.15 L2 Learning Motivation

L2 learning motivation is another example of how complex and multi-faceted the phenomenon can be, but remains composed of common links to attitudes, beliefs, experiences, goals, participation and degree of involvement, peer support, performance, and individual

differences such as aptitude, age, sex, previous languages learned, language spoken at home, travel experiences, and family characteristics. Evidence that such complex factors are in play is epitomised in a sample of 1,109 highly educated US government foreign affairs personnel with job-related needs for language are identified as 55% male and 45% female with a mean age of 39 (SD=9) (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996). Research into 34 languages being learned found that the duration of language courses were longest for relative difficulty levels such as "experienced" in learning Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean when an English speaker requires sustained interest for a longer term (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). It is interesting to note that interest is only sustained for a limited period before prolonged rehearsal time takes over as a different type of motivational factor according to research conducted by Schiefle (1991).

Cognitive strategy use was significantly linked with intrinsic motivation, total motivation, and effort whereas social strategy use identified more in terms of extrinsic motivation, desire to use L2, and a shared factor in total motivation for both Japanese and Spanish learners.

Significant correlations were identified in terms of Japanese learners' cognitive strategy use and a desire to use L2 outside class, a more frequent use of meta-cognitive strategies and extrinsic motivation, and also compensation strategy use and extrinsic motivation. Further important results revealed that memory and affective strategies did not relate to motivation (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996).

Learners of Japanese generate higher motivation scores and are more likely to use a range of learning strategies at high frequency levels covering cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective categories (*Ibid*, 1996).

2.3.16 Motivation, Feedback and Assessment

Feedback constitutes a major motivational influence within classroom interaction. Informational feedback, which clarifies progress toward goals and tends to enhance

motivation, whereas controlling feedback (focused on comparison or compliance) can diminish it (Raffini, 1993; Good & Brophy, 1994). Excessive correction or premature intervention may discourage autonomy, while constructive, timely feedback supports learners' self-efficacy and perseverance (Dörnyei, 2001).

Grades and summative assessment, though motivational for some, can provoke anxiety and shift focus from process to product (Black & Wiliam, 1996). As Dörnyei (2001) notes, motivation is best sustained through formative, progress-oriented feedback that reinforces effort rather than performance. This insight directly informs this study's analysis of how teacher and peer feedback affect learners' motivational trajectories.

2.3.17 Synthesis: Motivation as a Dynamic, Social and Affective Process

Across decades of research, motivation has evolved from a static trait to a dynamic, context-dependent process shaped by individual, social, and cultural factors. Theories such as Gardner's socio-educational model, Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System, and Vygotsky's sociocultural framework collectively underscore that motivation in language learning is inseparable from interaction, identity, and feedback.

For this study, motivation functions as both an independent variable as in influencing learners' response to feedback, and a dependent variable as in those affected by correctional methods. By situating motivation within the interplay of teacher and peer feedback, this chapter provides a conceptual bridge to understanding how corrective practices shape learners' engagement, self-concept, and eventual performance outcomes.

2.3.18 Grades and Achievement

A major motivational effect is experienced by learners in the form of grades where the emphasis on product rather than process and the subjective nature of standardised assessment techniques neither reflects the true characteristics in learners nor the level of communicative

competence. Assessment has become a tradition which may raise levels of anxiety among learners, teachers and institutions. The importance of grades reflects individual merit, provide the focus of ability and affect self-worth in society (Dörnyei, 2001). An outcome from much L2 motivation research into learning achievement and grades supported the view that despite increased effort and determination in learning any increased achievement remains indirect and requires some behavioural measure of motive such as language selection, volunteering responses, or extracurricular language use to be used as a variable.

2.3.19 Surveys

Motivation is a latent construct, the measurement of which is complex, dynamic, and changeable, and depends on inferences made from observable behaviour and self-reports preferably carried out regularly (Boekaert, 1988; Julkunen, 1989; Dörnyei , 2001).

Problems exist where variability in what people say or think about themselves, observable behaviour and meaning, the guessable nature of motivational items, and self-awareness issues over time can affect reliability and recorded outcomes (Brown, 1988; Skehan, 1989; Dörnyei , 2001).

Patterns in motivation are noticeable using surveys at different stages of learning such as the Language Learning Motivation and Strategies Questionnaire and the Affective Survey carried out at the beginning and middle of the course respectively (Ehrman & Oxford, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

Affective survey results note that intrinsic motivation is correlated with language proficiency (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995), and also speaking and reading proficiency, whereas motivation is correlated significantly with language learning strategy use, the highest correlation of which was between motivation and cognitive strategy use (Okada, Oxford, & Abo, 1996).

2.3.20 L2 Motivation Interdisciplinary Research Domains

The study of L2 motivation is interdisciplinary and exploits theories from language education, applied linguistics, and psychology in an integrated fashion to examine broad areas such as social and behavioural effects of acquisition, communication, achievement and the environment (Gardner, Clement, & Lambert; Eccles, Wigfield & Schiefle, 1998; Weiner, 1992; Brophy, 1998).

Despite in-depth study in a L2 motivation context concerning peer group and teacher dynamics, social and psychological effects on attitude, identity, culture, cognition, emotions, behaviours, and achievement, work motivation, language use and classroom motivation, L2 motivation research is limited due to boundary issues experienced in applied linguistics, psychology and L2 learning (Ellis, 1994; Ehrman & Dörnyei, 1998; Forsyth, 1998; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1997; McCormick, 1994; Geen, 1995; Abrams & Hogg, 1999; Steers & Porter, 1991; Pinder, 1997; Christophel & Gorham, 1995; Rubin & Rubin, 1992). Different approaches at the smaller task-based level to measure motivation and L2 learning researched interaction and linguistic knowledge (Gass & Selinker, 1994; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Pica, 1994), interaction and performance (McNamara, 1996; Skehan, 1998c), and willingness, and readiness to communicate (McCroskey & Richmond, 1991; MacIntyre, 1998). Hierarchical variables are established in several layers in terms of interaction which include self-confidence; interpersonal motivation; intergroup attitudes, general motivation, competence and personality during communicative tasks that affect learning behaviour (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005; Gardner, 1985, 2001; Clement & Gardner, 2001; MacIntyre, 2002; Noels, 2003; Ushioda, 2003). Language learning motivation research has compared language attitudinal variables and standardised assessment (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, 1993; Trembley & Gardner, 1995; Clement & Gardner, 2001; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Sociolinguistically integrative motivation links a readiness to absorb the target culture

and desire to learn L2 even to the point of replacing L1 (Gardner, 1985). Educational theory supports the view that the learning context and motivation in a classroom context involving course, teacher and group interaction has the greatest impact (Brown, 1990; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Julkunen, 1989; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner & Trembley, 1994). Researchers argue that the dynamic variation of motivation, specific learner behaviours and classroom processes including evaluation all account for the variability and ongoing changes of motivation to learn over time and are quite distinct in terms of preactional, actional, and post-actional stages (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998; Dörnyei, 2000, 2001). Motivational change research identified reduced intensity in school contexts over sustained periods (Chambers, 1999; Gardner et al., 2004; Williams, Burden & Lanvers, 2002), and motivational changes throughout life-long learning (Lim, 2002; Shedivy, 2004), and many recurring temporal patterns and motivational transformations to the point of restructuring (Ushioda, 2001; Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005).

Gardner's theory of L2 motivation identifies the role of attitude as a key variable in the integration of a learner into a specific independent culture, but further investigation has revealed the possibility of multiple learning contexts being made available to learners in terms of Global English learning (Dörnyei, Csizer & Nemeth, 2006). Research into language learning in Japan represents a shift in focus from a limited community to global community integration (McLelland, 2000; Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Csizer & Dörnyei; Irie, 2003; Lamb, 2004; Ryan, 2006; Yashima, 2000). Further research into English integrated with technology has identified an imagined community, which combines personal experiences, factual knowledge, and imagined events related to the future (Norton, 2001; Wenger, 1998).

2.3.21 Listening and Motivation

L2 acquisition through listening is supported by the need and motivation to learn in a routine social setting (Wong-Fillmore, 1991). Research suggests the more stimulating the listening

experience the more motivated, and less anxious the respondent (Rost, 2002). Motivation and attention to input and interaction are equally important for L2 listening development in terms of acquisition, understanding meaning, and comprehension especially where listening input is subconsciously filtered based on type and degree of affect in terms of motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states as part of the internal processing system (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982).

2.4 Self-concept

Self-concept functions as both a determinant and a consequence of motivation, operating within the broader framework of L2 learning and general educational development. A positive self-concept fosters greater motivation by enhancing self-efficacy and confidence, which, in turn, supports goal-directed behaviour, persistence, and engagement (Bandura, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001). Conversely, motivational states and achievements can feedback to influence self-concept, reinforcing or diminishing perceived competence and self-worth (Shavelson et al., 1976; Marsh & Martin, 2011). Empirical studies suggest that self-concept interacts with goal setting, intrinsic interest, and perceived task value to modulate both effort and persistence in learning contexts (Eccles et al., 1983; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

In L2 acquisition, the relationship between self-concept and motivation is particularly salient. Learners with a strong academic or language-related self-concept tend to exhibit higher integrative and instrumental motivation, greater willingness to communicate, and increased use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005). The L2 Motivational Self System further contextualizes this interaction, emphasizing the ideal L2 self as a projection of the learner's aspirational identity, which can enhance motivation

through alignment with self-concept, while the ought-to self may generate extrinsic motivation to meet expectations and obligations (Higgins, 1987; Dörnyei, 2005).

Self-concept is one of many variables within the multi-dimensional construct of motivation, which along with learning development requires challenges, exposure, support, and feedback to prevail (Rost, 2013). In turn self-concept, also known as self-construction, self-identity or self-perspective is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of themselves in relation to any number of characteristics (Rodgers, 1992; Maslow, 1970) or collection of beliefs (Leflot, 2010; Flook, 2005).

Happiness is maximized in connection with perception of maintaining the ideal self and is achieved through a combination of unconditional positive regard afforded by the family group, peer and other groups, and on-going self-assessments and subsequent internal reassessment as a consequence of personality, skills and abilities, interests, and physical characteristics (Gerrig & Zimbardo, 2002; Kass, 1994; Rogers, 1992). Development and maintenance of the self-concept construct is made all the more complex by human nature, influencers, dynamics, and temporary and fleeting perception in conjunction with individual characteristics such as being academic or non-academic (Bong & Clark, 1999; Byrne, 1984; Byrne & Worth, 1996; Shavelson, & Bolus, 1982; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976), gender roles and sexuality (Hoffman, Hattie & Borders, 2005; Hoffman, 2004; Wade, 1998), racial identity and ethnicity (Aries, 1998), age, prior learning experience, and many others.

Self-concept can also be viewed as a three-part model where self-esteem evaluates self-worth (Fleming & Courtney, 1984), stability is maintained, and self-efficacy or self-confidence is linked to a person's abilities (Demidenko, Tasca, Kennedy & Bissada, 2010; Ayduk, Ozlem, Gyurak & Luerssen, 2009).

2.4.1 Self-concept, Feedback and Achievement

Feedback mechanisms in educational contexts play a crucial role in shaping self-concept. Informational feedback, which highlights the gap between current performance and potential achievement, supports self-evaluation and contributes to the development of an accurate and stable self-concept (Raffini, 1993; Dörnyei, 2001). Controlling feedback, which compares performance against external standards or peer benchmarks, can enhance self-efficacy but may also provoke anxiety if misaligned with the learner's self-perception (Brophy & Good, 1986; Good & Brophy, 1994). Positive reinforcement, encouragement, and constructive feedback are associated with higher self-esteem, lower anxiety, and greater persistence, whereas excessive criticism or negative feedback can disrupt self-concept and reduce motivation (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Dörnyei, 2001).

In L2 learning, the alignment between feedback, self-concept, and motivation is evident in listening comprehension and communicative tasks. Learners who receive timely and scaffolded corrective feedback are more likely to maintain positive self-perception and motivation, which translates into improved task engagement and performance (Rost, 2002; Pienemann, 1999). Social feedback from peers and teachers also influences self-concept development, as learners negotiate their abilities and performance within the group context (Vygotsky, 1978; McCaslin & Good, 1996). Cooperative learning and peer-assisted activities provide opportunities for positive reinforcement and social validation, which strengthen self-concept while simultaneously enhancing motivation (Slavin, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001).

Self-concept development could be initiated from an early ability to make comparisons, but becomes more evident in terms of influencing behaviour, and cognitive and emotional outcomes including academic achievement, levels of happiness, anxiety, social integration, self-esteem, and life-satisfaction as life progresses (Marsh & Martin, 2011; Trautwein, Ludtke,

Nagy & Marsh, 2009; Preckel & Brull, 2010). Self-categorization theory describes self-concept as a personal identity and a social identity bound by alternating views of self-perception, which may reflect varied outcomes depending on the identity (Guimond, Chatard, Martinot, Crisp & Redersdorff, 2006).

Tiedemann (2000) suggests children experience the result of parental gender stereotypes and expectations by the age of three, but other research findings reveal that peer acceptance has a significant impact on self-concept by the age of five, affecting children's behaviour and academic success (Gest Rulison, Davidson & Welsh, 2008). Academic Self-Concept refers to the personal beliefs developed about academic abilities, which also develop and evolve as people age.

Leflot (2010) argues that it is more like 8 years when children are able to interpret their own feelings, abilities and interpretations of feedback they receive from others beside parents. Research also indicates that children and adolescents begin integrating social comparison information into their own self-concept in elementary school by assessing their position among peers, which may have an adverse effect depending on the variety of information available (Rubie-Davis, 2006; Trautwein et al., 2009; Preckel & Brull, 2010).

Evidence of positive self-concept is identified where parents' beliefs about children's early abilities and the children's actual abilities increases as children age (Tiedemann, 2000) and parents and teachers with higher expectations in education correlate with academic success (Benner, & Mistry, 2007).

Self-concept reflects information and perceptions in the past, present, and future, which correspond to hopes, fears, standards, goals, and threats based on the current self and whether ongoing reassessment from the present is necessary (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Studies in temporal self-appraisal theory (Wilson & Ross, 2001) identify the past, current, and future self-concept as positive at the respective time, but each perceived better or more positive than the last (Wilson, Buehler, Lawford, Schmidt & Yong, 2012; Ross & Wilson, 2002).

2.4.2 Gender, Culture and Self-concept in L2 Learning

Self-concept is moderated by cultural and gendered expectations, which interact with motivational dynamics in educational contexts. Western learners often emphasize individual achievement and autonomy, linking self-concept to personal goals and self-expression (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), whereas learners in collectivist cultures may integrate social evaluation and relational interdependence into self-concept formation (Gabriel & Gardner, 1999). Gendered socialization further shapes self-concept, influencing academic self-efficacy, participation patterns, and language-related motivation (Cross & Madson, 1997; Tiedemann, 2000). Studies suggest that female learners often exhibit greater relational and communicative motivation in L2 tasks, correlating with higher cooperative strategy use and responsiveness to feedback, whereas male learners may prioritize competitive performance and individual achievement (Benenson & Heath, 2006; Fishman, 1983).

Initially self-concept is developed formally and positively through exposure to the norms of social behaviour with support from parents, thus reducing the effect of guilt, which research suggests plays a significant part in early development (Berger, 2008). Children learn at an early age that certain conditions will be placed upon them in exchange for approval or love from the parents (Frager & Fadiman, 2005).

Self-concept is linked directly to a person's level of anxiety so the more supported and valued the person is the more likely they are to develop a positive self-image, maintain stability

between actual and possible self-perception, become a fully functioning adult, and look within themselves for validation (Aronson, Wilson & Akert, 2007; Brown & Rodgers, 2002).

The Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (Harter, 1994) was designed to gauge a child's self-concept in terms of competence, behavior, social acceptance, appeal, and appearance, which identified positive indicators such as expressing opinions, maintaining eye contact during conversation, working cooperatively in a group, and maintaining appropriate distance and voice level for various situations (Santrock, 2009).

Muijs (2011) suggests that student self-concept is a multidimensional construct in which we can have different self-concepts in different areas and at different levels at the same time and over time by comparing self-concepts in peer, family and other relationships, school science, language and general subjects, which can be measured using Shavelson's (1986) model.

2.4.3 Cultural Differences

An important distinction exists between individuals in relation to others in terms of global and local cultures and geographical theatres. In Western cultures independence, self-discovery, self-expression, and self-centeredness mostly come first (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Self-concept is determined by relative peer comparison as a result of an individual's need for competitive results (Preckel & Brull, 2010; Flook, Repetti & Ullman, 2005). In Asian cultures, an interdependent view and interpersonal relationships are more important, and the individual self is less obviously an integral part of society (Gabriel & Gardner, 1999).

A study of subcultures in Israel revealed that the more urban respondents are the more independent as found in western cultures and the more collective, or less urban, the more interdependent as found in Asian cultures, but concluded that self-concept depends on inner

attributes, abilities, and opinions from the community based on collective ideology (Somech, 2000).

2.4.4 Gender Differences

Gender has also been shown to be an important factor in the formation of self-concept, but it is closely linked to culture some research of which suggested that men tend to be more independent while women tend to be more interdependent (Cross & Madson, 1997). Gabriel & Gardner (1999) found no significant difference between men and women in levels of independence when researching gender differences and subsequent effect of self-assessments, and social roles, in self-concept. The level of distinction was identified more in terms of interdependence where men are collective within the context of larger groups with an agentic or individual focus, and women follow the stereotype of being relational identifying more with intimate relationships (Boesch & Boesch-Achermann, 2000).

Research by Tiedemann (2000), and Benner and Mistry (2007), found that parents' and teachers' gender stereotypes about children's mathematic abilities, and initial expectations, influenced self-concepts and beliefs that correlated with age, and academic success.

Same gender partner preferences are established during play in infancy and maintained throughout a period of social characteristic change where boys and girls tend to prefer large hierarchical group relationships based on shared interests and more mutually receptive and polite dyadic interaction respectively, characteristics of which continue into adulthood (MacCoby, 1990).

Higher levels of social behavior were observed among same-sex groups of children, which diminished in mixed groups where females tended to become passive observers during play

activities and males were more unresponsive during communicative activities (Jacklin & MacCoby, 1978).

The results of the study of groups and pairs of same-sex 10-year-olds found a significant correlation between the sex of the participants and social structure where males performed almost twice as well with increased productivity in groups than in pairs, and girls did not register any significant differences (Benenson & Heath, 2006).

2.4.5 Self-concept and Listening Skills

Listening, as a receptive skill, is closely linked to self-concept development in L2 acquisition. Learners' perception of their ability to comprehend spoken language affects both motivation and engagement, while sustained exposure, supportive scaffolding, and timely feedback enhance self-efficacy and self-concept (Rost, 2002; Pienemann, 1999). Anxiety and perceived social distance can negatively influence listening performance and self-concept, whereas collaborative activities and peer interaction mitigate these effects by providing a safe environment for practice and validation (Pica, 1992; Yang, 1993). Face-saving strategies and culturally appropriate communication techniques further support self-concept by reducing threat and reinforcing positive social identity in language learning contexts (Levinson, 1983; Gudykunst, 1995).

Rost's (2002) research into listening skills identified that challenges, exposure, support, and feedback are essential for development and self-concept with models supporting optimal learning conditions and methods.

According to Pienemann (1999) processability theory relates to readiness to access and ability to process information during speech production. It has similarities with ZPD, i+1, and assimilation/accommodation requirements, but has been identified as weak in terms of research involving cognitive factors (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Dörnyei, 2001), affective

factors (Ellis, 1994), genetic factors (Singleton, 1995), linguistic factors (Gass, 1996), environmental factors, and social factors affecting development and self-concept.

Affective variables influence the L2 learning process and are subconsciously filtered on type and degree of affect in terms of motives, needs, attitudes, and emotional states as part of the internal processing system (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982). Anxiety and other affective factors may be reduced or avoided through feedback, which can enhance self-concept (Rost, 2002).

According to Yang (1993) research into Chinese learners of English identified a negative correlation between levels of anxiety and their listening performance, which is supported by Aniero's (1990) research involving pair interactions. Social factors such as perceived differences between peers that create distance make it difficult to connect and negotiate meaning sufficient to resolve misunderstandings (Pica, 1992). Uncertainty Management Theory suggests differences in social standing relate to self-concept and affect (Gudykunst, 1995; Carrier, 1999). Face-saving politeness strategies are employed in an attempt to establish common ground (Levinson, 1983).

Numerous studies of the perceived effects of gender differences in communication show different approaches to communication (Tannen, 1990). Research conducted on forty participants, half of whom were female, suggests women use both sides of the brain when listening, whereas men mostly use the left side noted for understanding language (Cohen, 1981).

Sociolinguistic analyses by Wodak (1997), and Kothoff & Wodak (1998) show females are better and more willing listeners and less burdened by feelings of subordination and self-concept issues, which Fishman (1983) concurs is used to maintain communication in a responsive and supportive way.

Despite being necessary, listening and other testing systems can inspire negative and affective feelings brought about by former stressful experiences and poor outcomes. According to Wick (1973), Lindvall & Nitko (1975), and Cohen (1980) the adoption of positive beliefs and inspired confidence in a pro-test culture can improve self-concept.

2.4.6 Integration with Motivation

Self-concept is thus inextricably linked with motivation: it shapes learners' goals, influences engagement, modulates responses to feedback, and interacts dynamically with cognitive, affective, and social variables. L2 motivation research consistently demonstrates that learners with positive self-concept and high self-efficacy are more likely to invest effort, employ effective learning strategies, persist in the face of difficulty, and achieve higher levels of language proficiency (Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 2001; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). The interplay of self-concept and motivation underscores the importance of individualized, culturally sensitive, and feedback-informed instructional strategies in optimizing L2 learning outcomes.

2.5 Language Learning Difficulties: Cause and Effect

2.5.1 Affective Factors in Language Learning

Affective variables, including anxiety, motivation, and attitudes, have a significant influence on L2 learning and interact dynamically with self-concept and feedback mechanisms (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992). Language anxiety, whether situational or trait-based, can inhibit attention, reduce working memory capacity, and limit the processing of input, ultimately affecting both comprehension and production (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Conversely, high levels of self-efficacy and a positive self-concept mitigate these negative effects, promoting engagement and

persistence even when learners encounter linguistic difficulties (Bandura, 1997; Dörnyei, 2001).

The relationship between affect and self-concept is bidirectional. Learners with low self-concept may experience heightened anxiety when faced with challenging tasks, such as listening to rapid or complex input, which can trigger fossilization or backsliding (Rost, 2013; Selinker, 1972). Positive affect, reinforced by constructive feedback and peer or teacher support, strengthens self-concept, which enhances the learner's willingness to engage in risk-taking behaviours necessary for language acquisition (Ellis, 1994; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Early research conducted in Russia suggested that an adaptive psychological process between childhood and adulthood takes place moving from a pre-formed condition awaiting a trigger response to be activated to a state where intellectual properties and functions become motivated by activity and comparison (Vygotsky, 1978; Harmer, 2007). Language and culture also develop in a similar adaptive fashion as examples of processes in motion and in change (Vygotsky, 1978; Bornstein & Bruner 1989; Bruner, 1992).

According to Vygotsky (1978) an initial receptive state permits the conversion of visual and practical activity, which Cook (2007) suggests later includes aural activity in the form of external social language from interaction, or conversation to be internalized. Language development theories supported the inclusion of factors such as speech and intelligent action, or practical thinking, but contrasted in terms of whether they remain independent or integrated from each other as suggested by Buhler (1990), and Vygotsky (1978). Sociocultural theory supports Vygotsky and regards speech and thought as inseparable, because both require internalized data to process (Lantolf, 2000). On a more practical level Shapiro and Gerke (1928, cited in Vygotsky, 1978) viewed development as repetition of a series of common social experience models, whereas Piaget's (1978) methods established

transitional egocentric speech based on interlanguage theory in that although a language form in its own right, speech may develop fully when used in externalized communication and increase with task difficulty (Piaget, 1978; Selinker, 1972; Tarone, 1979). According to Lantolf (2000) and Cook (2007) developmental levels are reached when language is internalized into mental activity to become a concept, an abstraction, learned, and reproduced appropriately.

2.5.2 Motivation and Self-concept in Language Difficulties

Motivation interacts closely with affect and self-concept, serving as both a buffer and a catalyst in overcoming language learning challenges. Intrinsic motivation, often linked to the ideal L2 self, encourages learners to pursue tasks beyond their immediate capability, aligning with the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding strategies (Vygotsky, 1978; Dörnyei, 2005). Learners with a strong academic or linguistic self-concept are more likely to interpret feedback positively, view errors as learning opportunities, and persevere through comprehension difficulties (Marsh & Martin, 2011; Lantolf, 2000). Conversely, learners with fragile self-concept or low motivation may disengage when input exceeds their immediate capacity, leading to decreased attention, minimal uptake of input, and potential fossilization (Corder, 1967; Hyltenstam, 1988).

2.5.3 The Zone of Proximal Development

Learning is triggered as a result of working within the limits of the personal ZPD process, which describes the parameters of mental growth based on a distinction between realised and potential levels of development, and developing new collaborative knowledge during communicative activities at the correct educational level (Vygotsky, 1978; Bruner, 1978; Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In terms of stages of development similarities between ZPD, Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis (i+1), reading readiness, and teachability appear to coincide with age stages and physiological change in learners (Cook, 2007). Van Geert

(1998) argues that Piaget's concepts of assimilation and accommodation may be associated with Vygotsky's ZPD in that effective reaction should reflect the closeness of new knowledge to old (de Bot, 2005). The relativity of actual level and potential level in terms of development in ZPD and comprehensible input in Krashen's Input Hypothesis notion of 'i+1' share similar applied formulae and levels slightly beyond capability, but identify different concepts which depend on contrasting ideas about how development is established (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998).

2.5.4 Scaffolding

The concept of scaffolding was adopted as the result of Vygotsky's interpretation of ZPD being extended in terms of social assistance by Bruner (1992) to provide the best learning conditions (Cook, 2007). Bruner (1986) and Chomsky (2006) developed the rival forms known as innate Language Acquisition Support System and Language Acquisition Device respectively. Scaffolding is the provision of timely and useful language support or mediation through collaborative interaction or social assistance to satisfy task requirements (Bruner, 1978; Donato & Terry, 1995; Lantolf & Appel, 1994; de Bot, 2006). The support features afforded by scaffolding and managed by capable peers or others include encouraging; simplifying; maintaining; marking differences between actual and ideal forms; controlling, and demonstrating (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976). Scaffolding provides the same support in terms of subject such as L1, L2, positive feedback, or negative erroneous feedback (Wertsch, 1979; Hatch, 1978; Van Lier, 1988; Brown & Rodgers, 2002).

The personal language development process starts at an individual level when children are able to progress so far independently, but experience limited functional ability in an interactive environment without the aid of an additional supportive environment such as scaffolding provided by adults or capable peers (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Research into the interaction between children and adults suggests that stronger language development, and a

greater level of knowledge and performance, result more from social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Tarone, 2009). Bruner (1992) found children are agreement-driven, whereas adults share intentions, when using scaffolding as a device to share consciousness. The process of scaffolding moves from an initial position of providing maximum support and assistance relative to level and limited progress leading to independence as a result of maximised progress, which conveniently allows testing systems to focus on independent activity at the relative level of mental development (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Young children do make an effort to 'secure agreements' from adults, likewise adults share intentions through devices- 'making a loan on consciousness,' and 'scaffolding' (Bruner, 1992).

In a form of communication children adopt invisible friends and imaginary situations as forms of play in development where interaction and cooperation with peers can be reproduced or imitated at the mental development or actual level such as arguing to prove a point, whereas adults differ by checking and confirming thoughts in communication (Vygotsky, 1978; Piaget, 1978). In terms of complex dynamic relations learning processes such as play, school instruction, and learning occur much earlier and establish current level and cognitive development as delayed processes by comparison (Krashen, 1985; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978).

Research into pairwork involving learners at various levels identified second language acquisition is accomplished through collaboration and interaction with other speakers (Lantolf, 2000; Donato, 1994), and further described as collaborative dialogue where both comprehensible input and output exchanged as language-use facilitates learning (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Swain & Lapkin's (2002) research into comprehensible output theory (Swain, 1985) suggests that language production promotes deeper processing such as paying more attention to meaning rather than comprehension (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

2.5.5 Individual Development

Fundamental factors that emerge from research identify behaviour and other features which result from early and later forms of individual development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Initial activity in terms of internalization of visual and aural fields is necessary in infant behaviour and continues throughout learning development where a child is a solo worker (Bruner, 1992; Piaget, 1978). However, independent activity as a solo worker is a situation returned to during specific tasking and testing systems throughout the learning process, which is interdependent and considered a level of mediated development (Vygotsky, 1978).

2.5.6 Mediated Development

Mediated behaviour development results in higher mental processes that are dependent upon motivation, engagement, transformations and satisfaction of structured conditions over time. Speech is therefore realised from internal to external development cycles in terms of inner, transitional or egocentric, and communicative speech established over a timeframe relating to pre-school, school, and adult categories (Vygotsky, 1978). Mediated memory results show twice the recall at 10-12 years, compared to adolescents, and adults, however significant differences exist where the process moves from being limited to memories and the transfer of facts, to a reliance on logic and formation of abstract concepts, to being fully developed and automatic, respectively (*Ibid*, 1978).

Educational requirements include being physiologically and psychologically ready, able, and willing to learn at the appropriate level to avoid difficulties. However, in terms of mediation and prearranged language, the synchronicity or interruption of the education process may be the cause of difficulties (*Ibid*, 1978).

Internalization is the process of absorbing culture in all its forms (Bruner, 1989; Vygotsky, 1978). The psychology of mental states, which include belief, desires, intentions, and feelings

expressed in symbolic systems of culture were used to create an ideal science of the mind (Bruner, 1986). A list of items selected to create an ideal science of the mind included meanings and intentions, structure and growth of knowledge, mind in its social, interpersonal and cultural context, consciousness and subjectivity, what a person thought they said or did, and all knowledge constructed were in favour of the interpretive social science method. Those items against the interpretive social science method were in favour of the empirical science method, which included responses and behaviour, processing of information, internal mental processes of the individual, and what a person actually said or did (*Ibid*, 1986).

Each processing factor including thought, intention, speech or talk, and action is supported by knowledge, which in turn is made up of facts established from beliefs taken as given (Bruner, 1956). The mediation of two modes of thought involving narrative-story telling and self, and paradigmatic-logic and science, may be how grammar became established (Bruner, 1986). Further mediation can be found with the use of the stance marking concepts such as contrasting focus on content, with focus on form opening discourse to criticism and through a sharing of culture, turn learning into a communal activity (Olson; Feldman; Bruner, 1986).

The Associate-Cognitive Creed suggests language is learned by practise in communication, and frequency of input (Ellis, 2002), but more detailed steps are realized through creative linguistic competence, which combines known utterances and frequently associated abstraction (Gass & Mackay, 2006).

2.5.7 L2 Listening Development: Syntactic Processing

2.5.7.1 Input and Intake

Reception through listening is considered the initial and therefore most important skill, which as a means of acquisition appears to be the deciding factor between success and failure (Corder, 1967; Vandergrift, 1996, 1998; Rost, 2013). The input hypothesis suggests

acquisition is the result of understanding messages from the reception of progressively more complex input, which according to Rost (2013) is simultaneously supported by appropriate stress that stimulates natural listening ability throughout the process, but the more contextualised with visual and environmental support the better the comprehensibility.

Acquisition or assimilation is the refined end of the input process known as intake and includes lexis, syntax, discourse features, length and complexity, which due to a finite mental capacity makes it particularly difficult to achieve in terms of listening and time constraints. Corder (1967) suggests that in acquisition there is a reduced amount of intake in children compared to input in adults as suggested by the difference between processes such as learning to understand spoken messages and learning syntax and lexis through listening. Another distinction is between declarative and procedural knowledge, which identifies lexis and use respectively and is highlighted by learning theory and also attracts reduced intake (Rost, 2013). Other reduced forms of intake in listening appear to be the result of restructuring and storage into permanent memory (Van Patten, 1996). Intake that is well rehearsed and becomes routine, or automatized, requires less effort (Rost, 2013).

Processability theory relates to readiness to access and ability to process information during speech production, which draws similarities with ZPD, i+1, and assimilation/accommodation requirements (Pienemann, 1999).

Comprehensible input is understood in terms of lexis, grammar and meaning in the appropriate quantity and level which becomes reduced intake. Reduced intake is then filtered by affect and restructured reflecting readiness to produce competent and comprehensible output in the form of speech and participate in conversation (Krashen, 1985; Rost, 2013). Input that is comprehensible is based on the expectation of what would be said as opposed to what is actually said. Language which learners receive and use to construct L2 grammar is

modified by native speakers in all areas such as pronunciation, grammar, and lexis in the form of simplified foreigner-talk (Ferguson, 1971). Ferguson's research identified the unnecessary addition of 'to' with infinitive, and ignoring the Direct Object marker as common input modifications presented among learners of Spanish. This differed in the case of learners of Arabic where over-generalisation of 3rd person masculine singular, and ignoring the 3rd person 's' were more common. Elaboration is found to be a necessary modification where the reference made by object pronouns is not understood, and is remodified fully to the original phrase (Gass & Varonis, 1985).

There appears to be a connection between dynamical systems theory where the system of learning is in a continuous state of flux in an interactive environment and developmental stages (de Bot, 2006). This reflects the transfer and/or rejection of language depending on the relative level of ZPD, and could be associated with short to long-term memory store, recall and forgetfulness. The actual level and potential level may change and adapt, and are relative only through interaction, dependent on the learner, which could link Vygotsky's, Piaget's, and Krashen's views on Input Hypothesis and ZPD meeting and expanding, and the optimal learning situation with extended potential in maximum 'accommodation' taking place.

According to Rost (2013) fossilization is a limiting factor, the finality of which may be lessened allowing L2 understanding to continue to develop by using compensatory strategies such as inferencing, detection or discovery (Page 51 refers).

Bottom-up processing and top-down processing base inferences on perceptual cues taken from incoming language boundaries, and expectations and predictable generalisations cued by the incoming language respectively (*Ibid*, 2013).

Attending to form generally is inhibited in a listening context due to time constraints, attending to both content such as lexical items and the grammatical form of the utterance, and

competing for limited processing capacity in short-term memory (Van Patten, 1990; 1996). Input processing principles in a listening context appear to follow a sequential order in terms of cost to attention and duration such that:

1. Input is processed for meaning before form.

2. Content words are processed.

3. Lexical items are processed before grammatical for semantic information.

4. Meaningful morphology is processed.

5. Other informational or communicative content is processed (Rost, 2013).

Further analyses at the discourse level identified implicit rules for processes involving routine control of conversational features established through intention and expectation of events during interaction, which differ between cultures.

Cross-cultural pragmatics research identified key conversational features such as when to speak, how much to say, pacing, pausing during and between taking turns, listener cues, intonational emphasis, use of formulaic expressions, styles of cohesion and indirectness, and how they vary between cultures (Tannen, 1984). The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project identified a speaker's knowledge of cultural norms influences listening success which when compared between several languages is different in terms of directness and indirectness (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989).

2.5.7.2 Potential Difficulties

Rost (2013) points out that understanding difficulties arise from levels of phonological processing, grammatical parsing, word recognition, informational packaging, conceptual difficulty of the content, elliptical utterances where items are omitted because it is assumed to

be understood, and difficulty assessing the point or intent. Some or all examples can be cumulative leading to misunderstandings and breakdowns in communication (Rost, 2002; Bremer, Roberts, Vasseur, Simonot & Broeder, 1996; Yule & Powers, 1994).

A high degree of failure is evident in second language learning because of:

Cognitive factors: Intelligence, aptitude, and language-learning strategies (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Dörnyei, 2001).

Affective factors: Attitudes, motivation, and anxiety (Ellis, 1994). Social factors and influences underlying expected success in different cultures also contribute to success or failure (Rost, 2013).

Environmental factors: Opportunities, resources, time and timing, and teaching methods. Feedback on listening experiences should help selection and sequencing of input and produce best results (*Ibid*, 2013).

Genetic factors: Critical Period of language acquisition (Singleton, 1995).

Linguistic factors: L1 and L2 differences (Gass, 1996; Rost, 2013).

2.5.7.3 Fossilization

Any condition where intake is diminished enough and cognitive capacity is not increased the learning process enters a suspended state in a form of stasis resulting in stagnation or fossilization (Corder, 1967). Fossilization at any level of second language acquisition is the result of an internal and premature delay in the learning process facilitated by what Selinker (1972) considers is a mechanism in the latent psychological structure. Researchers appear to agree that when fossilization or stagnation takes place part or all of the acquisition has stopped and remained at an incomplete level, which at the very best is a temporary situation, but could become permanent (Hyltenstam, 1988; Celce-Murcia, 1991). Evidence of fossilized

language comes in the form of a consistently non-standard pattern of speech or language with a lack of target-like use known by teachers as fractured (Johnston, 1987). Valette (1991) researched the poor proficiency of foreign language undergraduates in the USA maintaining the importance of minimising or removing consistent examples of fossilized material before being able to tackle mistakes of more random nature. Lantolf and Appel (1994) expand on Vygotsky's (1978) view of the difficulties surrounding the method of identification where mental processes that undergo prolonged development become fossilized losing their original appearance and cannot be isolated. Research conducted by Washburn (Cited in Lantolf & Appel, 1994) identified quantitative differences in linguistic behaviour where fossilized learners at the ZPD level experience a breakdown at the input and understanding stage, and learners without difficulties are able to operate effectively (Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

2.5.7.4 Anxiety and Fossilization

Affective variables are particularly relevant in explaining fossilization and backsliding. Learners experiencing high anxiety may restrict their attention to surface-level comprehension, avoid risk-taking, and rely excessively on previously internalized, but incomplete, forms, thus reinforcing non-target-like structures (Selinker, 1972; Rost, 2013). Low self-concept exacerbates these tendencies, whereas learners with positive self-concept and high self-efficacy can leverage scaffolding, feedback, and social interaction to re-enter productive developmental cycles (Bandura, 1997; Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

2.5.7.5 Backsliding

Selinker (1972) explains that backsliding or backwash (Dörnyei, 2007) is where correct forms are made by speakers who, even after a few turns repeatedly, make routine errors thereafter. It could also be termed giving up, alternation, or regression (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Although termed differently repetition of correct language may be a temporary state

which may or may not be understood, but either way there remains the possibility of returning to the earlier remembered fossilized state.

2.5.7.6 Feedback

Interaction is believed to be helpful where language is negotiated, or feedback is provided in such a form as to identify problems or misunderstandings and subsequent correction in conversation to reach positive agreement in terms of lexis, grammar, and meaning (Hattie, 1999). Any input in less than acceptable target language is termed deviant and provides negative feedback (*Ibid*, 1999). The interaction hypothesis is mainly concerned with reactive feedback, which focuses on deviant linguistic problems in implicit or explicit ways.

Implicit/Explicit Feedback

Explicit or direct, and implicit or indirect feedback are opposite ends of a continuum where pedagogically explicit input includes incorrect and correct forms as well as meta-linguistic rule-based information, which is a factual overt response, E.g.

“No, we don’t say goed* in English. We say went because it is past tense.” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Implicit negative feedback negotiates correct form, but correction is treated implicitly and there remains no guarantee that the error is heeded unless confirmation from a more direct form is utilized, E.g.

“I have a bang in her hand.”

“Oh, do you mean like a hammer?”

“Um, yeah.”

“Does she have a hammer in her hand?” (Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Gass & Mackay, 2006).

Confirmation checks and clarification requests

Components of negotiation include confirmation checks and clarification requests (Long, 1983). A confirmation check is defined as 'any expressions designed to elicit confirmation an utterance has been correctly heard or understood,' i.e.

"She has a lot of money, or…?"

"Not much money."

"Yes." (Gass, Mackay & Ross-Feldman, 2005).

A clarification request is a prompt defined as 'any expressions designed to elicit clarification of a peer's preceding utterance,' i.e.

"I don't see a ball, but I have a girl in blue."

"Blue dress?"

"Yes." (Lyster, 2004).

A comprehension check attempts to anticipate and prevent breakdowns in communication, i.e.

"Do you want me to repeat?"

"Yes, please." (Gass, Mackay & Ross-Feldman, 2005).

Recasts

Recasts are another frequent form of implicit feedback where a peer or teacher rephrases, reformulates, expands, deletes, permutes, modifies, or changes an erroneous utterance while maintaining meaning (Bohannon, Padgett & Nelson, 1996; Long, 2007). Utterances are rephrased by altering one or more components such as Subject, Verb, or Object (Long, 1996) or reformulation of all or part of an utterance minus the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). An

example of an utterance with a single error may be, "*Why * he* want this house?" where 'does' is often missing (Philp, 2003). Further examples of utterances with multiple errors, which are easy include morphological agreement error, "On the table there is a cup red*", which should be "There is a red cup on the table." (Leeman, 2003), and difficult where the forms of the words and word order are changed, "Because he wants just him for to be warm*", which should be "Oh, someone who wants just to have the warmth for himself." (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Recasts may not be seen as a correction by the learner, but as an alternative or additional way to say something where the original data remains uncorrected, which leaves little opportunity to respond through peer involvement or negotiation (Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

2.5.8 Interactional Mechanisms: Clarification, Confirmation, and Recasts

Interaction-based feedback mechanisms, including clarification requests, confirmation checks, and recasts, encourage learners to process errors and modify output in real time (Gass, Mackay & Ross-Feldman, 2005; Bohannon, Padgett & Nelson, 1996). These mechanisms align with sociocultural perspectives of learning, where scaffolding and collaborative dialogue within the ZPD enable learners to convert potential knowledge into actualized language use (Vygotsky, 1978; Bruner, 1992; Lantolf, 2000). Recasts, while often effective in providing unobtrusive corrective input, may be less salient for learners who do not recognize them as corrections, highlighting the interplay between feedback type, learner attention, and metacognitive awareness (Nicholas et al., 2001).

2.5.8.1 Ignoring

Ignoring can be described as either failing to recognize or explicitly report negative evidence of correction (Gass & Mackay, 2006; Harmer, 2007).

2.5.8.2 Interpretation of Intended Feedback

The importance in interaction and communication is to ensure the message sent is the same as the message received, which requires mutual recognition of a process where target language is the same as intended language, interpretation supports understanding, and participants share the same perception, i.e. a phonological error should be perceived and understood as phonological feedback. Research identified learners' perceptions differ in accuracy according to the type and focus where lexical and phonological feedback is perceived more readily than morphosyntactic feedback (Mackay, Gass & McDonough, 2000). One example identifies intent and interpretation of morphosyntactic feedback is perceived as such, i.e.

"Three key*"

"Three?"

"Key*, er, keys.", however another example is perceived incorrectly as being about lexis and lost, i.e.

"There is* two cups."

"Two cup-what?"

"Cups."

"Where one can put tea, how do you say this?"

"Cups."

"Okay, cups." (Gass & Mackay, 2006).

Relationships between initially erroneous forms, received feedback, and output must be noticed for modified output to be useful, which means learners must be capable of making

changes or at least able to work out how to make corrections at the appropriate level (Gass & Mackay, 2006).

Feedback on performance or understanding is information used to encourage or discourage learners. Feedback covering correction of data can become more instructional depending on the information gap to be filled or reduced and subsequently intertwined with instruction to become new instruction altogether (Kulhavy, 1977; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Research conducted by Hattie (1999) into 500 meta-analyses compared against 100 factors influencing educational achievement provided a benchmark effect size of 0.40 (S.E = 0.05), which when applied to research from twelve meta-analyses with specific classroom feedback information identified an average effect size of 0.79 (twice the average); direct instruction 0.93; student's prior cognitive ability (0.71); socioeconomic influences 0.44; and homework 0.41 (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Hattie and Temperley's (2007) research from 74 meta-analyses shows most effective forms of feedback include cues and reinforcement to learners, the higher effects of which are from receiving post-task feedback and direct instructions on how to complete it effectively, and students' prior cognitive ability.

Effectiveness is also positive in terms of specific and challenging goals, but only with low task complexity, and when there is a low-level threat to self-esteem (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

The fewer the extrinsic rewards such as praise or even punishment in feedback the better the performance and achievement (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In a case where the frequency of classroom feedback among 65 teachers was reported as low, and takes the form of praise there was evidence of negative outcomes (Bond, 2000).

Four levels of feedback focus on what is correct/incorrect in a task as well as processes, strategies, and compliments (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Corrective feedback is designed to reinforce lesson objectives and commonly attracts 90% of teachers' questions in classrooms, whereas other errors are basically unchecked (*Ibid*, 2007).

Despite the feeling of feedback being desirable (Ashford & Cummings, 1983), positive reinforcement of correct responses feedback appears more effective than giving feedback on incorrect responses (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996), but generally feedback and classroom error correction are psychologically reassuring (De Luque & Sommer, 2000). Confidence in the feedback process or correctness is important because ongoing effort and study is required to maintain interest (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

2.5.9 Feedback, Motivation, and Self-concept

Feedback is most effective when it balances accuracy with encouragement, fostering a low-threat environment that supports self-concept and intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Learners with positive self-concept and high self-efficacy interpret feedback as information for improvement rather than as criticism, which promotes persistence and engagement with challenging input (Bandura, 1997; Marsh & Martin, 2011). Conversely, learners with fragile self-concept or high language anxiety may perceive corrective feedback as evaluative, leading to disengagement, avoidance behaviors, or fossilization of errors (Selinker, 1972; Rost, 2013).

2.5.10 Timing, Frequency, and Form of Feedback

Immediate feedback is most effective for lower-complexity tasks or routine error correction, allowing learners to correct mistakes before they are consolidated (Kulik & Kulik, 1988; Schroth & Lund, 1993; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Delayed feedback, conversely, is more beneficial for complex problem-solving tasks or processes requiring higher cognitive

engagement, providing learners with the opportunity to reflect and self-correct (Bond, 2000; Clariana, Wagner & Murphy, 2000).

Research highlights that feedback is maximally effective when it targets specific errors or gaps in knowledge rather than generalized praise or criticism; encourages learners to engage actively with the content, promoting reflection and self-regulation; is perceived as meaningful, credible, and relevant to current learning goals, and balances cognitive challenge with affective support, reducing threat to self-esteem (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Dörnyei, 2001).

Timing in terms of lapse between committing error and receiving feedback and lapse between receiving feedback and acquisition are important for learning outcomes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Research from 54 studies shows some delayed feedback is beneficial with an effect size of 0.36. The more common immediate feedback with easier error correction that requires little process involvement and produces faster rates of acquisition at process level during classroom activities is beneficial at 0.28, but it does not appear so effective during fluency production (Kulik & Kulik, 1988; Schroth & Lund, 1993; Swindell & Walls, 1993; Clariana, Wagner & Murphy, 2000). The lower the level of knowledge in terms of easier or more understood items the more desirable immediate correction appears, however poor presentation or lack of information value in feedback will affect learning outcomes (Howie, Sy, Ford & Vicente, 2000; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

2.5.11 Feedback, Anxiety and Comprehensible Input

Feedback serves a critical role in mediating affective responses and maintaining productive self-concept during L2 learning. Positive feedback, corrective feedback framed supportively, and collaborative peer interaction reduce anxiety and bolster learners' confidence in processing input (Rost, 2002; Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Misaligned or excessively negative

feedback, however, can undermine self-concept, decrease motivation, and exacerbate comprehension difficulties (Brophy & Good, 1986; Dörnyei, 2001).

In listening comprehension, feedback informs learners about the accuracy of their intake, helping them reconcile discrepancies between actual and potential levels of language knowledge within the ZPD (Pienemann, 1999; Swain & Lapkin, 2002). For instance, scaffolded peer correction allows learners to notice gaps in lexical, syntactic, or pragmatic knowledge without threatening self-concept, thereby supporting gradual internalization of L2 structures and reducing affective barriers to acquisition (Donato, 1994; Van Lier, 1988).

2.5.12 Social and Cultural Influences on Affect and Learning

Affective factors are also shaped by social and cultural contexts. Peer relationships, teacher expectations, and perceived status influence self-concept, motivation, and willingness to communicate (Pica, 1992; Gudykunst, 1995). In collectivist cultures, social approval and group conformity may amplify anxiety when learners fear negative evaluation, whereas in individualist cultures, personal achievement and self-expression may buffer some of these effects (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Gabriel & Gardner, 1999). Gendered socialization further modulates affect, with research indicating differential responses to feedback and interaction patterns between males and females, impacting listening comprehension and collaborative language tasks (Tiedemann, 2000; Benenson & Heath, 2006).

2.5.13 Integration of Affect, Self-concept, and Feedback in L2 Development

The interaction of affect, self-concept, and feedback creates a dynamic system where motivational and emotional variables modulate cognitive processes during language acquisition. Positive affect and constructive feedback reinforce self-concept, increasing attentional resources, supporting uptake of input, and promoting internalization of language structures. Negative affect, anxiety, or poor feedback alignment can disrupt processing,

inhibit engagement, and contribute to fossilization or backsliding (Dulay et al., 1982; Rost, 2013). Thus, effective L2 instruction requires careful orchestration of input complexity, feedback timing and framing, scaffolding, and opportunities for collaborative interaction to optimize learning outcomes and maintain learner motivation and self-concept.

2.5.14 Feedback and Individual Differences

Ongoing corrective feedback and evaluation is believed by students to be the teachers' responsibility particularly at task level, however most is student feedback at the self-level where boys attract negative remarks pertaining to effort or behaviour, whereas girls cover the ability stakes (Dweck, Davidson, Nelson & Enna, 1978). Errors and disconfirmation are most useful when perceived to lead to further learning and include processing and regulation in a positive classroom environment and peer climate. Research into Confucian-based Asian collectivist cultures shows students prefer implicit and indirect, more group-focused feedback (De Luque & Sommer, 2000), which is in contrast to individualist cultures that prefer direct feedback related to effort, use direct inquiry to seek feedback, and individual focused self-related feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Feedback is also subject to certain conditions that will facilitate the fostering of peer and self-assessment and learning from mistakes, which includes being at the appropriate level, and be clear, purposeful, meaningful, aligned with prior knowledge, and making logical connections. It also needs to relate to clear and specific goals, active processing, low task complexity, and low threat to the self or personal level. The main direction must comply with the task, processes, and regulation, rather than self. These conditions highlight the climate needed to foster peer and self-assessment, and allow for learning from mistakes (*Ibid*, 2007).

2.5.14 Implicit and Explicit Feedback

Implicit feedback, such as recasts or confirmation checks, provides corrective information in a subtle, non-confrontational manner. This form supports self-concept by reducing perceived threat to the learner's competence, particularly for those with heightened anxiety or lower self-efficacy (Lyster, 2004; Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada, 2001). However, implicit feedback relies on learner noticing and interpretation; without attention and cognitive engagement, errors may persist uncorrected. Explicit feedback, conversely, provides clear, overt correction often accompanied by meta-linguistic information, enhancing comprehension and supporting the development of explicit knowledge (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004). While explicit feedback may temporarily increase affective stress, it can reinforce self-concept in learners who perceive challenges as opportunities for growth rather than threats to ability (Dweck et al., 1978; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

2.5.15 Accuracy and Meaning

Researchers agree both accuracy and meaning are required for total language use and understanding, but the process of reaching the required level of correct acquisition is split between options, one of which is controversial. The controversial option suggests the approach is dichotomous and involves variation between meaning or production encoded as focus on form and accuracy encoded as focus on forms in exercises (Ellis, 2002: Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). Others consider the distinction a continuum and favour focus on form as instruction directed at establishing form-meaning mapping, and focus on forms instruction focused on accuracy through traditional controlled exercises (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Easier and lower-level accuracy instruction focuses directly on a particular item, but in isolation. Subsequent connections through elaboration or extension of the item may alter the meaning of the originally practiced or learned single item, but may as easily be remembered and used as a series of chunks. In a focus on forms viewing the larger picture

helps determine the correct response in terms of accuracy of specific items, i.e. for the sentence 'I_____ (live) in Oman.' to mean anything and be understood additional instruction such as [Present tense] would make 'I live in Oman.' the clear response, however 'I_____ (live) in Oman for fourteen years, but now I live in the UAE.' can only be 'lived'. If still viewed in isolated chunks based on single isolated item learning the latter example may still be perceived as 'I live in Oman; for fourteen years; but now I live in the UAE!' Despite having to distinguish between communicative and learning contexts, any intended context may also be circumvented by learners (Batstone, 2002). This situation draws on different effects between explicit instruction, which can be deductive with the aid of a full explanation or inductive with limited direction, and implicit instruction, which involves learners blindly memorizing instances or inferring rules without awareness or intention (Dekeyser, 1995; Reber, 1976).

2.5.16 Focus on Form and Forms

Feedback interacts with instructional focus, whether on isolated linguistic forms or on form-meaning mapping within communicative contexts (Ellis, 2002; Doughty & Williams, 1998). Focus on forms supports accuracy in controlled exercises, while focus on form integrates corrective input into meaningful communication, reinforcing both comprehension and production. Effective feedback aligns with the learner's developmental stage and cognitive load, ensuring that attention is directed toward appropriate linguistic features while maintaining engagement and positive affect (Van Patten, 2004; Norris & Ortega, 2000).

2.5.17 Feedback as Input

Corrective feedback is a response to learner utterances containing an error in the form of an indication an error has been committed, provision of a correct target form, or meta-linguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these points. Some types of corrective feedback provide a spectrum of evidence from negative to positive and others

provide both negative and positive types (Ellis & Sheen, 2006). The form of corrective feedback that benefits acquisition is undecided due to a conflict of theoretical opinion whereby acquisition is dependent upon positive evidence, and the problematic view is where development of explicit knowledge is dependent upon negative evidence (Krashen, 1982; Schwartz, 1993). Similarly, in pedagogy the best way to conduct error correction appears to be based more on tradition and received opinion than evidence.

Positive evidence leading to acquisition has been identified through explicit feedback as a clear indication of being corrected and implicit feedback in the form of recasts, but only in the event of correction is it noticed by the learner (Long, 2007). Negative evidence leading to development of explicit knowledge is evident in explicit and meta-linguistic feedback when indicating incorrectness, such as "No, not goed.*" and "You need past tense." respectively, but for implicit feedback it remains unclear as to whether learners may not notice the intention of correction (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Nicholas, Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

Corrective feedback can also be extended to different forms such as 'corrective recasting', which involved repetition of deviant utterances with erroneous parts highlighted, followed by recasts (Doughty & Varela, 1998) or modification of a learner's output through 'interactionally modified input' where corrective feedback arose during negotiation for meaning post-communication breakdowns (Mackay, 1999).

Lyster (2004) identified some forms of corrective feedback such as clarification requests of an utterance that has been misunderstood, and elicitation of correct form known as prompts, which are more likely to lead to modified output than recasts. This according to Sheen (2004) is supported by research that suggests that learners do not consider modifying output following recasts worthwhile.

The table below (Table 2.1.1) summarises instruction constructs including feedback constructs by highlighting the difference between focus on form and focus on forms instruction and reflects the type of correction as instruction (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2006). The important distinctions include all corrective feedback strategies that can exploit focus on form and focus on forms, memorizing is what it is and has no specific focus, and output-based instruction forms exploit focus on form and focus on forms independently, although recent studies have focused on communicative language and the use of focus on form.

Table 2.1.1 lists single instructional constructs for clarity purposes, but are expected to be in the form of umbrella items or a cluster of options (Lightbown & Spada, 1990).

Table 2.1.1 Instruction and Feedback Constructs.

Construct	Brief Definition	Basic Type
A1. Explicit instruction	Overtly direct knowledge of a linguistic feature	
a. deductive	rule explanation	forms
b. inductive	rule discovery	
A2. Implicit instruction	Covertly provide data relating to a target feature	
a. memorizing instances	Process input to remember text	neither
b. input-flooding	process input for meaning	form
B1. Input-based instruction	provide data through noticing	
a. enhanced input	highlighting	form
b. structured input	requiring a response through conscious attention	form
B2. Output-based instruction	Target language production opportunities	
a. focused tasks	without informing or telling	form
b. test-manipulation activities	Mechanical production	forms
c. text-creation activities	Creative production	forms
C1. Implicit corrective feedback		
a. input-providing	Provides input containing target structure covertly	either
b. prompts	Or stimulates production covertly	
C2. Explicit corrective feedback	Overt indication that errors have been made	either

Research into the effect of instruction on acquisition requires a basis for selection and is accomplished by breaking the range of levels down into linguistic targets from phonological

to lexical to grammatical to pragmatic where early Form Focused Instruction research focused on grammatical features and more recent interest is in pragma-linguistic features (Rose & Kasper, 2002). Another level of research exploits areas where the problematic features, regardless of reason for the error, become the selected items of interest, i.e. earlier studies of English-speaking learners of French show consistent failure in using certain tenses accurately, despite several years of content-based instruction in an immersion scenario (Harley, 1989). Similarly, another problematic theme involves French grammatical gender, but due to the allocated remedial nature creates a situation of grading by grammatical complexity (Lyster, 2004). In one approach complexity is defined in terms of whether a grammatical rule is categorical or prototypical and applied systematically due to allomorphic variation. It can be confounded with ever rarer categorical rules the more authentically varied and difficult the natural language setting becomes (DeKeyser, 1995). Another approach is interested in whether target grammatical items were selected based on being simple or complex (Robinson, 1996).

L2 proficiency involves the relationship between grammatical complexity and learning difficulty, which when analysed at the individual level could relate knowledge learned at particular development stages and more importantly determine particular items in degrees of difficulty at a personal level for each development stage. Acquisitional sequence research provides another alternative as a base of selection, i.e. choosing question forms through established stages of acquisition (Mackay, 1999; Pienemann, Johnston & Brindley, 1988). Questions appear to have five developmental stages, the stage of which a learner has reached prior to instruction needs to be identified and compared to how far they have progressed to determine the effects (Mackay, 1999; Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Some researchers select target features based on linguistic theory in SLA involving prediction of learning difficulty such as parameter-setting in the universal grammar model where English and French

verb/adverb positions are compared (Trahey & White, 1993). Drawing on a psycho-linguistic account of input-processing, involving the prediction of learning difficulty, researchers argue interlanguage processing principles help guide attention to linguistic forms in the input and attempt to discover under what conditions learners may or may not make connections between form in input and a meaning, and the processes initially brought to acquisition (Van Patten, 2004). Selection is therefore based upon more than one method in many cases. Despite a final selection based on whether a plausible explanation for item choice could be found, the advantages include being empirical, replicable, high face validity, and teachers are likely to employ valid criteria relating to information-processing load.

2.5.18 Feedback as Input and Mediated Learning

Corrective feedback functions not only as an evaluative tool but also as a source of input, providing opportunities for learners to notice gaps between their output and target forms, thereby triggering internalized processes of self-monitoring and restructuring (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Long, 2007). Interactionally modified input, including clarification requests and corrective recasts, creates conditions for negotiation of meaning, scaffolding learner attention, and fostering acquisition through both comprehension and production cycles (Mackay, 1999; Rost, 2002). In this way, feedback operates as both cognitive and affective mediation, integrating language input with self-concept, motivation, and attentional engagement.

2.5.19 Summary

In sum, feedback in L2 learning is a dynamic, multi-faceted construct. Its effectiveness depends on alignment with learner developmental stage, task complexity, affective state, and self-concept. Interactional feedback facilitates negotiation of meaning, supports scaffolding within the ZPD, and promotes both procedural and declarative learning. Implicit and explicit feedback forms offer complementary advantages, mediating anxiety and enhancing motivation, while timing, frequency, and focus ensure feedback contributes meaningfully to

acquisition, rather than merely providing evaluative judgment. Feedback thus serves as both a cognitive and socio-affective mechanism, integral to L2 listening, comprehension, and overall linguistic development.

2.5.20 Feedback and Acquisition

Listening experiences that stimulate verbal interaction present an opportunity for participants to apply new words and structures to the situation. Interaction contributes to acquisition by a series of controlled manipulations (requests for clarification), through application of negative feedback to aid identification of errors (peer recasts), and encouraging pushed output of new items to present ideas. Negotiation of meaning in interaction aids both listening development and language acquisition. The conversational format produces potential clarification stages, which provide opportunities to respond by repeating or modifying the original message until it has been completely understood (Rost, 2002).

2.5.21 Feedback and Its Role in L2 Acquisition

Feedback functions as a critical mediator between language input, learner cognition, and affective factors such as anxiety and self-concept. Interactional feedback, especially when it identifies misunderstandings or deviant forms, promotes negotiation of meaning, which in turn facilitates accurate intake and acquisition of lexis, grammar, and discourse structures (Hattie, 1999; Long, 1983). Feedback is not merely corrective; it contributes to the development of learners' metalinguistic awareness, self-efficacy, and capacity to monitor their own output (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Oliver, 2002).

2.5.22 Strategies to Address Listening and Comprehension Difficulties

Strategies are deliberate mental or behavioral devices that learners employ to enhance L2 acquisition, particularly listening comprehension, and can operate at cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social levels (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 2001).

Effective strategy use requires awareness, practice, and integration with linguistic knowledge to avoid fossilization or reliance on expedient but inaccurate forms.

2.5.23 Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies involve direct manipulation of linguistic material or problem-solving techniques to improve understanding. Common strategies include:

Prediction and Inferencing: Anticipating lexical, syntactic, or pragmatic content based on context to fill gaps in comprehension. This reduces processing load when exact recognition fails (Rost, 2002).

Translation and Code-Switching: Employing L1 equivalents to access meaning, though this may interfere with direct L2 processing and risk fossilization of errors if overused (Cohen, 1998).

Repetition and Rehearsal: Engaging in subvocal or overt repetition to solidify recognition of sounds, words, and phrases (Oxford, 1990).

Segmentation Strategies: Using stress patterns, syllable boundaries, and prosodic cues to identify word boundaries and facilitate word recognition (Cutler & Butterfield, 1992; Rost, 2002).

2.5.24 Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive strategies involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating comprehension to optimize listening outcomes:

Directed Attention: Deliberate focus on phonological or lexical cues while ignoring irrelevant stimuli.

Monitoring and Self-Correction: Checking comprehension during interaction or immediately after exposure, enabling learners to adjust hypotheses about meaning (Rost, 2002).

Task Planning: Setting sub-goals, such as listening for key content words, or adjusting listening speed or repetition when dealing with complex input.

2.5.25 Affective Strategies

Affective strategies manage emotional factors such as anxiety, motivation, and confidence, which directly influence perception and processing of auditory input:

Anxiety Reduction: Techniques such as deep breathing, positive self-talk, and setting realistic expectations help prevent defensive listening strategies that rely solely on top-down guessing.

Motivational Regulation: Maintaining interest and persistence when input is complex or rapid, avoiding reliance on avoidance strategies that compromise acquisition (Rost, 2002).

2.5.26 Social Strategies

Social strategies exploit interaction and collaboration to enhance comprehension:

Clarification Requests: Asking interlocutors to repeat, paraphrase, or simplify input to negotiate meaning.

Cooperative Listening: Engaging in paired or group activities to share knowledge and fill comprehension gaps collectively.

Modeling and Imitation: Learning from proficient speakers' pronunciation, stress, and intonation patterns through observation and shadowing (Chaudron, 1988).

2.5.27 Noticing and Input Processing

Noticing is critical for L2 acquisition, linking perception of input to intake. Learners benefit from:

Modified Input: Slower speech, careful articulation, prosodic enhancement, and increased redundancy aid recognition and comprehension, particularly in initial stages of acquisition (Parker & Chaudron, 1987; Long & Larsen-Freeman, 1991).

Interactive Feedback: Peer and teacher feedback during conversation encourages attention to deviant forms and promotes metacognitive awareness of errors (Swain & Lapkin, 1999).

Exposure to Varied Input: Balanced exposure to both comprehensible input and more natural unmodified speech, encourages adaptive listening strategies and tolerance for variation (Rost, 2002).

2.5.28 Bottom-up and Top-down Processing

Listening strategies must integrate bottom-up and top-down processes:

Bottom-Up: Phonological decoding, word recognition, and syntactic parsing enable comprehension of individual items and sentence structures. Reliance solely on bottom-up processing may fail when input is rapid, accented, or partially obscured (Rost, 2002; Field, 2008).

Top-Down: Use of schema, contextual clues, and prior knowledge supports inference, compensating for gaps in bottom-up recognition. Excessive top-down reliance may mask gaps in phonological or lexical competence, potentially reinforcing errors. Effective strategy use balances these approaches depending on task demands.

2.5.29 Dealing with Misunderstandings and Accent Variation

Misunderstandings are inevitable in L2 listening. Strategies to mitigate their effect include:

Repair and Confirmation Techniques: Use of clarification requests, paraphrasing, and repetition to resolve comprehension breakdowns.

Awareness of Sociolinguistic Variation: Recognizing that accent, intonation, pitch, and speech rate influence perception and intelligibility. Learners may need explicit instruction in cross-cultural prosody and pragmatics to reduce misinterpretation (Abe, 1998; Chun, 2002; Pickering, 1999).

Attitude Management: Cultivating openness to non-native pronunciation and variable input reduces the negative impact of bias on comprehension (Munro & Derwing, 1995; Anderson-Hsieh & Koehler, 1988).

2.5.30 Word-Level Decoding Strategies

Effective decoding strategies address multiple potential causes of failure at the word level:

Recognizing completely unknown words via context and inferencing.

Matching spoken forms to known lexical items.

Distinguishing phonologically similar words.

Activating word meaning for recognized forms.

Correcting misaligned or partial recognition based on semantic and syntactic cues.

By combining attention to lexical, grammatical, and conceptual features, learners can reduce communication breakdowns and improve comprehension accuracy (Field, 2008; Rost, 2002).

2.5.31 Strategies

Strategies refer to mental or behavioural devices used by students to learn or communicate and include techniques covering memory improvement, studying and test taking (Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 2001). Although designed to promote and encourage improvement, efficiency and effectiveness strategies are forms of intervention, which require learning and successful practice in their own right and presumably need careful consideration with regard to ZPD,

i+1, scaffolding, and assimilation and accommodation as with any language or skill and the learning process. Success in language learning and test taking depends upon high maintenance of both language ability and associated strategy ability because a reduction in graded ability can be determined by limitations presented by either or both abilities. Associated strategies reflect use, which can be sub-divided into retrieval, rehearsal, cover (control perception), and communication (Cohen, 1998) and includes listening. Listening is further sub-divided into current use and longer-term learning, however learning and use distinctions continue depending on whether they are primarily cognitive, metacognitive, affective, or social (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). The number, diversity, and cross-sectional exploitation of categories create problems of understanding, absorption, ability, use, capacity, and timing, and have become unwieldy as a result. Learners may employ a separate use strategy such as L1 code-switching or transfer intended to fill a gap, benefit communication, fluency and survival thereby saving face, but the original aim of L2 learning is relegated so that another source of error may become established as intake instead. This situation is not limited to transposing one word for another because the process can suffer a knock-on effect where the assimilation and accommodation of both items and rules are subsequently affected. Incorrect or substitute input may fossilise with or without choice, and be triggered or selected for the sake of expediency, but in terms of informed choice there may be too much to process, activate and do correctly, backed up by the fear of being incorrect in a timely manner. Even given time to process and attempt new or unfamiliar language it needs to be learned, which means enduring the transition from use to learning (Rost, 2002).

2.5.32 Word Recognition

Listening and comprehension necessitates processing what is heard as input and the subsequent recognition of words and meaning in fluent speech as intake (*Ibid*, 2002).

Examples of words produced or received in speech can either appear as a string of continuous sound, a series of phrasal forms and intermittent pauses, a series of sounds and pauses, or a mixture of any or all options depending on whether it is native level speech, child-directed speech or foreigner talk (*Ibid*, 2002). The process of learning L1 and other languages from the beginning to maturity presents an ongoing process whereby recognition may be the most problematic process in listening due to unreliable cues, delays, fluid boundaries, and lack of knowledge of basic meaning (*Ibid*, 2002). Phonotactic language is feature-rich and includes identifiable word boundaries, and ordered phonetic and prosodic sounds within words that aid language recognition through listening, but must be learned to become knowledge (*Ibid*, 2002). As listening and knowledge develop and the input becomes faster and less clear the learner identifies L1 characteristics and more helpful features naturally through a process of exponential exposure and reduction of sensitivity (*Ibid*, 2002).

2.5.33 Word Boundaries

The lack or interference of word boundaries in speech prevents the inexperienced listener from fully identifying or recognizing language in communication, which results in various degrees of failure. The main source of confusion in L2 comprehension is from misunderstanding or non-understanding or both as a result of incorrect or missing sound or word boundaries and/or insufficient word meaning knowledge, which may also be the result of blurred, missed, or non-existent boundaries. Even in the case of L1 speakers' utterances or parts may simply be missed, unheard, interrupted, or misinterpreted (*Ibid*, 2002).

The recognition of words in utterances involves several simultaneous processes, which all appear to require a 'likelihood of appearance' factor based on an individual knowledge store:

1. Interaction of perceived sound and knowledge.

2. Sequential word processing involves syntactic and semantic constraints used to identify final and initial sounds that share a rule-bound boundary.

3. Clues include sound sequencing and lexical stress.

4. Limited retrospective delay and looping unrecognised words forms part of the process.

5. Elimination of contenders based on acoustic analysis (*Ibid*, 2002).

Each part of the conversation process can be affected by imperfect or erroneous input or recognition, but despite this success usually occurs by inferencing (*Ibid*, 2002).

2.5.34 Segmentation and Variation

Word recognition is possible due to fluency characteristics such as segmentation and variation, which identify initial word boundaries based on stressed syllables and differentiation, and limited acoustic input based on a benchmark language variation. The easiest way to identify the boundary at the start of each word in an utterance, 90% of content words in particular, is by the stress on the first syllable (Cutler & Butterfield, 1992; Sajavaara, 1986). In many cases involving words such as post-positions in Japanese stress and explicit emphasis is employed to promote boundaries and accuracy, but also to confirm meaning. Variation of language from an ideal neutral form results in an augmented dialect or poorly learned or pronounced articulation which creates recognition difficulties and depends on inference from partial acoustic input to interpret allophonic variations (Rost, 2002).

2.5.35 Intonation

The separation between high and low-key utterances is considered a cue, the research of which identified a mismatch between the lexico-grammatical structure and intonation resulting in several problems from a cross-cultural perspective (Davies & Tyler, 1994). In one situation research into Chinese adults learning English in the USA used high-key

utterance onsets which were interpreted by native speakers as a criticism or distancing (Pickering, 1999). In another situation a native speaker interrupted a Chinese laboratory assistant when a high to low pitch drop was interpreted as a cue to speak. In the USA Japanese ESOL students and native speakers' interaction was used to analyse learning and fluency affected by intonation, and foreigner talk as simplified input, results of which suggested is important for communication, listening comprehension, and the role of input in acquisition (Chafe, 1994). Cross-cultural research conducted into Japanese and English heightened pitch identified psychological involvement or emphasis is a feature (Abe, 1998). Higher, expressive pitch was used in a cross-cultural study of pitch and politeness (Loveday, 1981) where only Japanese males felt feminine and thus uncomfortable when intonating politely in English, whereas according to Chun (2002), research effects appeared to convey boredom and detachment rather than politeness. Despite differences cross-cultural pragmatics can be taught in the ESOL classroom through explicit and heightened awareness (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Kaspar & Rose, 2001; Hughes, 2006).

2.5.36 Prosody

Listening is seen as easy when received through interaction and is relatively fast and natural, whereas listening from production that is firstly written then read aloud with special prosody is the hardest reception of all. The latter form is slow, isolated, unnatural with product that contains special lexicon, syntax and covert prosody. Reading the information is harder than producing interactive speech. Processing conversation is the base form so anything else will require effort and thus anxiety to process as a result of forced learning. Learning all skills simultaneously will detract from excellence in one skill and inherently create confusion and error perhaps similar to backsliding (Hughes, 2006).

2.5.37 Perception

Perception evolves as a result of speech segmentation and word recognition and can be divided into two forms. Categorical perception requires identification and contrasting of sounds in phonetic speech and continuous perception is the ability to hear sound sequence combinations. Perceptual constancy relates to tolerance of acoustic variability in terms of rate and accent/dialect change, which is needed to identify nuances in meaning (Rost, 2002).

2.5.38 Lexical, Grammatical, and Conceptual Problems

L2 listening problems are generally the result of multiple causes which can lead to communicative breakdown:

Lexical – ambiguity, substitution, inaccessibility, mishearing, false cognates.

Grammatical – ellipsis, difficult construction.

Conceptual – mismatching schema, minimal elaboration, false assumptions, getting to the point, intent, information packaging, unfamiliar content, and routine (*Ibid*, 2002).

Limited world knowledge results in reliance on linguistic information. Abstraction is more problematic in terms of low-use items and subordinate syntactic structures (*Ibid*, 2002).

2.5.39 Hearing Loss Strategies

Learning strategies such as those involving expected sequencing, cue identification, and relevance support word recognition, however some are detrimental. The areas that can be most affected by strategies include recognition, understanding, and comprehension in situations devoid of visual stimuli such as during telephone conversations (Rost, 2002).

2.5.40 Noticing

Noticing aspects of culture and language selection and use occurs simultaneously and facilitates learning L1 phonology, syntax, lexis, and discourse patterns (Rost, 2002).

2.5.41 Modified Input

Modified input may present improved opportunities for adults due to the lack of support and L2 access experienced during relative L1 learning experiences. Foreigner talk reflected linguistic adjustments or modified input (Parker & Chaudron, 1987; Long & Larsen-Freeman, 1991) in the form of phonology, morphology, and semantics. The modified input involved speech at a slower rate, increased stress and pauses, careful articulation, wider pitch range, and no contractions. At the morphological level simple, short, well-formed utterances, few ellipses, and more questions were experienced. And at the semantic level more redundancy, higher frequency of content words, concrete references, and fewer idioms were employed. In contrast more normal experiences are thought necessary through elaboration, rephrasing, examples and confirmation (Chaudron, 1988). Modified input and compensatory strategies may contribute to deviant language provision. Interestingly English L1 students of L2 French instruction in Canada score highly in Listening comprehension, but fossilise in terms of productive control of grammar and lexis (Swain & Lapkin, 1999). The comprehensible output hypothesis recognises that listening proficiency is gained by semantic-pragmatic means and free of processing unfamiliar or difficult structures. The effort of composing new structures far outweighs simply comprehending them (Swain, 2000). Modified speech may be undermining the learners' natural processing ability, and not helping at all contrary to expectations (Rost, 2002).

During L2 listening development phonological and lexical processing may result in slower lexical recognition because a learner processes information in compound rather than the quicker coordinate bilingual style (Churchland, 1999; Rost, 2002).

2.5.42 Timing

Comprehensible input is affected by phonetic, prosodic, pausing, pace, and speed factors. Phonological coding is word-spotting and competence is enabled through lexical

segmentation. Rate and identity of stressed syllables marking new content words (85%) are aided by lexical segmentation strategies, which are only partly acquired in L2. English is a trochaically timed language using stress peaks as important indicators of processing segments. Metrical segmentation strategies between L1 and L2 that are similar may result in positive transfer making L2 aural perception easier. Lexical segmentation is the process of recognising words in speech, but due to unreliable markers to identify boundaries it remains difficult to achieve. This can result in delays. Error analysis reveals phonological coding and word recognition difficulties and even though individual words and phrases are known, the live element creates a barrier to successful execution (Kim, 1995; Ross, 1997). Input phonetic quality in its original and unadulterated form is gradually eroded by a process: perceived degrading through assimilation, prosodic patterns affecting word stress, and varying rate of input all affect comprehension. A Chinese Whispers task helps to illustrate the point in that an original utterance is passed on or relayed through a process of input, intake, and output along a line of participants and the final utterance compared to the initial one. Ideally the results should be identical, however in reality words may be altered or missed out altogether with the meaning intact. This could be the result of mishearing, lack of attention, short-term memory limitations, discomfort, or more importantly self-correction based on comparison of what is known to be the correct utterance from experience and knowledge, e.g., famous quotes. In a worse case a total communication breakdown ensues as a result of word replacement, loss of others and meaning. Simple listen and repeat gives way to listen and attempts to make sense of word choice and meaning options and repeat, which are correct but incur time delays. Partial or incorrect second options require even further interference in the form of repair strategies, which may or may not be correct or leave the meaning intact, and incur further delay. Bottom-up processes in listening include speech perception and word recognition, which provide comprehension data. A lack of recognisable cues results in

reliance on fall-back strategies such as semantic expectations and generalisation, which are top-down processes. Uncertainty and fear of tricks may result in exclusive reliance on survival top-down strategies or a shuttling situation such as top-bottom-top, or bottom-top-bottom (Rost, 2002).

2.5.43 Misunderstandings

Misunderstandings are more common than realised, and despite being co-constructed in conversational scenarios they remain unnoticed or untreated unless there is some form of adverse effect on either party during interaction at which time clarification is used to resolve the problem. Research into L2 problems identified the incomplete nature of L2 and listening as prevalent factors (Rost, 2013) the research of which covers linguistic, psycholinguistic, and pragmatic approaches including studies by Hinds (1985), Esch (1992), Rost (1990), Bremer et al. (1996), and Long (1990) that focused on lexical, grammatical, and conceptual causes of note as follows:

Lexical: ambiguity, item substitution, inaccessible lexical items, mishearing lexical items, false cognates.

Grammatical: ellipsis, difficult construction.

Conceptual: schema mismatch, inadequate elaboration, false assumption of shared knowledge, indirectness (difficulty assessing the point), information packaging, unfamiliar content, and unfamiliar routine.

2.5.44 Listener Attitude to Speech Perception

Research involving the recording of three male Chinese speakers at different proficiency levels reading difficult passages at various speeds suggests there is a significant relationship between listener attitude of non-native speech and non-interactive comprehension of

connected speech, which involves the fastest and most heavily accented English, but also points to a relationship between perceived accent as attitude on perception and intelligibility as mishearing or poorer comprehension (Anderson-Hsieh & Koehler, 1988).

Munro and Derwing (1995) conducted listening research on utterances from Mandarin speakers of English and identified varied degrees of accent and comprehensibility the transcriptions were 53% error-free, and more than 33% of the errors were regularizations or omissions of function words, but the attitude towards the accent may be more subject to influence than perception of the speech itself.

Another relationship has been identified between speech perception and other social factors, including beliefs about speaker's social groups, which affects how speech is actually processed (Hughes, 2006). Gender stereo-typing affects listener's perception or expectation of how a speaker believed to be male should sound in terms of phonemes, where listeners would accept any variant in the /s/-/sh/ continuum even though males tend to use a less fronted lower frequency variant, which is more /sh/- like (Strand, 1999; Naslund, 1993).

2.5.45 Word Level Decoding

Decoding draws attention to single aspects of a particular problem, which need to take account of classifying error types, and a variety of forms, levels, and skills to deal with it appropriately (Field, 2008). Many breakdowns are essentially due to poor recognition of sounds, syllables, words, and grammatical patterns or features of intonation where a phoneme error is taken as a word-level error, which leads to word recognition failure (*Ibid*, 2008). It appears common to explain a situation where a level breakdown is identified and the problem is wrongly assumed to be that a word is not known (*Ibid*, 2008). A more complicated dynamic is in play where there can be at least six causes at word level alone. These are:

1. Completely unknown word

2. Spoken form is not known
3. Phonologically similar words
4. Spoken form is known, but unrecognised at word or sentence levels
5. Spoken form is recognised without matched meaning
6. Spoken form is recognised with incorrect meaning (*Ibid*, 2008)

The identification of problems at any level is important to distinguish between for example, a grammatical error where the durational use of present perfect is misunderstood and the learner is unaware the speaker still lives in Japan, and error perception where the 'v' is unheard changing the utterance to 'I lived':

'I've lived in Japan for ten years.'

Two problem types emerge in the form of textual explanation relating to knowledge which is a commonly used fall-back by teachers conducting aspectual practice and providing information through exposure, and process relating to listening competence gaps (*Ibid*, 2008).

2.5.46 Word Boundaries

Field (2008) identifies common problems that exist between learning and pronouncing individual items in part or independently and the spoken language. Spoken language is a stream of sounds the only boundaries of which may be identified by correct or incorrect stress, intonation, and pausing for breath, and despite being made up of various strategies of use to communicate as effectively as possible it is inconsistent and difficult for listeners to decode. Similarly, when learning language from listening, boundaries vary and at any point items may be learned incorrectly and may have a knock-on effect depending on which skills and boundaries are learned first and may have a similar cross-over effect between established L1 and limited L2 development. Systematic variation and regularising influences may occur due

to attaching words to each other, reshaping syllables, alternative weak forms for function words, short-cuts for easy articulation, and word reduction.

Redistribution: Cliticization changes stressed-unstressed syllable patterns by alternating strong-weak rhythmic patterns, i.e. S W S W-S W + S W

For example: took his hat off-tookis hatoff.

Resyllabification avoids vowel-initial words by using the consonant from the previous syllable to initialise the word, i.e. went in – when tin.

2.5.47 Weak Forms

In connected speech many forms fail to be identified or recognised in part or in their entirety due to a lack of or reduction of prominence compared to other forms such as function words that suffer in favour of meaning-bearing content words. On a larger scale the lack of detailed information coupled with a reliance on context results in errors in accuracy to wrong word and word order levels, and meaning. Numerous weak forms are caused by vowel quality, phoneme loss, lack of stress, short duration, and regional variation, which facilitate reduction in prominence where they can be missed or ignored. Despite being common it should be taught as the rule rather than incorrectly as the exception (Gimson, 1994). Field's (2008) research shows learners have greater difficulty identifying function words more accurately than content words regardless of L1 phonology they are used to and suggests learning can only be achieved by systematic and targeted practice in recognising examples in speech. Weak forms by class include:

A, an, any, some, the; at, for, from, of, to; he, her, him, his, I, me, we, she, them, us, you, your, our; who, where; am, are, be, been, was, were, can, could, do, does, had, has, have, must, shall, should, will, would, wouldn't; and, but, as, than, that, and there. An important

point is that speech alone cannot be the sole initiation of L1 or L2 language because written and spelling recognition will be disadvantaged. Examples of what is commonly heard in speech include ‘for a’ – ‘fra’; ‘of the’ – ‘uthe’ (where schwa (ə) is commonly used); and what appear to be common English L1 errors spelled and spoken such as ‘should of* done’, which should be ‘have done’ and can only be clarified using syntactic context to distinguish sounds correctly.

2.5.48 Assimilation or Modification

Assimilation or modification of words to others next in line can be easier on pronunciation where quick and responsive manipulative change of the articulators in the mouth make correct diction difficult, i.e. ‘green paint’ is easier to pronounce as ‘greem paint’ and identifies one of the five word-final consonants most likely to prove difficult: [n, t, d, s, z]. L2 listeners approximate the decoding process to a form of near-accuracy, but the trend is more likely to be word rather than phoneme level decisions. Assimilation does cause an increase in word-recognition errors in all cases, not just similar words such as ‘light grey’ being pronounced as ‘like grey’ and is confirmed as a factor in decoding failure (Koster, 1987). Brown (1990) and Gimson (1994) assume L2 listeners are unable to identify whole words due to assimilation. Trusting the beginnings and not the ends of words to reduce the effect of tampering and offset approximation may be a common strategy, but could be the cause of another problem known as clipping:

/p, b, m/ /n/ – [m] ten people – tem people

/t/ -[p; glottal stop]

/d/ -[b; glottal stop]

/k, g/ /n/-[ng]

/t/-[k; glottal stop]

/d/-[g; glottal stop]

/j/ /t/-[tch]

/d/-[dj]

/sh/ /s/-[sh; – (omitted phoneme)]

/z/-[sh; -]

2.5.49 Elision

Elision omits the sound altogether as a result of contributory factors such as speed and register or formality of speech. Elision is more frequent than assumed and the more consistent forms involve inflections especially in word final /t/ and /d/ and, as Brown (1990) concluded, between consonants. Superlatives commonly lose the final /t/ followed by a consonant, whereas past forms of verbs /t/ and /d/ are often dropped before consonants: walk(ed) past, and sometimes the consonant before the inflection is affected: clo(th)es, as(k)ed, and cos(t)s (Shockey, 2002). A high-frequency example is the negation marker 'nt, except before a vowel the final /t/ is often omitted: isn't – [izn]. Further complication comes from modification of the [n] to give hasn't paid – [hazm'peid]. Other sounds sometimes elided include /v, th, l, r, n, k/. 'The' is realised as /a (upside down e)/ or 'there's' to [ez]: armed guard-[a:m'ga:d], could take-[ku'teik], and five pm-[faipi:'em] (*Ibid*, 2002).

2.5.50 Reduction

Laver (1994) points out that all polysyllabic words can have reduced pronunciation, a good example of which identifies a reduction of form from 'actually to [ashli]' resulting from seven stages of variation. This is because of a lack of group-word importance as a way of producing a simplified chunk (Field, 2008).

2.5.51 Pronunciation

Pronunciation is described in a contradictory fashion in terms of the assessment of spoken language by institutions of assessment. American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages Guidelines in the USA for assessing L2 proficiency shows a link between pronunciation, L1 influence, and low-level proficiency, but the descriptors suggest pronunciation is relatively unimportant in determining speaker proficiency. Other tests such as IELTS identify pronunciation as the amount of strain put upon the listener (UCLES, 2003), yet others mention degrees of accent and effort to listen. Pronunciation is more quantifiable than other features and the assumed accuracy is related to oral proficiency by being relatively perfect compared to such criteria where speaking clearly or clarity is adequate for communication (Fulcher, 2000), but the effect of deviation is not. The extent of variation is not often recognised, but it is within well-defined parameters to counter changes such as noise influence, register, and dialects (Shockey, 2002). Brown (1988) shows high functional load deviations will be perceived as more serious such as when a pair of sounds have many possible minimal pairs in English. Jenkins (2000) shows meaning can be affected by peer expectation. For example, while observing six pictures, a Japanese student uttered ‘led* cars’ and even though only one picture had cars, a Swiss student misunderstood thinking ‘let* car’ meaning ‘hire car’. Bottom-up processing difficulties based on segmental errors are not covered much in pronunciation teaching. /l/ and /r/ production, and perception problems show accuracy differences are inconsistent, difficult to identify as high or low and cannot be used for assessment. It is suggested that accuracy can degrade to a point that meaning is affected (Hughes, 2006).

2.5.52 Interaction

Interaction requires systematic verbal and non-verbal methods such as turn-taking, dealing with problems, and mutual understanding, which need to be visibly comprehended by

participants to communicate competently as emphasized in a revised model of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, 2007; Kasper, 2006; Young & Miller, 2004; Young, 2008; Wong & Waring, 2010).

Conversation analysis delivers L2 knowledge to make understanding of interactional competence more specific, systematic and pedagogically sound (Barraja-Rohan & Pritchard, 1997). Applied linguistics shows language is a system comprising phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and discourse, which with interactional practices also combine to form conversation as a system which includes turn-taking, sequencing, overall structuring, and repair practices (Wong & Waring, 2010).

2.5.53 Repair

The notion of repair includes error correction and dealing with miscommunication through clarification, checking understanding, and correction in hearing, speaking, and understanding (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977). Self-corrections are a sign of oral language development (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Wong & Waring, 2010).

2.5.54 Uncertainty Markers

The practice of repair is readily abused and evident through the overuse of uncertainty markers such as ‘how you say’ or ‘you mean’, which become an automatically accepted part of any utterance. Repair is initiated at any time during turn-taking in everyday conversation and conducted by the speaker or the other learner, the preferred type of which is known as ‘Self-initiated self-repair’. The ‘same-turn repair’ with choices including insertion, deletion, replacement, or abandonment is the most employed and immediate option, which as in self-correction is evidence of oral language development (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Five types of repair initiator are used to deal with emerging problems, but may also become automatically generated as part of any utterance in conversation:

1) cut-off of an utterance or sound (e.g. ‘Thur-‘)
2) sound stretch (e.g. ‘O…h’)
3) pause (e.g. (0.3))
4) non-lexical perturbation (e.g. ‘uh’)
5) repetition (e.g. ‘school- school’)

Further problems exist where language learners may be repairing an error reflecting disfluency, but may also be emulating competent speaker behaviour or employing delay tactics for items temporarily forgotten.

2.5.55 Response Tokens

Response tokens such as ‘uh’ and ‘mm?’ have different linguistic forms for the same function in different languages. The specific placement of tokens is so varied that English uses them at points of grammatical completion with or without intonational completion; Mandarin at both points of completion; and Japanese lacks either (Clancy, Thompson, Suzuki & Tao, 1996). This means Chinese wait the longest to produce a response token and Japanese the shortest. Japanese speakers orient to smaller interactional units known as Turn-Constructional Unit (TCU) such as a word, phrase, clause or sentence that completes a communicative act. However, inexperienced learners don’t know when to interrupt or interact, which is reflected in complete silence or interruption at the wrong time (Iwasaki, 2009; Morita, 2008). Japanese speakers of English use vowel-marking as a TCU-end device to project multi-unit turns, e.g. I don’t like raining-u (Carroll, 2005). The ‘te’ form of verbs in Japanese is used at the end of a TCU to continue a story or describe a sequence of actions (Takahashi, 2009). The SVO structure in English has implications for relatively early projectability. By contrast, Japanese is late due to its SOV structure, although the adverb precedes the verb it can provide preliminary clues to predict what is to come. Learning to adjust expectations and practices in

projectability would help language learners avert cultural mishaps and fully develop their interactional competence in L2 (Wong & Waring, 2010).

Research covering the types of error, correction and their effects during and as a result of peer interaction supports the notion that there is increased potential for learning by comparison to individual means.

2.5.56 Interaction and Turn-Taking Strategies

Effective L2 interaction relies on learners' ability to manage turn-taking, repair, and response tokens appropriately within the target language. Turn-taking is guided by culturally specific conventions and language-specific cues, such as intonation, pauses, and grammatical completion (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974; Wong & Waring, 2010). Learners must learn to anticipate turn-completion points, known as Turn-Constructional Units (TCUs), which can include a word, phrase, clause, or sentence that signals an opportunity for the interlocutor to respond (Iwasaki, 2009). Misalignment in turn-taking often results in overlap, interruptions, or silence, which may affect comprehension and communicative flow.

2.6 Peer Learning

In an attempt to identify the relationship between errors, corrections and progress research has also visited motivation, self-concept, and language learning, which all have a common thread with regard to teacher and peer interaction. The goal of interaction, particularly peer interaction is to identify how peer learning fits into the formula, which Topping (2005) identified as mostly researched in the classroom in terms of peer-tutoring, cooperative learning, and peer assessment.

In a variation on the theme of scaffolding peer helper interaction is qualitatively different from the teacher/student norm whereby peer helpers are assumed to be near-relative experts with closer capabilities to their peers and the potential for mutually assured benefit from cognitive challenge in joint activities in pursuit of a shared goal (Topping, 2005).

2.7 Peer Tutoring

Peer tutoring involves participation in role-taking with a high focus on content and clear procedures for interaction such as using structured materials. Some basic forms of Peer Tutoring such as drill and practice may also restrict the full range of opportunities that could be made available to realise maximum potential, particularly when faced with the obvious benefits associated with an exchange of roles. The factors of most interest in Peer tutoring involves the ages within the pair group and the consistency of the roles played by each peer. Research by Sutherland & Topping (1999) suggests that cross-age practices only work on a fixed role basis, but is more common as the tutor takes the place of the teacher. Research conducted by Tymms et al. (2011) identified intensive cross-age Peer Tutoring in a reading context was effective, which was consistent with research carried out by Fitz-Gibbon (1978), and Greenwood et al. (1992). The results support improved cognitive development and gains in reading attainment. Although accepted as possible that same-age/skill students could exchange roles its superiority was challenged (Sutherland & Topping 1999). Despite other research identifying same-age Peer Tutoring in a reading context as achievable and effective it was not to a significant level. However, the greater number of errors made were linked to ZPD issues involving content choice and exaggerated level, perhaps due to mutual comfort and trust among same-age peers (Tymms et al., 2011). In other research involving primary maths, same-level and same-age students benefited more from responses and explanations

provided by peers, than being given the answer or being ignored, which further supports Peer Tutoring (Webb & Farivar, 1994).

2.8 Cooperative Learning

Cooperative Learning is often understood to mean getting into pairs or groups, but according to Slavin (1980), structuring positive interdependence in pursuit of a shared goal is also about synergy, and being in 'the zone' simultaneously working with and off each other through a process, which influences effectiveness.

Theoretical modelling of groups of processes influencing effectiveness requires scaffolding, which includes ZPD management, and error management in terms of detection, diagnosis, correction, and immediacy of feedback, which affect motivation and self-disclosure. Cognitively, Peer Learning involves conflict and challenge (Vygotsky, 1978), which is supported by the process of accretion, re-tuning, and restructuring by adding to and extending current capabilities, modifying, and rebuilding new understanding respectively, such as in the process of assimilation and accommodation (Piaget, 1978; Topping, 2005).

2.9 Peer Assessment

Higher education peer assessment is growing (Topping, 1998, 2005). In one cross-age Peer Tutoring Reading project in 34 classes, only 3 teachers failed to observe gains in students' motivation, confidence, enjoyment, and relating during sessions (Topping, 2005).

Piaget (1978) points out that interaction generates cognitive conflict that fosters development. In socio-cultural theory interaction mediates learning and fosters skills and attitudes fundamental to building a democratic society (Slavin, 1995; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Co-

construction of knowledge requires planning structure and organization to guide interaction where speaking is central to success (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Swain & Lapkin, 1995).

The study of classroom interaction reveals that learning outcomes are the result of both teachers' and learners' contributions where in the course of accomplishing instructional objectives interactive work takes place. For the latter, in particular between peers, the creation of other learning opportunities, both expected and unexpected, such as in practice, peers give feedback, implicitly and explicitly (Topping, 2005). Psychological and emotional dispositions as well as learner preoccupations and goals are distractions that can create or destroy learning opportunities during interactive work (Corder, 1977) to such a point where, if there is no negotiation, anything taught is not necessarily learned (Allwright, 1984). Other breakdowns during interaction could be as a result of peers and teachers recognising different aspects from the same event in class, whereby predicting the structure and priority of items, focusing on them, and teaching them forces the situation and may not be aligned with what is actually being learned (Chaudron, 1977; Alderson & Beretta, 1992).

2.10 Assessment, Feedback, and Peer Learning

Assessment in peer learning contexts integrates cognitive, social, and affective dimensions. Feedback, whether peer-to-peer or teacher-facilitated, serves multiple purposes: it identifies errors, reinforces comprehension, and supports metacognitive reflection. Formative assessment within peer interaction provides immediate, actionable guidance, while summative assessment situates performance in a broader framework of achievement, motivating learners to engage with tasks at an appropriate ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978; Black & Wiliam, 1998).

Peer assessment not only encourages learners to reflect on their own understanding but also promotes awareness of language norms, error patterns, and task expectations. Tudor (1996) emphasizes that peer evaluation depends on structured guidance from teachers to ensure constructive outcomes, while Mangelsdorf (1992) and Makino (1993) note that learner readiness and confidence significantly influence peer evaluation efficacy, particularly in written tasks.

2.10.1 Structuring Effective Peer Learning

The effectiveness of peer learning depends on careful design and ongoing support:

Small, structured groups to maximize participation and ensure all learners contribute.

Positive interdependence where each member's contribution is necessary for success (Slavin, 1987).

Task relevance and challenge to engage learners within their ZPD and promote cognitive development (Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Regular evaluation and team-building to strengthen cohesion, trust, and mutual accountability (Johnson et al., 1993; Kagan, 1995).

Scaffolding and fading of support to transition learners from interdependence to independence (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976).

Integration of motivation and affective considerations, including reducing anxiety and fostering intrinsic interest (Dörnyei, 1997; Scovel, 1978).

By combining cognitive, social, and affective strategies, peer learning can create a rich, learner-centered environment that maximizes opportunities for knowledge co-construction, skill development, and autonomous language production.

2.11 Peer and Self-Assessment

Peer and self-assessment have emerged as complementary mechanisms to teacher-led evaluation, providing opportunities for learners to take ownership of their progress and develop metacognitive skills (Topping, 2005). By evaluating peers' work, students engage in analysis of language, structure, and content, fostering awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses. Tudor (1996) emphasizes that successful peer assessment requires clear criteria, guidance, and support to avoid subjective or arbitrary judgments.

Self-assessment encourages learners to reflect on their performance, compare it against predefined standards, and identify strategies for improvement (Boud, 1995). In combination with peer assessment, self-assessment supports the development of self-regulation, autonomy, and responsibility for learning, which are core components of Vygotsky's Self-Categorization Theory and the broader sociocultural framework (Hughes, 2006).

2.12 Integrating Testing with Peer Learning

Testing can be reconceptualized as an interactive, socially mediated process rather than solely a measure of individual achievement. Opportunities for peer discussion before and after tests allow learners to negotiate meaning, clarify misunderstandings, and co-construct knowledge, thereby reinforcing learning outcomes (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Teasley, 1995). Group feedback sessions or paired review exercises can also reduce test-related anxiety while increasing engagement with the material, aligning testing more closely with classroom learning processes (Tudor, 1996).

Peer-mediated feedback leverages positive interdependence, as learners are encouraged to identify errors, suggest corrections, and collaboratively generate strategies for improvement. This approach provides multiple perspectives on problem areas, enhances motivation, and

fosters a supportive learning climate, mitigating some of the negative effects associated with traditional high-stakes assessments (Johnson & Johnson, 2008; Webb & Farivar, 1994).

2.13 Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning depends on positive interdependence (Deutsch, 1962; McCafferty, Jacobs & Iddings, 2006), which necessitates individual accountability, participation, and meaningful demonstration of personal knowledge and skills for mutual beneficial achievement of group goals (Slavin, 1987). Obvious problems exist in the form of overdependence on the more able learners to do the work or avoiding it altogether under the guise of collective responsibility or joint effort (Romney, 1997; Bruffee, 1993). However positive indicators of the success of cooperative learning activities from firm empirical evidence prevail and include gains in achievement, self-concept and interethnic relations (Brandt, 1987; Johnson, 1997).

Effective group dynamics in social psychology and cooperative learning require equal status, shared goals and guidance to achieve success (Alport, 1954), which is epitomised by Jigsaw, where learners each contribute unique information to satisfy the task requirements (Aronson, 1978; Harmer, 1998).

From a developmental psychology perspective each person constructs personal understanding through a combination of schemas, background information on the world, how it works, and experiences (Piaget, 1978). Interpretation has led to active role-playing activities where learners engage in authentic or realistic tasks (Slavin, 1995). The value of social contexts is shown through synergy (2+2=5) where an example of a pair of learners who were unable to tackle a problem individually succeeded by working together, which can be unexpected in terms of success, difference, and added value (Murray, 1982). Piaget's (1978) view of

cognitive development is that it is fixed in a sequence of distinctively graduated stages where learning cannot precede development, whereas Vygotsky (1978) views sociocultural contexts such as emulating adult behaviour and attempting communication through play and ongoing practice provides immediate influence through interaction that transcends level and years where learning can precede development. The processes involved in sociocultural understanding and communication that drives cognitive growth appear sequential in terms of being inter-psychological in a social context and then intra-psychological within the self. The ZPD is the theoretical construct that describes the distance between actual and potential cognitive ability, which can be applied to a process between a child's personal cognitive ability and what can be done in conjunction with an adult or capable peer, and can be viewed in terms of interaction and positive interdependence (Newman & Holzman, 1993).

Scaffolding (Page 44 refers) is a related concept involving interaction such as in peer and cross-age tutoring where support and guidance is provided until eventually withdrawn facilitating the transition from interdependence to independence (Wood, Bruner & Ross, 1976). Sociocultural perspectives such as peer assistance and student-centredness are reflected in positive interdependence and the community of practice, which emphasizes the relationship between actions and contexts as found in legitimate peripheral participation following an apprenticeship model (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 2002; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Looking through a cognitive psychology lens the process of ongoing repetition, and restructuring information and ideas presents the best opportunity for success (Wittrock, 1974). Evidence gleaned from groups of primary maths students showed greater success from asking and receiving assistance and explanations from groupmates than was the case when just given the answer or being ignored (Webb, 1989). The benefit of explanations and responses between peers reflects positivity of similar levels of understanding, and appreciation of the

work, and acceptance of the process (Webb & Farivar, 1994). Other techniques and practices that support Cooperative learning include dyadic script reporting (Hythecker, Dansereau & Rocklin, 1988), and argument designed to promote abilities in forming consensus through interaction (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 2002).

Peers may be disadvantaged from a motivational psychology standpoint because of the relative difficulty in seeking positive reinforcement in terms of praise and grades and being positively interdependent, which is common in a student-teacher relationship. If mutual respect for peer knowledge and sharing takes place peers will become positively interdependent of each other and the group as a whole as noted by Webb & Farivar (1994) above. Other significant success was noted in English language proficiency among second-year business administration learners in a Thai university where peer interaction followed initial teacher presentation of English through techniques such as Student Teams-Achievement Divisions, and although positive reinforcement could be shared across teams over time, grades remained the individual's responsibility (Slavin, 1995; Gomasatitd, 1997).

In Humanist psychology striving to satisfy needs requires support and interpersonal closeness coupled with the need to know, to understand and connect with something beyond self, which are important factors connecting all terms to enable growth to take place through interaction. Various aspects of second language approaches align positively with both cooperative and collaborative learning such as between input hypothesis, interaction hypothesis, output hypothesis, Self-Categorization Theory, content, individual differences, autonomy, and affective factors (Kagan & McGroarty, 1993).

SLA research covers Chomsky's (2006) language acquisition device, innate learning, and Krashen's (1985) notion that SLA is driven by comprehensible input, the level of language information above, but within the grasp of a learner, which has already been acquired, in the

same part of the brain. However, the role of interaction leading to SLA appears to be a grey area where cooperative learning is involved with simple input or learner production in the form of incorrect terminology such as interlanguage (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) or used to 'find' correct levels of language (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998). An interesting observation is that any changes in input may lead to acquisition, but there are no guarantees of facilitation (Van Lier, 1991).

Research into processes thought to increase the amount of comprehensible input includes social interaction, which appears to be limited to dyadic rather than group level (Hatch, 1978; Long, 1981), and sociolinguistic competence at a significant level (Hymes, 1972). Further research into increasing comprehensible input includes negotiation of meaning such as listeners asking for repetition or clarification, or speakers checking others' understanding (Oliver, 1998; Pica, 1996), particularly in dyads, which produce better results when the pairs are both non-native English speakers (Varonis & Gass, 1985). And finally forms of restructuring interaction such as collaborative repair and completion of utterances by others may also increase the amount of comprehensible input.

Second language proficiency can only be increased through production of output, and subsequent feedback on comprehensibility (Swain, 1985). Fluency through meaningful language use, syntactic processing of language, appropriateness, and providing opportunities for feedback from others may modify output (as comprehensible input) to aid acquisition. Long-term L2 immersion programme research in Canada revealed receptive skills were measured equally across the group, however productive skill measures were poorer among non-native speakers. Any breakdown of formats such as lockstep teaching into pairs or groups will exponentially increase the opportunities and duration of people who talk simultaneously. In research from a class of thirty L2 students the average talk time was thirty seconds per fifty-minute lesson, which increased 2000% when students were organised into

groups (Long & Porter, 1985; Deen, 1991). A three-mode study of tertiary level L2 (Mandarin) students showed a significant increase of talk time and production in favour of cooperative learning group mode undergoing a jigsaw activity, unstructured group mode, and teacher-fronted non-group mode respectively in order of success (Magee & Jacobs, 2001). Contrary to the expectation that increased, uncontrolled output, and limited monitoring may generate more errors, research has shown stasis in frequency and type, whilst increased variety of language and functions emerged (Davis, 1997; Jacobs, 1989; Pica & Doughty, 1985; Bruton & Samuda, 1980; Porter, 1983). Interaction through the output hypothesis with regard to form has proven effective by the use of Dictogloss, a task where a text is read aloud twice at normal speed, notes are taken, and dyads collaborate using the notes to rebuild the text before comparing with the original text (Wajnryb, 1990; Kowal & Swain, 1994, 1997; Nabei, 1996). Vygotsky's (1987) approach focuses on the mediation of L2 learning through contexts and experiences.

The affective domain remains crucial to the success of cooperation, the learning environment and second language acquisition, which reflects the link made between L2 motivation theory and research on groups in social psychology (Dörnyei, 1997). Ultimately, heightened motivation from positive dynamic interaction is due to engagement through peer cooperation. Anxiety and motivation are factors that can be construed as either debilitating or facilitating with the former prevailing in the L2 classroom (Scovel, 1978; Brookes & Grundy, 1990; Horowitz, Horowitz & Cope, 1986). In contrast to focus on form in an L1 setting, peer groups are more intimate and usually provide a more supportive environment, which may be supplanted by an L2 environment and help increase motivation (Barnes, 1973; Long & Porter, 1985; Littlejohn, 1982; Fitz-Gibbon & Reay, 1982). Peer collaboration has been shown to reduce the negative end of factor spectrums among L2 learners (Tsui, 1996). The view of increasing positive interdependence appears similar to suggestions for enhancing group

cohesiveness by Johnson et al. (1993) and involves proximity, peer contact, cooperation with a common agenda, celebration of mutual achievement, interactive and self-competitiveness, and group identity characteristics.

Team building and the development of trust and skills to enable group functionality is an essential factor in cooperative learning (Dörnyei, 1997). Additionally, it is suggested that team building exercises be employed at regular intervals throughout the process as well as initially (Kagan, 1995). Further agreement is the belief that ongoing group improvement and positive working relationships can be achieved through regular evaluation (Johnson et al., 1993; Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Dörnyei, 1997). Stakeholder-centredness has a similarity to learner-centredness in that the needs or preferences of participants need to be considered and met in a collaborative situation (Holliday, 2005).

Adolescent change is an important transition phase that requires mature peer-support and elementary to middle school transition requires adoption of new structures, but present fewer opportunities for interaction and cooperation. Literature is lacking (Berdt, 1999) in Peer Learning and influence, but Cooperative Learning is the exception based on social interdependence theory.

Research supports the need for teachers to structure learning situations cooperatively because cooperation promotes greater efforts to achieve, more positive relationships, and greater psychological health. Important cognitive activities and interpersonal dynamics emerge when students promote others' learning: orally solving problems, discussing the nature of concepts being learned, teaching knowledge to classmates, and connecting present and past learning (Johnson & Holubec, 2008; Rosen, Johnson & Johnson, 2008).

Cooperative Learning effectiveness depends upon small group sizes, face to face contact, deriving answers, signing to say all members understand and contribute, emphasizing

positive feedback only, and structuring group celebrations at the end of lessons (Johnson & Holubec, 2008).

Cooperative Learning must be carefully structured to include positive interdependence through three types of Cooperative Learning that have been operationalized from validated theory: formal; informal and cooperative base groups, which require personal relationships to be developed to affect social and academic integration to implement them, the quality of which accounts for 33-40% of variance in mid-school students' achievement (*Ibid*, 2008).

Research into cooperative interactions in peer tutoring among 24 secondary students identified significant increases in pre- and post-test Catalan writing attainment scores (Duran & Monereo, 2005). Patterns of sequences and styles of cooperative interaction in paired writing were active utilizing cooperative messages and reactive initiating collaborative messages between tutors and tutees respectively (*Ibid*, 2005).

Peer Learning is the acquisition of knowledge and skill through active help and support among status equals or matched companions (Topping, 2005), and is a powerful instructional strategy for inclusive education (Ainscow, 1991) that fosters skills and attitudes fundamental to building a democratic society (Slavin, 1995). Furthermore, it provides an excellent resource for building interpersonal competencies and exploiting networked learning (Heller et al., 2004), an awareness of a complex network of factors that promote or hinder development (Hogan & Tudge, 1999), mediating learning in socio-cultural theory, and Piaget (1978) states interaction generates cognitive conflict that fosters development.

Groups of processes explain effectiveness of Peer Learning (Topping, 2005) such as negotiation of meaning through dialogued interaction, which generates self-regulated shared knowledge and allows learners to jointly construct knowledge through peer scaffolding. Mutual assistance between teacher/student and student/student and transfer of control by any

one party (Teasley, 1995) requires co-construction of knowledge with a planning structure and organization to guide interaction (Monereo, 1995) where speaking is central to success. Damon and Phelps (1989) sequenced tutoring, cooperation and collaboration by ascending degree of symmetry and mutuality where McCarthey and McMahon (1992) compare previous dimensions with the concept of learning, ZPD, and discourse that help to place cooperation as a central part of a continuum (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1994) and Cooperative Learning applicable to Peer Learning as a whole.

Peer tutoring requires a skill level difference between tutor/tutee (Verba & Winnykamen, 1992), proficiency in the use of patterns of structured interaction (King et al., 1998), and someone to talk to and exchange points of view (Dantie & Dalton, 1993).

2.14 Tutoring, Paired Writing, and Regulation through Language

'Paired writing' is a method of cooperative writing that is complex and cognitively demanding, which demands explicit decision making and combines metacognitive reflection with social interaction (Camps, 1994; Topping, 2005). Former 'paired writing' research used pre- and post-test statistical analysis, questionnaires and product analysis unsuccessfully to examine processes. However, the dialogue appeared to move from Initiate Response Feedback (3 phase) to Initiate Response Feedback Collaboration Evaluation (5 phase) structure and results of the language skill test and retest showed a significant difference, which stresses instructional potential (Topping, 2005).

This process highlighted a reduction in management time, a high level of effective work time, and a high percentage of success at feedback leads to a high rate of academic learning time (Greenwood, Carta & Kamps, 1990). One problem emerged whereby students appeared to

lack the discipline to remain focused on parameters and were working outside the task (Topping, 2005).

Community interaction traditionally has the teacher as knower and role of correcting errors, which provides an insight into learners' beliefs about L2 learning, however learner involvement and training may be encouraged through beliefs that the definition and prioritisation of errors are integral in setting goals and forming learning objectives (Oskarsson, 1989; Tudor, 1996).

Four advantages of dynamic exploitation and sense of shared purpose include L1-L2 listening and thinking involvement, encouraged peer correction to identify errors and ability to correct, cooperative learning affects the belief system and allows less teacher dependence, and professionally emotionally-free adopted processes will reinforce peer interdependence (Edge, 1989).

A common thread was made apparent by Tudor (1996) where all peer interaction depends on teacher guidance in some form despite Anderson & Lynch (1988) suggesting in presentations it is best to peer evaluate, and Mangelsdorf (1992) and Makino (1993) reporting on students' attitudes to readiness in peer evaluation in written skills.

Establishing and maintaining group cohesiveness has been proven to work well subject to positive contributions, which include shared time; learning kinship; proximity; cooperation; group reward; shared success; intragroup competition; joint suffering; group legends; and group investment (Dörnyei, 2001). Interestingly group norms form spontaneously as do developed rules that can contribute to learning success, peer completion of activities, and also unexpected results produced by sharing like minds, in conjunction with, or despite, certain maintained rules in the classroom. Research has shown learner cooperation derived from educational theory and wholly based on the concept of peer collaboration (Slavin, 1996)

increases motivation, self-esteem, and confidence more than other classroom structures. Research on cooperative learning and achievement shows that many factors contribute to the impact of cooperation on motivation: cohesiveness and mutual dependence, expectancy of greater success, social and academic synergy, responsibility, varied and unique contributions, positive emotions, autonomy, satisfaction, and increased significance of effort to ability.

Motivation is a built-in striving toward more complex and differentiated development of the individual's mental structures (Vygotsky, 1978), and cognitive development (Piaget, 1978), that evolves by construction of concepts and knowledge through organization of the cognitive system and adaptation to the environment, and interaction (Kamii, Lewis & Jones, 1991) in innovative and communicative foreign language classrooms (Oxford & Sherin, 1996).

Piaget's (1978) view of learning development was that it takes place in communicative surroundings more with peer interaction than traditional teacher/student interaction in mind in order to benefit from the richness and variety of language stimulation and motivation to attain important fluency and natural pronunciation skills at as early an age as possible (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

Sociocultural cognition is environmentally conditioned development resulting from interaction in social groups and experience (Vygotsky, 1987; Chaika, 1982). Group and pair interaction always depends on the teacher, or more capable peers, acting as a facilitator or guide, the greater scaffolding support given earlier to ensure the learners constructs continue to grow stronger and more complex until increasingly self-directed and self-empowered when support is withdrawn altogether. Progression through the scaffolding process is linked to ZPD, defined as the distance between actual and potential development levels (Vygotsky, 1978).

Some researchers suggest the classroom should contain multiple ZPDs, since learners have different rates of development and are not all the same (Brown, 1994), which may prove an advantage to peer interaction and learning.

Considerations expected of teachers may also be expected of peers in that the input must be challenging and relevant in order to maintain clear and valued goals to move learners through the ZPD toward best proficiency and sustain motivation for progress to occur (Vygotsky, 1978; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

Testing and assessment brings together the different parts mentioned in this literature review from errors attracting demerits, different correction formats in terms of formative assessment and summative assessment feedback, motivation and self-concept affective factors responsible for stress and anxiety, language learning generally and also during PI and TI for all concerned, represented as a grade and level thus prompting the need to revisit the process at a higher ZPD.

2.15 Testing and Assessment

One view of testing is that it is necessary for setting standards, but remains a time consuming and alien imposition detached from teaching and learning (Ellis, 2008). However, Harrison views testing as interrelated with teaching and as such an extension of classroom work, which can provide useful feedback for improvement (Harrison, 1983). Careful preparation of test production and management is vital, and should be the domain of the teacher in terms of learning and teaching (Harmer, 2007). However, principles, techniques and application of testing invariably fall to psychometric theory and statistical probability, satisfying standards requirements, but neglecting useful function and necessary feedback, corrective or otherwise (Black & Wiliam, 1996; Ofsted, 1996).

Gerson conducted research into the importance of local and dialogic language ability and its implication for language teaching and testing (Hughes, 2006). Within Vygotsky's Self-Categorization Theory autonomy (self-regulation) is essential for development of learners higher mental functioning (Hughes, 2006). Initial child development and test sessions throughout life are times of individual endeavour where learning assistance is unavailable. It is the process of taking tests that becomes the new experience, which may be exploited before and after with peers or others, but not during the test itself.

Not only is it important to design valid and ideal questions appropriate to the task at hand, but to analyse student responses to test items, and provide adequate feedback covering right and wrong reasons for right responses and vice versa (Cohen, 1980). Priority should be given to identifying the reasons why students are having difficulty with an item and whether it is a recurring problem area shared with test takers of that and previous years, and not necessarily why students get questions right. Identifying whether a problem area is necessary for course and/or test success appears to be an obvious first step.

Comprehensible and meaningful involvement with the course and structure require matching goals at the appropriate level. Subsequent engagement with testing is dependent upon the perception of relevance on the part of both students and teachers. Despite fear, benefits include motivation towards and thought about the material to be covered in testing, particularly when forewarned in a timely manner. The test itself poses a few problems in that students may suddenly and unexpectedly get into their stride and feel satisfied they are progressing quite nicely, the illusion of which is shattered and replaced with mistrust, frustration and the onset of reinforced fear. The results however may not reflect the performance which could be the result of poor ability, misinterpretation of questions and knowledge. Other causes may be because of strange and displaced scoring sequences where relative balance of responses are mismatched to allocated scoring points, the exam being

produced independently and externally from the course material, or a combination of some or all of the above. Successful review is dependent on rationalising strengths and weaknesses, which can be gleaned from positive feedback on the knowledge, expected responses, and understanding of test question and exam processes all in the context of the course and structure (Rivers, 1968). Another source of error is present due to the lack of time allocated for students to absorb new, and reorder existing material before being forced to undergo testing on the subject. This and other situations such as teachers failing to spread the academic load equally over the term, wasting time early on and finding themselves in a mad rush towards the end or pre-test phase to complete the learning quota. There is always a gap between what is taught and what is learned. This is further complicated by what is learned either not being everything or being more as a result of unintentional learning being appended. Learners may learn nothing, partially or incorrectly as a result of lack of attention, engagement or motivation, readiness or inability to comprehend. Interpretive discrepancies can result from poor preparation and delivery of lesson teaching, notes in books, and homework and are known as 'cross-association errors' (George, 1972). When two words or constructions are presented too close together or not learned well enough it creates interference, e.g. 'I am', and then 'I go' create 'I am go*'. Teacher-induced errors result from incompletely taught and learned information and reveal themselves through testing therefore regular testing would appear more beneficial. In the case of Summative Assessment errors, which may never be heeded as the event is the main focus for a variety of factors and culmination of endeavour. The use of errors in testing means introducing incorrect language and forms a teaching-testing scenario to distinguish between learning and discriminating situations. Several researchers agree with the use of errors in testing and these include Ingram (1974); Rutherford (1975) (If correct, say yes; if not say no and give corrected form); and Witbeck (1976); whereas Chastain (1976) disagrees. There appears to be more a lack of

benefits from using errors, and concern that exposure will teach incorrect forms. The nature of the test, instructions, test-items, order of items, the way questions are written, the responses and order may encourage test-induced errors. Incomplete analysis or lack of attention, field dependence, frequently heard/popular forms, looking for a trick, purposive omission, translation, transfer, and overcorrection (reviewing and changing answers) are strategies employed by students to tackle tests and improve feeling of well-being.

In classroom testing marking compositions uses the error-count method (add up or subtract from totals to gain score), which ignores content and communication and focuses on the negative aspects of using language (Tudor, 1996). Extra marks may be given for content and communication, but it is bettered by the analytical method (*Ibid*, 1996). The analytical method focuses on areas of language performance to inform students of progress (*Ibid*, 1996). Teaching may be geared towards passing tests known as washback effect or backwash (Taylor-Fitzgibbon, 1996). Testing students in pairs is less stressful and a little more realistic allowing marking immediately.

Education is non-voluntary intervention for a large proportion of life, so there need to be opportunities for effective feedback and interaction (Heaton, 1990).

A technique in listening tests includes error identification where errors are shown and need to be highlighted, a process which may result in backwash effect (Madsen, 1983; Taylor-Fitzgibbon, 1996; Tudor, 1996).

Elimination of the fear syndrome attached to testing systems by students and teachers alike is a worthwhile consideration (Cohen, 1980). The negative mindset of a necessary evil brought on by previous bad test experiences and results can be offset by positive beliefs in the pro-test culture, the rewards of which can inspire confidence (Wick, 1973; Lindvall & Nitko, 1975). Promoting effort attributions as opposed to ability allows for feedback and ongoing

unaffected work without the spectre of failure even being mentioned (Dörnyei, 2001). However, when someone says ‘Good effort!’ the statement gives notice that you worked hard for whatever result is achieved, but with the negative connotation that you were ultimately unsuccessful (*Ibid*, 2001). Eventually, learners will identify anything other than congratulations as failure (*Ibid*, 2001). The danger is that learners who really give maximum effort and fail to achieve the required result cannot really be expected to be unaffected when encouraged by low effort in the eyes of others giving feedback (*Ibid*, 2001).

Feedback is not just about encouragement and grades or notification of failure, but correction or options to facilitate perfect learning. Classroom corrections provide the most salient form of feedback and must be addressed in a correct and timely manner. Anything else will become counterproductive and perhaps irredeemable. When the learner is prompted to reflect constructively on areas that necessitate improvement, a further stage requires identification of methods that can be applied to increase the effectiveness of learning and development. Positive information feedback involves descriptive information to stimulate further enquiry into the subject matter and the processes needed to succeed (Raffini, 1993). Controlling feedback tends to compare scores or grades to averages and highlight league tables and positions within in a statistical, scientific way (Good & Brophy, 1994). Negative consequences of feedback include giving pity after failure, praising easy task success, and offering gratuitous help such as giving answers outright. Fluency and positive contributions are positive motivators rather than focusing on misdemeanours, and coupled with prompt feedback can provide on-the-spot awareness of progress. Similarly, computer-assisted learning can be so motivating (Dörnyei, 2001).

2.16 Grades

Grades represent everything that is wrong in education due to emphasis on product rather than process. Dörnyei (2001) may be right about comparing, ranking and pigeon-holing learners, but acceptance on individual merit has not been forsaken because grades do reflect merit at the time. Unfortunately, grades provide the focus of ability and affect self-worth in society. Assessment is the zone where achievement-focused societies and learner-centred teaching principles inevitably clash. The focus of talent selection from society for best employment categories is the caveat of education and yet it falls down to grades. Part of the recruitment process is then to examine characteristics of future employees, which is where another problem lies in that good grades do not necessarily reflect good characteristics. Cooperative learning merges categories and develops characteristics earlier on in the process. Grades are highly subjective due to a lack of standardised assessment techniques, the scores of which rarely reflect the level of communicative competence. Assessment raises levels of anxiety among learners, teachers and institutions. Grades are more important than learning and encourage an 'at any cost' society, i.e. cheating and plagiarism and reduce ability to make student-centred situations. Grades are an entrenched tradition and expected by all. Possible remedies include:

Transparent rating system so students can learn to self-assess; assignment marking grades should be accompanied by correct advice; reflect improvement; ongoing evaluation; potential to revise/improve work in response to teacher or peer feedback; develop a system of peer grading and/or self-assessment and/or grading; two-way negotiation for final grading; and student evaluation of the teacher by questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2001).

Defining acquisition will determine how it is measured and can be distinguished as: 1. The internalization of new forms, 2. Increasing control over partially acquired forms, and 3.

Progress along a sequence of acquisition, which avoids comparison (Ellis; Bley-Vroman, 1983).

Acquisiton may take place when new forms are internalized and subsequently used in speech where they couldn't be used before. Operationalized language in terms of onset (Meisel et al., 1981) or the first appearance in spontaneous speech, however may not prove specific enough and may have previously been part of a formulaic chunk. A safeguard proposed in terms of two examples of the structure presented in two different post-tests would redefine onset as sustained development and appears more stringent (Mackay, 1990). A common concern for accuracy prevails where a significant gain over levels is deemed satisfactory or comparison to Native Speaker levels is adequate. A variety of instruments used to measure accuracy include (Norris & Ortega, 2000):

1. Meta-linguistic judgements to evaluate appropriate or grammatical structures in a series of isolated sentences.

2. Selected response from multiple choice questions.

3. Constrained constructed response by filling in the gaps.

4. Free constructed response for meaningful communication.

Problems emerge through variance in that response times can be calculated for 1, 2, 3, but not 4; 1 and 2 do not involve language production, but 3 and 4 do; 1, 2, 3 provide direct scoring, but 4 needs further analysis to arrive at a score. Construct validity and identifying what they are actually measuring appears to be lacking in many studies employing these measures (Douglas, 2001). Performance on various tests is highly variable so a variety of instruments are used (White, Spada, Lightbown & Ranta, 1991; Lyster, 2004). There appears to be a notable bias towards testing explicit knowledge (Doughty, 2003).

Progress measured along an acquisitional sequence is predominantly within the interactionist paradigm through tasks that elicit free communicative language use. Frequency analysis (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) or interlanguage analysis (Doughty & Varela, 1998) is carried out to identify different devices used to perform a feature and calculating the frequency with which the devices are used at each point in pre-test and post-test scenarios. A shift from one device to another constitutes acquisition as a result of the instruction. Research distinguished between: 1) verbs with no past tense marking in obligatory contexts (take); 2) verbs that were marked for past tense, but in non-target-like ways (toke*); 3) verbs that were marked for past tense in accordance with target language norms (took), where 1 to 2; and 1 or 2 to 3 showed progress as evidence of acquisition. An advantage is that it avoids the comparative fallacy in that acquisition can take place even if learners fail to use the target form. Disadvantages include the difficulty of eliciting obligatory occasions for some target features and the time-consuming nature of analysis involved and thus few studies carried out to measure acquisition. Failure to report reliability and considerations of various sources of measure errors in research appears commonplace (Douglas, 2001; Norris & Ortega, 2003). An approach involving multiple methods and instruments such as in Table 2.7.1 is likely to be more informative (Dörnyei, 2006).

Table 2.7.1 Methods of Measuring Acquisition.

Definition of acquisition	Method of measurement	Instruments
Internalization of a new linguistic feature	Minimum of two exemplars in two post-tests and not in pre-test. Production data is required.	A variety of means, but typically by communicative task.
Increased control over use	Pre to post-test gain in accuracy. Comprehension and production data is required.	Meta-linguistic judgement, selected response, constrained selected response, free constructed response.
Progress along an acquisitonal sequence	Changes in frequency with which learners produce different constructions for performing the target variable. Production data is required.	A communicative task that elicits a free constructed response.

Language aptitude is a concept related to ability or intelligence covering a range of cognitively-based learner differences the outcome of which appears to be learning success (Dörnyei, 2006). It appears that as much as 25% of individual-difference variation in school performance is due to this ability (Sternberg, 2002). Learners who have a talent, propensity, or flair for languages are individually distinguishable from all who have an innate ability to learn their native language and vary significantly from eachother. This appreciation is based on the popular surface or literal meaning of language, however beyond this the meaning is ambiguous and thus the construct difficult to conceptualise. Generally standard measures of language aptitude provide a good indication of learning success however, the term is challenged by a complex of basic abilities which combine to reveal a capacity for and facilitate language learning (Carroll & Sapon, 1959; Ellis, 2001; Robinson, 2003). The Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) (Carroll & Sapon, 1959) and Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (PLAB) (Pimsleur, 1966) are systematic test development programmes accepted as tests for measuring language aptitude. It is proposed the construct of language aptitude comprises four abilities: phonetic-coding (identify distinct sounds, form associations between sounds and symbols, and retain associations); grammatical sensitivity (recognise word/linguistic function in sentence structures; rote-learning ability (associations between sounds and meaning, and retention of associations; inductive language learning ability (infer/induce language rules from sample materials) (Carroll, 1981). Advances in cognitive psychology highlighted change in ability representation and links to SLA-specific research (Parry & Stansfield, 1990; Carroll, 1990; Dörnyei, 2005; Skehan, 2002; Sparks & Ganschow, 2001; Spolsky, 1995).

In contrast to the psychometric test development of MLAT and PLAB Cognitive Ability for Novelty in Acquisition of Language-Foreign Test (CANAL-FT)(GSE, 2000) is theory driven

following the triarchic theory of human intelligence (Sternberg, 2002). The CANAL-FT measures coping with novelty and ambiguity in learning by the natural and gradual introduction of an artificial language known as Ursulu where tasks expose sufficient lexical, morphological, semantic, and syntactic knowledge to deal with a short story (Dörnyei, 2006).

Information regarding performance or understanding used by teachers, peers, oneself, or media to encourage or discourage learners constitutes feedback. In terms of a continuum instruction and feedback appear to be opposites, like cause and effect (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Effects of schooling on achievement compared to feedback evidence identified an effect size of 0.79 (twice the average); with direct instruction (0.93); student's prior cognitive ability (0.71); socioeconomic influences (0.44); and homework (0.41) based on twelve meta-analyses with specific classroom feedback information; 6,972 effect sizes; and 196 studies compared to a benchmark figure of 0.40 (S.E = 0.05) based on 500 meta-analyses; 450,000 effect sizes; 180,000 studies; and 20-30 million students compared against 100 factors influencing educational achievement such as teachers, students, schools, homes, and curricula (Hattie, 1999). Interestingly the highest effect sizes correspond to receiving post-task feedback and instructions on how to complete it effectively, whereas the lower effects relate to praise, rewards, and punishments.

In research covering 74 meta-analyses; 13,370 effect sizes; and 7,000 studies the most effective forms of feedback include cues and reinforcement to learners; media-assisted instruction; and goal-relative factors. Extrinsic rewards appear to negatively correlate to performance and achievement in that they undermine responsibility in terms of self-motivation and self-regulation and may reinforce further control and evaluation by its very nature (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Feedback appears more effective in terms of tackling correct rather than incorrect responses in a positive direction and building on changes to former tasks (Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Effectiveness also emerges in terms of specific and challenging goals, but only with low task complexity. Feedback appears to be more effective when there is a lesser perceived low-level threat to self-esteem which promotes attraction as opposed to distraction.

Differing levels exist across level of task, level of process understanding, metacognitive process level, and personal level (independent of task). Effort may be increased when conditions such as clear goals, high level commitment, and belief in achieving success are met (i+1; ZPD; and scaffolding). Error detection skills may develop to support goals and follow conditions. Main goals can encourage goal-directed action such as achievement, passing tests, and peer interaction (in a shared, mutual, and cooperative capacity). The combination of challenges whether tasks, assignments, or tests with subsequent extensive feedback lead to improved learner engagement and achievement (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Establishing further appropriate challenges to meet goals once former examples have been met sets the conditions for perpetual learning. Feedback must not only satisfy the conditions for reducing the gap in knowledge, but be substantial enough as to seem worthwhile in terms of minute gaps. Commitment can be induced by peers, teachers, competition and desire to succeed.

Prior, current, and expected future performance in terms of tests and progress are used as a means to identify level of achievement, but fail to provide information for both learners and teachers to answer how they are going.

Written comments significantly improve test performance over 74 classes (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Crooks, 1988; Page, 1958) however, grades increase involvement, but not performance (Butler, 1987), and both did not lead to learning gains (Butler, 1988).

Generally, feedback is psychologically reassuring and is aligned with opinion regarding error correction in the classroom. Most importantly for this research this feeling of feedback being desirable should not be confused with whether feedback benefits performance or not (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). If confidence in feedback or correctness is high and the result is actually correct then little attention is paid compared to when the result is incorrect. High-confidence in the correction of errors is when feedback is at its most effective because more effort and study is required to resolve the problem. However, if low-confidence is in agreement with incorrectness interest in feedback is lost. Low confidence requires support strategies rather than incorporation of new information and appropriate and limited feedback effect presented as a result.

Timing of feedback can be separated into two positions identified in terms of immediate feedback as is common with easier error correction that require little process involvement and produce faster rates of acquisition; and delayed feedback which requires more explanation time to be effective. However immediate correction during fluency as opposed to tasks affects the acquisition and process negatively. Research from 54 studies shows some task level (testing) delays are beneficial (0.36); at process level (classroom activities) immediate feedback is beneficial (0.28) (Kulik & Kulik, 1988; Schroth & Lund, 1993; Swindell & Walls, 1993; Clariana, Wagner & Murphy, 2000). The easier or more understood items attract desirable immediate correction and not unnecessary delays and are represented by -0.06 for easy; 0.35 for mid-range; and 1.17 for difficult items (effect sizes). Poor presentation or lack of information value in feedback rather than faulty knowledge contributes to learners failing to benefit (Howie, Sy, Ford & Vicente, 2000). The frequency of classroom feedback among 65 teachers is reported as low, and it takes the form of praise (Bond, 2000). Errors and disconfirmation are most useful when perceived to lead to further learning and include processing and regulation in a positive classroom environment and peer climate. Feedback is

often viewed by students as the teacher's responsibility as is evaluating how they are going, next goals, and the future.

Assessment provides evidence of the goals to be achieved and the relative personal achievement of students. Research reviews of 574 publications involving classroom assessment suggests proficiency in terms of score adequacy takes precedence over score interpretation and reflects a practice of superficial and rote learning and recall of disassociated facts (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Crooks, 1988). Feedback can be delivered in numerous ways including peer groups and the traditional teacher-student pairing, the implication of which is not to set more assessment tests (Bangert-Drowns, Kulik & Kulik, 1991).

Feedback needs to be aimed at the appropriate level. Effectiveness necessitates feedback to be clear, purposeful, meaningful, aligned with prior knowledge, and making logical connections. It also needs to relate to clear and specific goals, active processing, low task complexity, and low threat to the self or personal level. The main direction must comply with the task, processes, and regulation, rather than self. These conditions highlight the climate needed to foster peer and self-assessment, and allow for learning from mistakes. Assessment tests are expensive accountability instruments rather than correctly used feedback opportunities (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

2.17 Classroom Assessment

Having established the importance of Vygotsky's 'ZPD' and Bruner's 'Scaffolding' concepts and the subsequent evidence that suggests progress in development and learning has improved significantly as a result it remains to be seen that the gap in the process may be

highlighted by the need to raise standards through classroom assessment (Black and Wiliam, 1998).

All studies show gains in learning by strengthening Formative Assessment. Gains are determined by comparing a) score test improvements with b) range of scores not involved in special tests, which provide very significant Formative Assessment data of 0.4 – 0.7 effect sizes, and support an increase in GCSE performance of 1-2 grades, position students in the top 35%, and increase ratings from 21 to 5 out of 41 (*Ibid*, 1998).

Improved Formative Assessment promotes better achievement at lower-achiever end, which reduces spread and increases attainment overall. Frequent Formative Assessment feedback enhances learning particularly among low achievers/disabled students (Fuchs, 1997).

Formative Assessment marking is good, but fails to offer guidance how work can be improved appears to be the official government watchdog line. Furthermore, performance information is used inadequately to inform subsequent work encouraging students to be 'content to get by,' attain and maintain low self-concept, and avoid interaction for fear of failure (Ofsted 1996).

2.17.1 Formative and Summative Functions of Assessment

According to Black and Wiliam (1996) Formative Assessment and Summative Assessment are little used and significantly teaching activities in this area have been of little interest to academic researchers. Early 'formative evaluation' was first used by Sarven (1967) in the area of curriculum improvement, and Bloom et al. (1971) subsequently extended the meaning to current use. Summative evaluation tests are recognised as end of course markers, or for researching stage/level effectiveness for data purposes. A gap therefore exists where the assessment of summative enquiry can be reintroduced as a form of feedback for learners who may benefit particularly if intending to pursue further education, are undecided about whether

to continue or not, and generally for those dropping out of the race, but may decide to return at a later date.

Sadler (1989) points out that evidence gleaned or invariably presented hurriedly late in a course cannot serve as a Formative Assessment function, but could for the next course and provides a good argument for Summative Assessment feedback.

Much research evidence shows how difficult it is to introduce effective formative assessment into classroom practice (Andrews, 1987, 1988; Torrance, 1991; Pole, 1993; Fairbrother, 1995; Black & Wiliam, 1996).

Problems exist where assessments are required to serve both Formative and Summative functions particularly where teachers are restricted to formative function activities and external agencies undertaking Summative Assessment (Hatch & Brown, 1995). Any alternatives equate to possible, but heavy work and would ultimately encourage backwash (Black & Wiliam, 1996).

2.18 Reducing the Negative Impact of Grades

Grades, while entrenched in educational systems, often emphasize summative product over learning process, potentially undermining intrinsic motivation and fostering anxiety or competitiveness (Dörnyei, 2001; Ellis, 2008). Strategies to mitigate these negative effects include:

Transparent grading systems that clarify how scores are determined.

Supplementing grades with formative feedback that identifies strengths and areas for improvement.

Encouraging self- and peer-assessment to foster responsibility and reflective practice.

Allowing revisions or resubmissions in response to feedback to emphasize learning as a process rather than a final judgment (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001).

2.19 Measuring Acquisition and Progress

Accurate measurement of language acquisition requires a combination of instruments and methodologies. Relying solely on explicit knowledge tests may overlook actual language production capabilities, while focusing only on communicative tasks may fail to identify specific areas of difficulty. Multiple-method approaches, as summarized in Table 2.7.1, offer a more holistic understanding of learner progress (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Dörnyei, 2006).

Internalization: Identified through repeated production of a new linguistic feature in post-tests.

Increased control: Measured via gains in accuracy across comprehension and production tasks.

Progress along a sequence: Determined through shifts in the frequency and quality of constructions used for specific language features.

Combining quantitative and qualitative measures allows teachers and researchers to differentiate between acquisition, performance, and temporary errors, providing actionable insights into learning development.

2.20 Role of Language Aptitude

Individual differences, including language aptitude, affect learning outcomes and test performance. Measures such as the MLAT, PLAB, and CANAL-FT assess phonetic coding,

grammatical sensitivity, rote learning, and inductive reasoning, offering insight into a learner's potential for acquisition and responsiveness to instruction (Carroll & Sapon, 1959; Dörnyei, 2006). Recognition of aptitude differences allows for differentiated instruction, scaffolding, and targeted feedback, optimizing testing and learning alignment.

2.21 Summary of Optimised Assessment Potential

Effective testing and assessment integrate psychometric rigor with meaningful classroom application. Feedback, both teacher- and peer-mediated, is central to bridging the gap between performance and learning. Immediate, specific, and actionable feedback supports acquisition, while structured peer and self-assessment foster autonomy, motivation, and engagement. Grades, when combined with formative processes and clear communication, can serve as indicators of achievement without undermining learner confidence. Ultimately, assessment should be viewed not merely as an endpoint, but as an integral, interactive component of the learning process, aligned with cooperative learning principles, scaffolding, and ZPD-focused instruction.

The tension between formative and summative assessment has long been recognized. Formative assessment (FA) is intended to guide learning by providing timely, constructive feedback to students and informing instructional adjustments by teachers. Summative assessment (SA), conversely, evaluates cumulative achievement at the end of a course or unit, often for accountability or certification purposes (Black & Wiliam, 1996; Sadler, 1989).

Challenges arise when the same assessment is expected to fulfil both formative and summative purposes. Teachers may focus on grading and performance outcomes due to external pressures, inadvertently diminishing the formative potential of the task (Hatch & Brown, 1995). Conversely, purely formative tasks may lack the rigor and perceived

importance of summative tests, resulting in reduced student engagement or effort (Andrews, 1987; Torrance, 1991).

To reconcile these dual purposes, research suggests:

Separation of roles by assigning specific tasks to either formative or summative purposes to maintain clarity in goals and expectations.

Formative use of summative results by leveraging summative outcomes to guide future instruction and individualized learning plans. This may include identifying common errors, highlighting trends in misunderstanding, and recommending remedial strategies for subsequent courses (Sadler, 1989).

Iterative feedback loops by integrating cycles of assessment, feedback, and instruction within the classroom to ensure that learning gaps are addressed continuously rather than only at the endpoint of evaluation (Black & Wiliam, 1998).

Evidence consistently shows that effective formative assessment improves learning outcomes, particularly for lower-achieving students or those with additional learning needs (Fuchs, 1997). By providing frequent, actionable feedback, FA narrows performance gaps, enhances engagement, and fosters a positive learning environment where students feel supported in taking risks and experimenting with new language forms.

When formative assessment is implemented with clarity and consistency, gains can be substantial. Black and Wiliam (1998) reported effect sizes ranging from 0.4 to 0.7 for FA interventions, with measurable improvements in standardized examination performance (e.g., GCSE grades increasing by 1-2 grades, and students moving from lower percentiles to the top third). Such findings underscore the transformative potential of classroom-based, feedback-oriented assessment practices.

Despite clear benefits, the implementation of effective FA is often inconsistent. Government and institutional guidelines frequently emphasize marking and grading, without providing sufficient direction on how feedback should guide improvement (Ofsted, 1996). Consequently, students may adopt a minimal-effort approach, maintain low self-concept, and avoid active engagement for fear of failure.

Research identifies several practical strategies to enhance FA effectiveness:

Clear learning objectives where assessment tasks should align explicitly with course goals, ensuring relevance and focus.

Descriptive feedback should identify specific areas for improvement and suggest actionable strategies.

Encouraging students to evaluate their own and each other's work develops self-regulation, reflective thinking, and deeper understanding of assessment criteria (Topping, 2005; Tudor, 1996).

Scaffolded progression of tasks should be structured to support learners through their ZPD, providing guidance initially and gradually reducing support as competence grows (Vygotsky, 1978; Bruner, 1976).

Backwash, or washback, occurs when assessment drives teaching and learning, potentially narrowing curriculum focus and encouraging superficial learning (Taylor-Fitzgibbon, 1996). Effective classroom assessment seeks to minimize negative backwash by embedding formative practices into routine instruction and ensuring that summative assessments reflect meaningful learning objectives rather than merely ranking students. This requires careful alignment between curriculum, assessment design, and instructional practices (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Hatch & Brown, 1995).

2.22 Conclusion

Classroom assessment is most effective when designed as an integrated system that balances formative guidance with summative accountability. It leverages the potential of feedback, scaffolding, and peer interaction to enhance learning outcomes, reduce performance gaps, and foster student motivation. Recognizing and addressing practical challenges, such as time constraints, external pressures, and backwash, ensures that assessment serves as a tool for development rather than simply a measure of achievement.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Having consulted Cresswell & Guetterman (2019) and Cohen, Manion, & Morrison (2007), I set out my research position as follows. The purpose of the research process is to identify new data that may support, or contradict, established data, or even a theory, through posing a question, collecting primary and/or secondary data, and subsequently analysing the data (Cresswell & Guetterman, 2019). This process is carried out by establishing a position to determine accepted methodological approaches, and analysing data to provide a likelihood, an answer, or preferably a truth, that increases understanding of the research focus (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

In research, the basis and relevance of a particular position, formed and taken, directly influences motivation in choosing a specific assumption in terms of ontology, or epistemology. The initial position embodies consequences that determine choice of research, questions, and methods, which consolidate with informed views that enable realisation of a specific paradigm and respective assumption (Coe, 2021, p.5). Regardless of which assumption is followed, Table 3.1 in Waring (2021, p.18) presents a continuum of perspectives, extremes of which are formed by positivism and constructivism/interpretivism that reflect what the nature of reality independent of the researcher is against an affective relationship to that being researched, respectively. Furthermore, being part of a continuum identifies positions held by other 'blended' perspectives between these extremes. The traditional, or dominant, view of research is from a positivist scientific perspective that embodies quantitative measures, as opposed to the constructivist/interpretivist perspective and respective qualitative enquiry (Coe, 2021, pp.6-7). Any of these assumptions have

implications for the choice of overall approach to the research process in terms of paradigm, methodology, and research methods (Hussey & Hussey, 1997).

Coe (2021, p.18) clearly identifies both ontological and epistemological assumptions as fundamentally important to both positivist and interpretivist views. The ontological assumption of this research towards the traditional positivist paradigm that employs quantitative methods is favoured in order to conduct research objectively and empirically with standardised scientific instruments thereby avoiding affective behaviour, bias or distortion (Coe, Waring, Hedges & Ashley, 2021). Conversely, an epistemological alternative assumption fundamental to a constructivist, or interpretivist, phenomenological paradigm exists that employs qualitative methods subjectively, open to interpretation, and includes interactive and affective behaviour (Dörnyei, 2007). A mixed-methods, or 'blended', approach expands the researcher's world view to incorporate elements of both ontological and epistemological assumptions, and yet some elements may be employed without compromising ontological or epistemological beliefs respectively (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). According to Coe (2021), this may be achieved through the assumptions fundamental to shared positivist and interpretivist paradigms.

The question focus involving errors and correction during peer and teacher-student interaction and their effect on second language learning and test outcomes led the researcher to work within the ontological assumption fundamental to the traditional positivist paradigm. Ontology refers to an assumption that questions the nature of reality where reality is objective, singular, and independent of the researcher (Coe, Waring, Hedges & Ashley, 2021). Researchers following the positivist position have a particular world-view and are interested in quantitative methods involving numerical data and analyses in search of true scientific results (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), which provides the drive for this thesis.

3.2 Types of data

Research can be considered primary or secondary in terms of whether it is original first-hand data collection or collected from second-hand or other sources (Shuttleworth, 2008). Primary research maintaining a positivist empirical stance entailed collecting original data from direct classroom observations, interviews and questionnaires, descriptive analysis of a sample in quantitative terms, and assessment system outcomes reflecting the use of survey, statistical, and quantitative methods respectively (Brown & Rodgers, 2002). Secondary research, also in line with a positive approach, included library research and a review of literature of a second-hand nature, which was original at some point and has since become historical record (Kara, 2012; Brown & Rodgers, 2002).

3.3 Research approaches

Methodological movements followed by researchers in the social and behavioural sciences can be categorised quantitatively, qualitatively, or that of mixed methods (Coe, Waring, Hedges & Ashley, 2021). Researchers working within the traditional positivist paradigm are interested in quantitative methods involving numerical data and analyses that result in empirically true data. Qualitative research, by contrast is conducted by researchers working within the constructivist paradigm with an interest in narrative data and analysis. And finally, mixed method research is conducted by researchers working within the pragmatist paradigm with interests in numerical data, narrative data and respective analyses (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

The structured, quantitative observation that also employs unplanned, unstructured qualitative approaches as part of the same continuum is an accepted approach for collecting data for classroom-based research. It can be seen as part of mixed methods research in order to get an

idea of the bigger open picture (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991; Kara, 2012), but still maintains an existing positivist view (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The potential to yield more valid and authentic data than that offered by observation alone can be enhanced by other methods that identify the difference between what participants do, say they do through interview and questionnaire, and what they perceive (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). This involved a questionnaire, which is a versatile instrument allowing the quick and efficient collection of large amounts of data traditionally used in a scientific research and empirical perspective (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Data was analysed and interpreted using statistical methods and observation was conducted to identify relationships in the data. Interviews allowed further detailed insights to give more weight to the analysis and corroborate the data through triangulation (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009), a combination described as 'sequential explanatory design' by Cresswell et al. (2003, cited in Dörnyei, 2007).

3.4 Piloting of instruments

Careful and thorough piloting of instruments was necessary to make the content as valid and consistent as possible, as well as effective and efficient (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

3.5 Feasibility of study

The feasibility of the research considered the cost in terms of time and finance, the quality and quantity of access, and scheduling. Given the amount of time the project would take allowing for the research question, scheduling observations, sample selections, methodology and instruments, and the ability to finish, a cross-sectional approach was favoured as a result (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

3.6 Ethical issues

An Ethics Proposal was submitted and application granted by the University of Durham School of Education Research Ethics and Data Protection Sub-committee to conduct research using the proposed methodologies subject to informed consent being granted by participants. Ethical consent forms (Appendix 3.9) and participant information sheets (Appendices 3.8, 3.13 & 3.17) were provided to participants explaining the research and giving assurances, which included informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, data security and protection, and storage and duration of data retention (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

3.7 Research Questions

The research theme was defined by an important subject of on-going concern supported by gaps in the literature review (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). A breakdown of the theme into research questions developed from a few questions into several questions as a result of further reading and development of the literature review. The culmination of work through a set of eight draft updates resulted in the final questions as follows:

1. Errors

a. What types and frequency of speaking errors are made by adult second language learners in the classroom?

b. What is the difference and the relationship between speaking error types and frequency that are committed during adult peer interaction and adult student/teacher interaction?

c. How do the type and frequency of speaking errors vary by age, gender, native/first language (L1), self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction?

d. To what extent are errors of commission rather than omission made?

    i. What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of omission during adult peer interaction?

e. To what extent do learners appear unable to hear what is being said in a listening context?

2. Corrections

a. What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of correcting errors during adult peer interaction?

i. What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of implicit corrections during adult peer interaction?

ii. What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of explicit corrections during adult peer interaction?

b. What types and frequency of corrections are experienced by adult second language learners when listening for information and speaking in the classroom?

c. What is the difference and the relationship between correction types and frequency made during adult peer interaction and adult student/teacher interaction?

d. How do the type and frequency of correction types vary by age, gender, first language (L1), self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction?

e. What are the difference and the relationship between the ignoring of errors and committing errors of omission during adult peer interaction?

i. What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of ignoring errors and corrections during adult peer interaction?

3. Progress

a. How do errors and corrections relate to progress in language learning?

b. To what extent do errors and corrections in the classroom affect second language learning outcomes?

i. What is the relationship between type and frequency of speaking errors during adult student/teacher interaction and test/grade gains?

ii. What is the relationship between type and frequency of corrections during adult student/teacher interaction and test/grade gains?

3.8 Classroom Observation

Classroom observation provided an ideal, live, in-situ scenario in which to obtain direct and first-hand information that was produced through identification of language utterances and associated actions carried out within the specific timeframe (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

Observation permitted focus on specific areas and facilitated the collection of utterances and non-verbal reactions through aural and visual means. This required a structured, systematic and quantitative instrument to facilitate the quick and efficient recording of data.

For the purposes of this thesis direct observation was used to identify the frequency and use of various types of speaking error made by participants, the types and frequency of peer and teacher error correction, the external effect of each occurrence through behaviour and responses, and evidence of acquisition and learning.

The non-participant researcher operated as an introduced direct observer of students in a natural class setting with a specific focus on clear observation categories employing a structured instrument supported by indirect audio recording devices (Flick, 1998). A simple and quick check sheet using tally marks was used for recording the frequency of events (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991).

Observation was the preferred methodology among students because it did not require additional time-consuming enquiry and required the least effort in terms of participation. Best practice dictated the natural classroom environment where students could remain unaffected and free of distraction or interruption for the duration of the lesson while research was conducted (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). However, it was noted that simply being present was a form of intrusion in itself as noted in Dörnyei (2007).

Recording of the data was facilitated by the use of audio and/or video recording devices, which was able to pick up any information that was missed during observation.

Although the preparation and piloting of instruments was time-consuming in the earlier stages, it was imperative to be thorough in order to make the data and collection as reliable as possible.

Data reliability is key to successful research, but each demand made on the observation process creates increasing anxiety. Demands are often in the form of request directed at both teachers and students in the class during observation, the number of visible observers in attendance, and any effect caused by the experience. Other demands include additional forms of data recording, and poorly designed and handled instrumentation.

The idea of an Observation Chart: Error, Correction, and Behavioural Responses (Appendix 3.6) was conceived as a series of three independent charts recording errors, corrections, and behavioural responses by means of a simple tally system. The initial Observation Chart - Errors (Appendix 3.1) incorporated thirteen error types based on former lists of secondary data in research tables in the first vertical column, which corresponded to ten other columns representing the frequency of errors, each conducted by up to ten learners or learners/teacher in pairs in continuous two-minute periods for each person of focus in turn for the duration of the lesson. Discrete categories refined by piloting to remove overlaps, double-barrels (two questions in one requiring a single response), or duplication were achieved (Dörnyei, 2007). The error types were reviewed and reorganised based on ease of identification, recording, and speed, which resulted in concord or subject-verb being absorbed by word order, and word types being reorganised into phonological, morphological, and lexical omissions, and additions, respectively. The number of error types was reduced to seven due to the breakdown of three sub-groups of omission, and then addition, being considered two types.

The teacher column allowed for tallies of each error to be recorded at any time during the lesson. However, the focus on interaction between peers and/or teacher and learner determined that the adaptation involve five learner pairs of peer or teacher and learner groups. The initial Observation Chart - Corrections (Appendix 3.2) incorporated multiple correction types subsequently piloted and refined as in the Error Chart to a reduced number of six common types. Similarly, the Observation Chart – Motivational Factors (Appendix 3.3) was refined to six discrete categories. The use of independent chart sheets for each of three research interests was necessary to control space for the expected number of tally items to be recorded. Piloting identified the problems of handling three sheets covering different areas simultaneously every ten minutes. The refined and reduced item lists and amalgamation of three charts into one sheet for a window period of ten minutes proved a better prospect as the Observation Chart – Error, Correction and Self-concept (Appendix 3.4).

Three instantaneous sampling events (Error, correction, and encouragement and behaviour type and frequency respectively) were planned at two-minute intervals covering a period of up to one ten-minute grid per sheet. Multiple sheets were required to total up to ninety minutes depending on class duration. Each peer-group and teacher column (up to five peer groups) represented a two-minute time interval; movement from left to right represented sequence chronology; and data was entered in a matrix cell every two minutes, up to a total of ten minutes per grid per window/sheet. Three sections in each window/sheet reflected error type and frequency, correction type and frequency, and encouragement and behaviour type and mode frequency, respectively. Piloting was vital. The number of categories scanned at speed required proficiency and consistency from practice to achieve reliability.

Similarly, the final refined chart, focused on more specific error, correction and behaviour types in detail, but removed encouragement, and reduced correction and behaviour factors by half to make it more effective and efficient. The Observation Chart – Error, Correction and

Behavioural Responses (Appendix 3.6), although designed to be simple enough for any user to understand and employ, still required albeit less practice to establish and maintain proficiency. This resulted in the decision to employ a single observer to conduct research.

3.9 Classroom Situation and Dynamics Chart

The Observation Instrument - Classroom Situation and Dynamics Chart (Appendix 3.5) was established as a way to identify emerging peer group associations and relative seating positions within the classroom throughout the duration of the lesson. The chart was an important addendum to the observation instrument and had a secondary function as a cover sheet for the methodology. Classroom identification data provided the heading in terms of Subject, Date/Time Group (DTG) and duration, teacher's name, peer group pairings, and relative seating positions, all details of which come under university data and identity protection. The seating plan made it easy to identify learner interaction until the pairs or groups were dispersed and reassembled in different patterns, however the limited migration was covered on the chart by arrows and symbols until the learners returned to their original positions.

3.10 Codification Tables

A structured quantitative survey with a specific focus and clear mutually exclusive categories, with accompanying codes listed in Codification Tables (Appendix 3.7) were considered, piloted and employed, or rejected, depending on usefulness and relevance accordingly.

Codification tables include reference codes for spoken error types, correction types, utterance types during interaction, observation data among participants, and encouragement/behaviour types.

Employed tables include mutually exclusive categories of expected spoken error types (Appendix 3.7.1), and corrective behaviour types (Appendix 3.7.2). Encouragement and behaviour mode codes included some of which were utilised, or reorganised, for use (Appendix 3.7.5).

Tables initially considered, but subsequent information deemed inadequate for the purposes required include Interaction Utterance Codes (Brown & Rodgers, 2002) (Appendix 3.7.3), and the Observation Data Table (Appendix 3.7.4).

Piloting revealed some issues when using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) programme for statistical analysis of research data. Due to limitations on the number and identification of characters employed as a code the coding was adapted to fit in and operate effectively as follows:

Changes to the mutually exclusive categories of expected error included: Word order (O), Wrong word (W), Addition (A), and Meaning (M) (Appendix 3.7.1), while Concord, Wrong Phrase and QA disparity were removed.

Changes to the mutually exclusive categories of expected corrective behaviours included: Repeat (r), and Self (S) (Appendix 3.7.2), while Peer and Echo were removed.

Encouragement as a category was dropped, but changes to behaviour mode codes included: Reactive volunteering (V), Unreactive volunteering (U), Active participation (P), Non-participation (N), Focused attention (A), and Unfocused attention (D) (Appendix 3.7.5).

During the classroom observation phase the teacher-student, student-teacher, and student-student interaction and rapport appeared visibly and outwardly good and motivation levels on the part of learners and teachers appeared high and unaffected throughout. It is assumed and expected that the mood may reflect the intrinsic motivation. Further evidence was gleaned from natural behaviour and feel/mood, and settings which include: physical, human, interactional, and programme.

3.11 Questionnaire

Questionnaires were used to conduct this survey because they were an efficient and effective method of quantitative data collection of a representative sample of the population, which suited the purposes of conducting this survey (Appendix 3.10) (Dörnyei, 2007). Similarly, a Teacher Questionnaire was produced incorporating nineteen of the same questions from a teacher's perspective about student responses to highlight similarities, or differences, in observation and perception in respective classes being taught (Appendix 3.11).

Instrumentation was constructed as carefully as possible to answer the research questions. A Chinese translation of the Questionnaire was produced and piloted with a view to identify translational and meaning difficulties experienced by participants, however the value differences were not considered significant enough to pursue (Appendix 3.12). The translation of English to Chinese also reduced the specificity of the meaning, which may have affected reliability and validity.

The personal information block provided age, sex, nationality, L1, number of years of English study, and English level data. Large amounts of quantitative data were collected by using questionnaires and included feelings, motivational factors, attitudes towards making errors, the type and frequency of those errors, overcoming errors, corrections, type and

frequency of corrections, being corrected, effects, overcoming effects, learning, peer interaction benefits, openness and willingness to peer correction, and generating new data or confirming old data in new ways. The qualitative aspects were quantified by the use of rating scales.

The questionnaire incorporated 7-point Likert and semantic rating-scales. Twenty items covering separate, but inter-related questions that were developed to assess feelings and opinions also generated new data with special care taken to define and evaluate abstract constructs like self-concept.

Clear and concise strategically placed and repeated instructions helped to guide participation. Carefully structured sections and emboldening drew attention to significant details in the instrument.

Although instrumentation included a personal information block for inter-corroborative and triangulation of data reasons between collection methods, as the test data needed to be linked for triangulation, the option of remaining anonymous was clear to participants. The personal information block allowed for participants to provide name, date of birth, gender, nationality, first language, English language IELTS level, and number of years studying English as preferred, but also served as a pre-task to focus on the survey data provided. However, all instrumentation, information, and data came under the overall data-protection policy of the university.

3.12 Interview

The interview instrument provided the opportunity to focus more on specific areas of research interest in a structured, semi-structured, or more open format in a face-to-face

setting. The interview allowed for freedom to check details and run with an enquiry with the benefit of rapport between the interviewer and interviewee, which was unavailable in observation and questionnaire settings. It was preferred that the responses should relay actual fact rather than the perception of fact, or what the interviewee perceived was required. Information sought included commonly emerging errors, resulting corrections, timing and frequencies of both error and correction, potential influence of age, gender, ethnicity, and prior learning resulting in specific errors, corrections, learner behaviour, and their cyclical effect and relationships on future learning. It was expected that data could be presented as short facts, but may be elaborated, and may uncover unexpected and yet relevant digressions of interest. The interview data was intended to form corroborative triangulation of data after gleaning direct classroom observation and survey questionnaire data (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2007).

A survey in the form of an interview was conducted to gather and describe the views and opinions of two teachers (Appendix 3.14) and a representative sample of student participants, which included up to five peer groups totalling ten students per class. The actual number of interview participants in the main research stage was poorly attended by two teachers and three students, which highlights the importance of observation and questionnaire research in addition to interview research. The interviews were single sessions of between 20-30 minutes duration due to time constraints and also because the required responses were obtained satisfactorily. The interview instrument contained twelve open-ended information questions arranged in a schedule format as a guide and conducted in a semi-structured way.

The questions were sectioned according to theme, each section organised for ease, interest, focus, and comfort. Each question kept to a single issue and used simple language. Initial questions were of an informal nature to set the tone and establish rapport. The interview questions were organised carefully with more straight forward lead-in topics designed to

elicit knowledge of the type and frequency of errors in the classroom, elaboration on errors and types of corrections leading to feelings, outcomes and effects, the issue of motivation (self-concept) in particular, and finishing with peer interaction. The scheduling and domain of the interview questions allowed for comparison, but could have affected response quality. The final question was designed to allow further elaboration of points covered and offer the opportunity to discuss separate issues (Cohen, Mannion & Morrison, 2007). The semi-structured schedule aided the formulation of post-interview note-taking by the interviewer.

The structured pre-determined nature of the instrument required careful arranging. Refining removed ambiguous and redundant items whilst strengthening focus on objectives, and improving effectiveness and efficiency. Both recording and note-taking was permitted during subsequent interviews using the refined Interview Instrument.

An Information Sheet and Consent Form approved by the University of Durham Ethics Advisory Committee were produced to accompany and support each instance of data collection in accordance with School of Education and University policy. Ethical considerations were met in terms of informed consent, anonymity, confidentiality, use, storage and recall as well as freedom to withdraw, and no risk of malfeasance (Cohen et al., 2007) (Appendix 3.13).

3.13 Knowledge Test Data

Historical test data, both self-designed and standardized covering both formative and summative assessment, helped to support research. Internal classroom-based formative and summative assessment, and external formal summative evidence of testing and the process of feedback/grades highlighting errors, corrections, frequencies and the effect on self-concept and learning were needed to help to answer the research questions. Standardized tests such as

those produced for International English Language Testing Systems (IELTS) and Cambridge ESOL testing systems potentially provided the best data. Self-developed testing instruments were also required to go through the rigorous process to maintain the standard of professionally developed testing systems.

Researching and selecting standardised and/or developing self-designed testing formats with a view to gleaning valid and reliable pair-work research data for correlation and comparative analysis was carried out. Initial consideration of listening and speaking test formats included in-house tests following Durham Academic Language Test/Certificate in English and Academic Study (DALT/CEAS), and IELTS guidelines.

3.14 Piloting

Any constructed instrument, such as a questionnaire or interview survey, requires a process of piloting to optimise reliability, validity, and practicability by removing ambiguity, redundancy, and potential misunderstandings in wording (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The piloting process helps determine the capability of participants in understanding and completing the survey in a reasonable timeframe, evaluate and modify the instrument as necessary, and discount the sample of respondents who participate (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019).

Early Piloting

Secondary research such as historical data, similar studies data, knowledge test data (9-month duration), and future data (6-month duration) was available and accessible. All work was based on set textbooks including mock/practice exams where Cambridge ESOL Teachers set in-house Formative Assessment tests based on ESOL levels and feedback was given. The remainder of ESOL Summative Assessment tests were external where grades and marking

scales provided limited feedback. Cambridge Key English Test (KET) and Preliminary English Test (PET) were the main subjects subject to external evaluation. Additionally, Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), a National Assessment commonly used in Japan was added for reference. IELTS ISA prep classes were included for separate instruction for 'A-Grade' students only as an add-on.

Later Piloting

In-sessional courses at undergraduate level covered Level 2 General English with IELTS preparation, and Level 3 Academic English, which resulted in IELTS and CEAS respectively. Level 2 covered practical English language skills for communicating in everyday life, grammar classes, vocabulary development, listening, and speaking skills, whereas Level 3 modules included grammar and vocabulary, spoken discourse (speaking and lecture listening), and presentation skills.

In order to register for In-sessional courses students had to take the DALT or attend a pre-sessional programme. This test was designed to help students identify areas where their academic language skills may have needed development and enable them to select the most appropriate In-sessional courses.

Cambridge ESOL-based materials provided the foundation of the syllabus coupled with in-house Formative Assessment and Summative Assessment (DALT and CEAS), and an external IELTS to facilitate additional Summative Assessment.

Self-designed and/or Standardized Instrumentation

Both sets of instrumentation were to be utilized at appropriate times (Appendices 3.15-3.19). The final participant sample was subjected to standardised testing as a pre-requisite for attending undergraduate courses and subsequent formative and summative testing during and on completion of courses respectively.

3.15 Piloting results by methodology

Observation

Early piloting involved limited and unobtrusive observation of twelve undergraduate Japanese students utilising only an observation chart (Appendix 3.4) to record instances of errors, corrections, and behaviour.

The piloting of the observation instrument worked well in the 10-minute multi-sheet format. The options covered all the examples identified in the literature review on three separate sheets, but the tally recording proved to be hectic at times and required concentration for the duration of observation to ensure it was completed. There were too many options and sheets to deal with and they were reduced.

Questionnaire

The same twelve students also completed the questionnaire survey instrument, and two native speaking teachers were asked to comment on the layout of the instrument.

Overall, the questionnaire instrument was considered good with clear instructions that were easily understood according to Teacher 1. Teacher 2 failed to respond. The student's responses highlighted specific details that presented some difficulties in writing format, but the meaning was understood.

Most questions were answered and categories understood, but some questions were unanswered or exposed some confusion. Consequently, ambiguous and unnecessary items were identified and removed to improve clarity.

Some words such as comfortable/uncomfortable; included/excluded; and helped/hindered emerged as examples of word meanings that appeared unknown to some extent.

Generally, there appeared to be too many questions and some responses were guessed, perhaps due to the level of the language used being too high for the language level achieved by the students. Later piloting of a different and much larger cohort led to the modified English questionnaire being translated into a Chinese version due to the much larger participant tally of Chinese students to allow for more timely completion, perceived misunderstanding, and negotiated meaning (Yang, 1993; Pica, 1992; Clancy et al.,1996; and Cresswell & Guetterman, 2019). The Chinese translation of the questionnaire was not utilised in the end due to potential ambiguity of meaning and language differences affecting robustness (Rost, 2013).

Interview

Overall, the interview instrument was considered good by participants, but generally too long. It contained too many questions according to Teacher 1. Teacher 2 failed to respond.

The instrument was reduced to 12 questions by identifying and removing redundancy and ambiguity.

Assessment

KET Listening and Writing papers and results, highlighting errors, were produced by twelve students as an example of testing and evidence of learning.

Early decisions were made in the planning process with regard to cost in terms of time and finance, research question, scheduling observations, sample selections, methodology and instruments. The success of the research depended on the participant sample and the empirical methods employed (Dörnyei, 2007).

The sample consisted of upper-intermediate second language learners from multiple classes, at university in the United Kingdom. Given the time constraints for the successful completion

of the research project the members of the sample were selected on an opportunistic basis known as convenience-sampling (*Ibid*, 2007).

The participants were highly motivated and willing adult learners and teachers.
The potential participant sample, classroom environment, syllabus and schedule were established.

A particular concern was administrative in that the, then current, educational visa requirements could have affected participant numbers, course numbers, and course duration.

Early Piloting Participants

The participants were adult male and female Japanese students of English as a Second Language aged 20 years old studying for 6 months of a 4-year degree programme.

Annual courses from Sep-Feb (6 months) existed for Faculty of Liberal Arts and International Studies (1st Grade), and from Mar-Aug (6 months) for Economics, Law, and Literature students (All Grades).

All students had to attain B1 (+) English grade to study in the United Kingdom, which was taken earlier in Japan. In-house placement test scores based on Test of English for International Communication Listening and Reading Skills allocated participants to 2-3 classes, usually grouped as A, B and C.

Three levels from Lower (pre- KET), KET, and PET separated the participants into 2 or 3 classes. All English work in classes was based on Cambridge ESOL set textbooks including mock/practice exams.

Teachers set their own in-house formative assessment tests based on ESOL levels and feedback was given. The remaining ESOL summative assessment tests were external, where

only grades and descriptor tables were given as feedback. KET and PET were the main levels subject to external evaluation, but the Test of English for International Communication was a National Assessment commonly used in Japan and added on for reference. IELTS ISA prep classes were included for separate instruction for 'A-Grade' students only as an add-on.

Later Piloting Participants

A convenience sample, the characteristics of which were representative of the whole sample, identified the participants as predominantly adult male and female Chinese, and fewer Japanese, students of English as a Second Language (ESL), aged twenty-one years old, and studying In-sessional English as part of an undergraduate degree programme in a UK university. These participants were a different cohort to the Early Piloting Participants.

Selection was conducted by prior testing in respective countries: China and Japan, to support UK Border Agency 11-month student visa requirements. An offer of a place on a university degree programme and an IELTS overall 4.0 and 5.0 maximum English language entry standard allowed access to two levels respectively: Level 2 General English with IELTS preparation, and Level 3 Academic English. Logistically twenty-six classes could have been run on an annual In-sessional basis for the duration of an undergraduate degree programme.

The programme ran throughout the academic year and students were able to join or leave at any point:

- Michaelmas Term – 8 October to 14 December
- Epiphany Term – 7 January to 15 March
- Easter Term – 15 April to 21 June

3.16 Audio Equipment

Audio recording was an important tool to aid transcription of important and relevant details that could have been missed taking real-time notes and conducting simultaneous observation (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Situational dynamics and conversational emphasis were also used to the maximum degree possible. Data was enriched through observations and questionnaires.

Video was not employed in order to maintain anonymity.

3.17 Data Protection

Any data collected was only used in conjunction with Durham University School of Education research guidelines and confidentiality was guaranteed. The process of collecting and using data initially required names and audio recordings. Any data collected was stored in a password security protected computer within the university and remained so until completion of the research study. Data storage will remain in the library archive for a further five-year period post-completion in accordance with university regulations. Final anonymity was assured because only transcribed audio data were used in the study. Candidate names, numbers, and audio/video/image recordings were not required in the finalised thesis, and will not be available for any subsequent publication of data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Participation in research was voluntary and students were free to stop or withdraw from the programme at any time without giving a reason, and without fear of reprisals, as a result.

3.18 Ethical Considerations and Consent Requirement

Ethical consent forms and Participant Information Sheets were provided explaining the research participant process and assurances (Appendices 3.8, 3.9, 3.13 & 3.17). Aspects

covered included: informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, freedoms, advantages and benefits, consequence and danger-free process, post-research data availability, enquiry access and contact information, data security and protection, storage and duration of data retention (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Access and permission to observe in-sessional English classes was given and was carried out with the appropriate permissions.

The notion of anonymity was difficult to explain when personal detail was requested, and yet guaranteed not to be included in the final thesis. Trust and belief issues were encouraged by guarantees to destroy all notes and evidence of personal identification markers.

3.19 Summary

The methodological movement followed by this research in the social and behavioural sciences is categorised as quantitative and falls under the ontological assumption. Primary and secondary research conducted within this traditional positivist paradigm worked within an interest in quantitative methods involving numerical data and analyses, which provides the drive for this thesis.

Both primary and secondary research were employed to collect original first-hand data, and original second-hand or archive data for analysis (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Quantitative methods were employed to collect objective, empirical, and unbiased data. These included questionnaire, interview, direct classroom observation with audio recording support, knowledge test data, and classroom situation and dynamics chart methods that satisfy requirements of the ontological assumption in support of the positivist paradigm.

The nature of this research concerning errors and correction follows an ontological assumption with a traditional positivist approach where reality is objective, singular, and independent of the researcher in gaining empirical data through quantitative methods.

Chapter 4 Results and Analysis

4.1 Introduction

The main reason for conducting this research was to identify errors and correction during peer and teacher-student interaction and their effect on second language learning and test outcomes.

Research was carried out through the observation of ten classes of adult university students where the participant population (N: 236) comprised many nationalities learning English as a second language for the specific purpose of attending a UK university and studying at degree level (Chapter3). Additional research was conducted using questionnaires, interviews, and official test results (Chapter 3).

The results in this chapter have been assembled in three parts and organised into Part 1 Errors, Part 2 Corrections, and Part 3 Progress. They follow the order of the Research Questions for ease of reading.

In Part 1 Errors, the research aim was met by identifying the types and frequency of speaking errors made by second language learners in the classroom, the difference and the relationship between speaking error types and frequency committed during peer interaction and student/teacher interaction, and variation by age, gender, native/L1, self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction. The research aim was further met by identifying the extent errors of commission rather than omission are made, the learner/teacher perception of the role of omission during peer interaction, and the extent that learners appear unable to hear what is said in a listening context.

In Part 2 Correction, the learner/teacher perception of the role of correcting errors, implicit and explicit corrections, during adult peer interaction was analysed. Further research

identified the types and frequency of corrections experienced by second language learners when listening for information and speaking in the classroom, the difference and relationship between correction types and frequency made during peer interaction and student/teacher interaction, and the variation by age, gender, native/L1, self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction. Analysis was also carried out on the difference and relationship between ignoring errors and errors of omission, and the learner/teacher perception of the role of ignoring errors and corrections during peer interaction.

In Part 3 Progress, research data was analysed to identify how errors and corrections relate to progress in language learning, the extent errors and corrections affect second language learning outcomes, the relationship between type and frequency of speaking errors, and corrections, during student/teacher interaction and test gains.

4.2 Part 1 Errors

4.2.1 Question 1.a

What types and frequency of speaking errors are made by adult second language learners in the classroom?

This study identified and classified twelve types of speaking error with a cumulative total of 5540 errors made by a participant sample of 236 adult second language learners who were observed in a classroom environment (Table 4.1.1). This supports the notion that few errors fall into one category and some occur more, or less, frequently than others.

4.2.1.1 Analysis of Major Error Types

Addition Errors

Table 4.1.1 shows that Addition errors were the most frequent (31.1%). Although 80% of teachers identified them as common (Appendix 3.11), nearly half of students (48.6%) disagreed (Appendix 3.10), suggesting they are less aware of making such errors (Appendix 3.14). Learners may perceive additions as a sign of fluency rather than inaccuracy in an attempt to keep speech flowing even when unsure of correct forms. Schachter et al. (1991) suggest that a growing vocabulary can increase the likelihood of such additions and related hesitation behaviours.

Table 4.1.1 Error Types: Tallies and Percentages.

Error Type	Total Errors by Type	(%)
Addition (A)	1724	31.1
Pronunciation (P)	1468	26.5
Omission (^)	626	11.3
Wrong Word (W)	447	8.1
Tense (T)	333	6.0
Hesitation (H)	258	4.7
Grammar (G)	245	4.4
Native/L1 (N)	192	3.5
Word Order (O)	103	1.9
Meaning (M)	73	1.3
Unfinished Utterances (U)	56	1.0
Vernacular (V)	15	0.3
Total	5540	100.0

Pronunciation Errors

Pronunciation errors ranked second (26.5%). Teachers widely agreed they were common, but almost half of students (48.1%) denied frequent pronunciation problems. These errors are typically linked to first language (L1) interference, but can also arise from dialectal variation among teachers, rapid fluency development, or fossilisation (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

Omission Errors

Omission errors occurred at a relatively high frequency (11.3%), which was supported by teachers as common (Table 4.1.29). However, a student majority disagreed that they often miss words (Table 4.1.27) or parts of words out (Table 4.1.28), and failed to identify omission errors as common in the classroom. In the case of teacher and student omission errors part-omission is higher than word omission (Table 4.1.30), but overall, it rates lower in questionnaire responses. Omission errors may result from L1 interference, and also semantic or topic avoidance, which leads to language reduction.

Wrong Word Errors

Wrong Word errors were observed at a lower frequency (8.1%), but still identified by the majority of teachers and students as common, and in other research teachers regarded it as important, but most serious in terms of communication. This is contrary to students' opinion in existing research that vocabulary is least important.

Tense and Grammar Errors

Tense errors (6.0%) and grammar errors (4.4%) occurred less often. Nonetheless, both teachers and students recognised them as frequent and important. Interestingly, other researchers (e.g., Lyster, 2001; Chaudron, 1988; Alderson & Beretta, 1992) found grammar errors to be among the most frequent, while in this study they ranked lower. This may indicate a shift in classroom emphasis from grammar-focused instruction to a greater focus on pronunciation and vocabulary. However grammatical errors are lower down the importance rankings from a teacher's and student's perspective with the latter view that grammatical errors as more important.

4.2.1.2 Observed and Perceived Error Patterns

Although errors in speech are non-random, identified by linguistic rules, predictable and expected, Fromkin (1980) and Harmer (2007) point out that students commit errors, and repeatedly make the same examples despite repeated attention and correction (Rost, 2013). Vygotsky (1978) suggested that this may indicate incompatibility between the system and student participation. Both views identify a barrier to learning that can affect test outcomes.

In addition, the types and frequency of errors highlighted a difference between the actual observed order and the perceived order of errors. The student and teacher perceived order of errors committed respectively were noticeably different from each other, and the observed errors as shown in Table 5.2.1 below.

Table 5.2.1 Comparison of Observed and Perceived Error Order.

1. Student Data	2. Teacher Data	3. Observed Data
Tense	Grammar	Addition
Wrong word	Pronunciation	Pronunciation
Grammar	Addition	Omission
Addition	Tense	Wrong word
Pronunciation	Omission	Tense
Omission	Wrong word	Hesitation
Part Omission	Part Omission	Grammar

It was surprising to see grammar errors low in the observed data rankings (Table 5.2.1) as this contrasts with research conducted by Lyster (2001), Chaudron (1988), Chaudron (1977) and Alderson and Beretta (1992). Tense errors in this study are also relatively low in occurrence order in contrast to Alderson and Beretta's (1992) data. However the occurrence of pronunciation errors was relatively high, which concurs with Chaudron's data. The apparent

differences in order could reflect a change from traditional lessons with a grammar focus to pronunciation and/or vocabulary focus.

4.2.1.3 Perceived Importance of Errors

In view of their importance to learning, phonological and lexical errors are most serious in terms of comprehensibility and communication respectively according to Lyster (2001) and Chaudron (1988), and reflected in teachers' and student's views that pronunciation was most important (Table 5.2.2). In this research pronunciation errors were observed in high frequency, supported by teacher opinion that students make them often, however students disagreed. In already existing research what was considered important differs between student and teacher, and similarly in terms of making errors often the order differs again, however the observed occurrences are in line with the order agreed by teachers and items considered serious. In this research importance and error type are similar to existing research conducted by others, which teachers considered grammar errors most occurring and yet lower in scale of importance. In Lyster (2001) and Chaudron (1988) semantic errors were seen as more problematic than lexical errors overall and yet the current data places meaning errors in a much lower position in terms of occurrence, and these are not even mentioned in terms of importance. By contrast lexical errors are relatively high in occurrence and supported by seriousness and order of importance in other research and teachers' views, but students place vocabulary errors low in importance. Pronunciation and wrong word errors in this study were identified as high occurrence items, which supports other research that phonological or pronunciation, and lexical or vocabulary errors are most important to language learning compared to other error types, except in the case of students and the latter. Student's opinions are out of line with observed errors and teacher opinion in this research, as well as in former research, which indicates an issue with recognition, awareness, and even belief systems and could contribute to making errors and repeating them as long as this barrier exists.

Table 5.2.2 Error Importance to Learning.

Student	Teacher	Serious
Pronunciation	Phonological	Phonological
Grammar	Lexical	Lexical
Vocabulary	Grammatical	

A possible reason for the recognition of error types in class such as pronunciation and grammar could be because they are linguistic level classification despite being of relatively low occurrence at 26.5% and 4.22% respectively, whereas addition, omission, and substitution belong to form classification by comparison and were not identified as common in the classroom despite addition errors occurring the most at 31.12%. A possible explanation for the difference in actual error occurrences compared to interviewee opinions is that they are subjective and down to personal experience, which may or may not be different to average results.

The expectation based on the occurrence rather than the importance of errors from other research was grammar, lexical, and phonological errors, whereas the order was reversed in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, and then grammar with addition and omission higher up the scale than vocabulary and grammar.

4.2.1.4 Factor Influencing Error Occurrence

The overall quantity of errors committed appears quite large, but is a relatively small percentage compared to correct language items produced overall, which indicates a quantity of intake, short and long-term memory capacity, and/or fatigue issue. Problems may also result from not following linguistic rules precisely, which affects discrete linguistic units, the sequential order and planning of utterances, and interactivity of phonetically or semantically similar language items. It may also be associated with significant variation in language

learning properties resulting from age, L1 transfer or contrastive analysis, habitual, and setting differences. Theoretical reasons for the existence of errors may also be connected to the Critical Period hypothesis, over-reaching ZPD, i+1, inappropriate or ineffective strategies, fossilization, oversimplification, and overgeneralisation. Further reasons behind errors may be linked to focus, aptitude, anxiety, willingness, motivation, and/or individual differences such as age, prior learning ability, sex, interlanguage, and distance and magnitude between L1 and other languages, volume, and timeliness.

Differences were identified between occurrence, importance, and the order of errors. Differences in perception between teachers and students in relation to errors and their frequency were also identified. Despite the higher occurrences of observed error, which was also supported as occurring often from a teachers' perspective, the majority of students disagreed that they make respective errors often.

4.2.1.5 Summary

Addition (31.1%) and pronunciation errors (26.5%) were the most frequent error types. Teachers were generally more accurate than students in recognising common errors, and students tended to underestimate their error frequency, particularly for addition and omission types.

Phonological and lexical errors were most serious for comprehensibility and communication. The gap between observed and perceived errors reflects limited error awareness among learners, which may hinder progress.

These findings align with second language acquisition (SLA) theory and support the view that error recognition and awareness are critical to language development. Improving learners' ability to identify and understand their errors—especially those unnoticed in real-time speech—may lead to more accurate and confident oral production.

4.2.2 Question 1.b

What is the difference and the relationship between speaking error types and frequency that are committed during adult peer interaction and adult student/teacher interaction?

4.2.2.1 Speaking Error Types, Frequency, and Interaction

The error types can be broken down into two distinct groups; those committed during peer interaction (PI); and those committed during teacher/student interaction (TI). The analysis is based on a total of 5,540 errors identified across twelve error categories (see Appendix 4.0).

The totals and percentages were as follows:

Total errors (All sets): 5540 (100%).

Total errors (PI): 2013 (36.3%).

Total errors (TI): 3527 (63.7%).

Details are given in Table 4.1.2, which gives row percentages to highlight any differences between PI and TI errors.

Table 4.1.2 Error Types: PI and TI Tallies and Percentages.

Error Type	PI Error Tally	PI (%)	TI Error Tally	TI (%)
Addition (A)	546	31.7	1178	68.3
Pronunciation (P)	542	36.9	926	63.1
Omission (^)	225	35.9	401	64.1
Wrong Word (W)	98	21.9	349	78.1
Tense (T)	142	42.6	191	57.4
Hesitation (H)	68	26.4	190	73.6
Grammar (G)	95	38.8	150	61.2
Native/L1 (N)	168	87.5	24	12.5
Word Order (O)	60	58.3	43	41.8
Meaning (M)	36	49.3	37	50.7
Unfinished Utterances (U)	25	44.6	31	55.4
Vernacular (V)	8	53.3	7	46.7
(All Sets Errors)	(2013)	(36.3)	(3527)	(63.7)

Of the twelve error types Native/L1 (N), Word Order (O), and Vernacular (V) show a greater incidence of occurrence in PI as reflected by 87.5%, 58.3%, and 53.3% respectively. The remaining nine types show a higher incidence of TI errors ranging from 50.7% to 78.1%. By contrast the All Sets Errors show a greater incidence during TI at 63.7% compared to PI (36.3%).

4.2.2.2 Error Frequency by Class Category

Detailed class-by-class frequencies are provided in Appendix 4.0 (Summary Tables) and Appendix 4.1 (Individual Tables). The following subsections summarize key observations by major error category.

(a) Addition Errors. Total addition errors: 1,724

PI: 546 (31.7%); TI: 1,178 (68.3%)

Classes 7 and 1 showed higher percentages of PI addition errors (75.9% and 72.5%, respectively) (Appendix Table 4.1.3). Overall, TI addition errors were predominant at 68.3%.

By class category:

Pre-MBA (Class 1): PI 229; TI 87; Total 316

Pre-sessional Academic Skills (Classes 2–6): PI 123; TI 885; Total 1,008

In-sessional (Classes 7–10): PI 194; TI 206; Total 400

The Pre-MBA class recorded a high rate of PI addition errors (72.5%), whereas Pre-sessional classes showed only 12.2% PI errors.

(b) Pronunciation Errors. Total pronunciation errors: 1,468 (Appendix Table 4.1.4)

PI: 542 (36.9%); TI: 926 (63.1%)

Classes 1, 9, and 7 exhibited higher PI error rates (66.5%, 59.1%, and 55.8% respectively). In most classes (7 of 10), TI pronunciation errors predominated.

(c) Omission Errors. Total omission errors: 626 (Appendix Table 4.1.5)

PI: 225 (35.9%); TI: 401 (64.1%)

Classes 7 and 1 showed more PI omission errors (65.3% and 62.5%).

(d) Wrong Word Errors. Total wrong word errors: 447 (Appendix Table 4.1.6)

PI: 98 (21.9%); TI: 349 (78.1%)

Class 7 was the only instance where PI errors (57.8%) exceeded TI.

(e) Tense Errors. Total tense errors: 333 (Appendix Table 4.1.7)

PI: 142 (42.6%); TI: 191 (57.4%)

Classes 7, 1, and 10 showed higher PI error rates (77.8%, 74.4%, 60%).

(f) Native/L1 Errors. Total L1 errors: 192 (Appendix Table 4.1.8)

PI: 168 (87.5%); TI: 24 (12.5%)

All ten classes showed higher L1 errors during PI, ranging from 55.6% (Class 1) to 100% (Classes 3, 4, 9, 10).

(g) Hesitation Errors. Total hesitation errors: 258 (Appendix Table 4.1.9)

PI: 68 (26.4%); TI: 190 (73.6%)

Classes 7 and 1 showed higher PI hesitation rates (84.6% and 62.5%).

(h) Grammar Errors. Total grammar errors: 245 (Appendix Table 4.1.10)

PI: 95 (38.8%); TI: 150 (61.2%)

PI grammar errors were more frequent in Classes 1, 7, 3, 5, and 9.

(i) Word Order Errors. Total word order errors: 103 (Appendix Table 4.1.11)

PI: 60 (58.3%); TI: 43 (41.8%)

Classes 5, 7, 1, 6, 10, and 3 showed more PI word order errors.

(j) Meaning Errors. Total meaning errors: 73 (Appendix Table 4.1.12)

PI: 36 (49.3%); TI: 37 (50.7%)

Classes 5, 7, 10, and 1 showed PI dominance (100%, 100%, 100%, 65%).

(k) Unfinished Utterance Errors. Total unfinished utterances: 56 (Appendix Table 4.1.13)

PI: 25 (44.6%); TI: 31 (55.4%)

PI errors exceeded TI in Classes 3, 7, 5, and 9.

(l) Vernacular Errors. Total vernacular errors: 15 (Appendix Table 4.1.14)

PI: 8 (53.3%); TI: 7 (46.7%)

Classes 7, 1, and 5 recorded more PI vernacular errors.

All classes have at least one incidence of error type up to a total of all twelve types, which occur in greater incidence during Peer Interaction. The most common error, which occurs more during Peer Interaction in all ten classes, is N/L1 (Table 4.1.6).

Table 4.1.6 Error Types per Class Made During Peer Interaction.

Class	Error Type	Number of Types	Total Types
1	P, T, A, ^, G, O, H, V, N, M	10	12
2	N	1	12
3	N, U, G, O	4	12
4	N	1	12
5	O, M, N, U, G, V	6	12
6	N, O	2	12
7	V, M, N, U, O, H, T, A, G, ^, W, P	12	12
8	N	1	12
9	N, U, P, G	4	12
10	N, M, O, T	4	12

The class where all twelve error types were in evidence of use during PI is Class 7, which is in the In-sessional category. The most common type of PI error identified in all ten classes covering both pre-sessional and in-sessional class categories is N/L1.

4.2.2.3 PI/TI Error Type and Frequency Differences

Overall, the proportional difference between PI and TI equates to PI: 2,013 errors (36%), and TI: 3,527 errors (64%). This difference is largely attributable to the teacher-led nature of the lessons, where interaction time is greater, and consequently, more opportunities for errors arise.

Only three error types, N (L1), O (Word Order), and V (Vernacular), occurred more frequently in PI (Table 4.1.2). This finding contrasts with interview data and prior literature, which generally report similar error patterns across both interaction modes.

4.2.2.4 Summary

The higher frequency of L1, Word Order, and Vernacular errors in PI may reflect a more informal and experimental use of language among peers. Learners may code-switch or rely on L1-based structures when lacking confidence in L2, a phenomenon associated with simplistic drill-and-practice behaviour in low-stakes settings.

In contrast, TI language use is generally more structured, formal, and accuracy-focused, though influenced by performance anxiety. Learners tend to produce more complete utterances, yet errors increase due to pressure and complexity.

Topping (2005) found cognitive gains from cross-age peer sessions, while Katayama (2007) noted the benefits of both PI and TI, with TI often being more accurate and reliable. This aligns with the present findings where students preferred TI correction and viewed teacher feedback as more beneficial than peer correction.

Ultimately, differences between PI and TI may stem from:

Sociocultural and affective factors such as motivation, anxiety, and willingness to communicate.

Linguistic and developmental factors including ZPD, i+1, and L1 interference.

Contextual factors such as formality, task type, and duration of interaction.

The results therefore highlight that while PI encourages fluency and experimentation, TI fosters accuracy and error awareness, illustrating the complementary roles of both interaction modes in adult second language acquisition.

4.2.3 Question 1.c

How do the type and frequency of speaking errors vary by age, gender, native/first language (L1), self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction?

4.2.3.1 Error Type and Frequency Factor Variation

Significant variation in the type and frequency of speaking errors by age, gender, native/first language (L1), self-concept, and prior learning ability was identified by using the Chi-square (X^2) Test.

Error/Age Analysis

A X^2 Test between twelve TI Errors and twelve PI Errors, and two Age Categories (Younger (16-23); Older (24-51)) was carried out, which identified five variables of significance out of 24.

The data represented in Tables 4.1.7 and 4.1.8 below summarise significance levels, but do not show where the differences lie, or how strong the relationship between variables is.

Table 4.1.7 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Errors and Age Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Class	102	.15	1	1.000
Wrong Word	Class	83	.165	1	.735
Tense	Class	45	1.151	1	.358
Addition	Class	89	4.948	1	.038*
Omission	Class	77	1.778	1	.236
Grammar	Class	57	.711	1	.487
Word Order	Class	23	.593	1	.492
Hesitation	Class	49	2.528	1	.150
Unfinished	Class	20	3.045	1	.089
Vernacular	Class	6	.048	1	1.000
Native/L1	Class	17	1.616	1	.289
Meaning	Class	17	.546	1	.589

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.1.8 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Errors and Age Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	X^2	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Peer	50	4.305	1	.049*
Wrong Word	Peer	31	7.681	1	.006**
Tense	Peer	18	.839	1	.443
Addition	Peer	49	3.802	1	.071
Omission	Peer	43	1.392	1	.267
Grammar	Peer	29	6.352	1	.018*
Word Order	Peer	24	5.336	1	.022*
Hesitation	Peer	20	1.559	1	.321
Unfinished	Peer	11	1.906	1	.210
Vernacular	Peer	4	2.475	1	.297
Native/L1	Peer	50	2.947	1	.107
Meaning	Peer	17	3.251	1	.109

** p<.01 * p<.05

The significant results from Cross-tabulation of TI/PI Errors and Age Categories are followed up below.

1. Table 4.1.9 shows 89 (59.7%) out of a total 149 students made Addition errors during Teacher Interaction.

In the Younger category 27 (48.2%) students out of 56 made Addition errors during Teacher Interaction.

In the Older category 62 (66.7%) students out of 93 made Addition errors during Teacher Interaction.

Table 4.1.9 Teacher Interaction Addition Errors and Age Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Age Categories				Total	%
		Younger	%	Older	%		
Addition	0	29	51.8	31	33.3	60	40.3
	1	27	48.2	62	66.7	89	59.7
Total		56		93		149	

This showed that the older students were more likely to make Teacher Interaction Addition Errors than the younger students.

2. Table 4.1.10 shows 50 (33.6%) out of a total 149 students made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Younger category 13 (23.2%) students out of 56 made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Older category 37 (39.8%) students out of 93 made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.1.10 Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors and Age Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Age Categories				Total	%
		Younger	%	Older	%		
Pronunciation	0	43	76.8	56	60.2	99	66.4
	1	13	23.2	37	39.8	50	33.6
Total		56		93		149	

This showed that the older students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors than the younger students.

3. Table 4.1.11 shows 31 (20.8%) out of a total 149 students made Wrong Word errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Younger category 5 (8.9%) students out of 56 made Wrong Word errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Older category 26 (28.0%) students out of 93 made Wrong Word errors during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.1.11 Peer Interaction Wrong Word Errors and Age categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Age Categories				Total	%
		Younger	%	Older	%		
Wrong Word	0	51	91.1	67	72.0	118	79.2
	1	5	8.9	26	28.0	31	20.8
Total		56		93		149	

This showed that the older students were much more likely to make Peer Interaction Wrong Word Errors than the younger students.

4. Table 4.1.12 shows 29 (19.5%) out of a total 149 students made Grammar errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Younger category 5 (8.9%) students out of 56 made Grammar errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Older category 24 (25.8%) students out of 93 made Grammar errors during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.1.12 Peer Interaction Grammar Errors and Age Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Age Categories				Total	%
		Younger	%	Older	%		
Grammar	0	51	91.1	69	74.2	120	80.5
	1	5	8.9	24	25.8	29	19.5
Total		56		93		149	

This showed that the older students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Grammar Errors than the younger students.

5. Table 4.1.13 shows 24 (16.1%) out of a total 149 students made Word Order errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Younger category 4 (0.1%) students out of 56 made Word Order errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Older category 20 (21.5%) students out of 93 made Word Order errors during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.1.13 Peer Interaction Word Order Errors and Age Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Age Categories				Total	%
		Younger	%	Older	%		
Order	0	52	92.9	73	78.5	125	83.9
	1	4	0.1	20	21.5	24	16.1
Total		56		93		149	

This showed that the older students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Word Order Errors than the younger students.

Error/Years Analysis

A X^2 Test between twelve TI Errors and twelve PI Errors, and two Years Categories ((1-10); (11-26)) was carried out, which identified three variables of significance out of a total of 24 variables.

The Years category refers to the number of years students have been actively and formally learning English as a second language. The data were collected in the personal detail section of the questionnaire survey issued post-classroom-observation. The range was one year to 26 years, which was subsequently split into two relatively equal sub-categories (1-10 years) and (11-26 years) based on the modal value of the total range.

The data represented in Tables 4.1.14 and 4.1.15 below summarise significance levels, but do not show where the differences lie, or how strong the relationship between variables is.

Table 4.1.14 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Errors and Years Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher's Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Class	102	3.327	1	.075
Wrong Word	Class	83	1.325	1	.313
Tense	Class	45	.166	1	.719
Addition	Class	89	.935	1	.395
Omission	Class	77	1.794	1	.187
Grammar	Class	57	1.030	1	.390
Word Order	Class	23	.015	1	1.000
Hesitation	Class	49	.379	1	.596
Unfinished	Class	20	2.239	1	.150
Vernacular	Class	6	1.811	1	.221
Native/L1	Class	17	.940	1	.434
Meaning	Class	17	.197	1	.795

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.1.15 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Errors and Years Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	X^2	df	Fisher's Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Peer	50	8.280	1	.005**
Wrong Word	Peer	31	7.118	1	.008**
Tense	Peer	18	1.328	1	.311
Addition	Peer	49	2.830	1	.111
Omission	Peer	43	7.273	1	.009**
Grammar	Peer	29	3.895	1	.058
Word Order	Peer	24	1.466	1	.262
Hesitation	Peer	20	2.239	1	.150
Unfinished	Peer	11	2.409	1	.200
Vernacular	Peer	4	2.771	1	.149
Native/L1	Peer	50	.002	1	1.000
Meaning	Peer	17	2.235	1	.190

** p<.01 * p<.05

Points of note include three Peer Interaction error types (Pronunciation, Wrong Word, and Omission) and none of the Teacher/Student Interaction error types are significantly different.

The significant results from Cross-tabulation of PI Errors and Years Categories are followed up below.

1. Table 4.1.16 shows 50 (33.6%) out of a total 149 students made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

In the 1-10 Years category 38 (42.7%) students out of 89 made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

In the 11-26 Years category 12 (20.0%) students out of 60 made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.1.16 Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors and Years Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Years Categories				Total	%
		1-10	%	11-26	%		
Pronunciation	0	51	57.3	48	80.0	99	66.4
	1	38	42.7	12	20.0	50	33.6
Total		89		60		149	

This showed that the 1-10 Years students were much more likely to make Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors than the 11-26 Years students.

2. Table 4.1.17 shows 31 (20.8%) out of a total 149 students made Wrong Word errors during Peer Interaction.

In the 1-10 Years category 25 (28.1%) students out of 89 made Wrong Word errors during Peer Interaction.

In the 11-26 Years category 6 (6.7%) students out of 60 made Wrong Word errors during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.1.17 Peer Interaction Wrong Word Errors and Years Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Years Categories				Total	%
		1-10	%	11-26	%		
Wrong Word	0	64	71.9	54	90.0	118	79.2
	1	25	28.1	6	6.7	31	20.8
Total		89		60		149	

This showed that the 1-10 Years students were much more likely to make Peer Interaction Wrong Word Errors than the 11-26 Years students.

3. Table 4.1.18 shows 43 (28.9%) out of a total 149 students made Omission errors during Peer Interaction.

In the 1-10 Years category 33 (37.1%) students out of 89 made Omission errors during Peer Interaction.

In the 11-26 Years category 10 (16.7%) students out of 60 made Omission errors during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.1.18 Peer Interaction Omission Errors and Years Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Years Categories				Total	%
		1-10	%	11-26	%		
Omission	0	56	62.9	50	83.3	106	71.1
	1	33	37.1	10	16.7	43	28.9
Total		89		60		149	

This showed that the 1-10 Years students were much more likely to make Peer Interaction Omission Errors than the 11-26 Years students.

Error/Level Analysis

The Level Category refers to the IELTS standardised level attained by students who have been actively and formally learning English as a second language, the data of which was collected in the personal detail section of the questionnaire survey issued post-classroom-observation. The range was Level 6.0 to 7.5, which was subsequently split into two relatively equal sub-categories (6.0-6.5 Levels) and (7.0-7.5 Levels) based on the modal value of the total range.

A X^2 Test between twelve TI Errors and twelve PI Errors, and two Level Categories (6.0-6.5; 7.0-7.5) was carried out, which identified one variable of significance out of a total of 24 variables. Subsequently, the criteria for data requirement in terms of expected cell values were not met, which means none of the 24 variables were statistically significant.

The data represented in Tables 4.1.19 and 4.1.20 below summarise significance levels.

Table 4.1.19 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Errors and Level Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Class	102	2.116	1	.199
Wrong Word	Class	83	.137	1	.734
Tense	Class	45	1.508	1	.267
Addition	Class	89	1.279	1	.299
Omission	Class	77	.423	1	.609
Grammar	Class	57	3.936	1	.055
Word Order	Class	23	.397	1	.640
Hesitation	Class	49	.008	1	1.000
Unfinished	Class	20	1.892	1	.212
Vernacular	Class	6	.023	1	1.000
Native/L1	Class	17	4.235	1	.059
Meaning	Class	17	.387	1	.603

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.1.20 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Errors and Level Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	X^2	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Peer	50	1.080	1	.367
Wrong Word	Peer	31	.880	1	.406
Tense	Peer	18	.596	1	.445
Addition	Peer	49	1.001	1	.367
Omission	Peer	43	1.817	1	.194
Grammar	Peer	29	.411	1	.526
Word Order	Peer	24	.020	1	1.000
Hesitation	Peer	20	1.892	1	.212
Unfinished	Peer	11	6.842	1	.018*
Vernacular	Peer	4	2.672	1	.136
Native/L1	Peer	50	.002	1	1.000
Meaning	Peer	17	4.235	1	.059

** p<.01 * p<.05

The fact that there are not more differences between 6.0-6.5 and 7.0-7.5 IELTS Level Categories in terms of number and type of errors made during peer interaction and classroom interaction is surprising. Expectations included a greater incidence of errors made during the lower-level category simply due to the barriers inherent during early exposure, gradual learning, accuracy, and rate of learning in the formative and pre-intermediate stages of language learning. In the higher-level category it is expected that students become more fluent in use of language learned to date with the added load of increased subject difficulty, cognitive organisation, and vocabulary.

One hypothesis which might explain the lack of statistical significance between errors and level categories could be that the same errors persist throughout the English language learning process into and throughout adulthood regardless of attaining IELTS levels in the 6.0-7.5 range. Another hypothesis might be that testing systems such as IELTS are not very discriminating.

Error/Native L1 Analysis

The low representation of Japanese (8) in data responses may affect the analysis in a detrimental way. So, a decision was made to include Japanese (8) in the Other category making three categories in total: Chinese (176), European (16), and Other (24).

A X^2 Test between twelve TI Errors and twelve PI Errors, and three Native L1 Categories (Chinese (1); European (2); and Other (3)) was carried out, which identified one variable of significance out of a total of 24 variables.

The data represented in Tables 4.1.21 and 4.1.22 below summarise significance levels, but do not show where the differences lie, or how strong the relationship between variables is.

Table 4.1.21 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Errors and Native L1 Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	(p)
Pronunciation	Class	102	8.100	2	.017*
Wrong Word	Class	83	2.656	2	.265
Tense	Class	45	1.115	2	.573
Addition	Class	89	3.688	2	.158
Omission	Class	77	3.121	2	.210
Grammar	Class	57	0.457	2	.796
Word Order	Class	23	1.773	2	.412
Hesitation	Class	49	.556	2	.757
Unfinished	Class	20	1.091	2	.579
Vernacular	Class	6	0.785	2	.676
Native/L1	Class	17	2.420	2	.298
Meaning	Class	17	0.782	2	.676

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.1.22 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Errors and Native L1 Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	X^2	df	(p)
Pronunciation	Peer	50	3.083	2	.214
Wrong Word	Peer	31	0.419	2	.811
Tense	Peer	18	3.643	2	.162
Addition	Peer	49	1.132	2	.568
Omission	Peer	43	2.455	2	.293
Grammar	Peer	29	2.052	2	.358
Word Order	Peer	24	1.521	2	.467
Hesitation	Peer	20	1.091	2	.579
Unfinished	Peer	11	2.251	2	.324
Vernacular	Peer	4	5.291	2	.071
Native/L1	Peer	50	3.767	2	.152
Meaning	Peer	17	2.257	2	.323

** p<.01 * p<.05

The significant results from Cross-tabulation of TI/PI Errors and Native L1 Categories are followed up below.

1. Table 4.1.23 shows 102 (68.5%) out of a total 149 students made Pronunciation errors during Teacher Interaction.

In the Chinese (C) category 83 (72.8%) students out of 114 made Pronunciation errors during Teacher Interaction.

In the European (E) category 6 (37.5%) students out of 16 made Pronunciation errors during Teacher Interaction.

In the Other (O) category 13 (68.4%) students out of 19 made Pronunciation errors during Teacher Interaction.

Table 4.1.23 Teacher Interaction Pronunciation Errors and Native L1 Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Native L1 Categories						Total	%
		C	%	E	%	O	%		
Pronunciation	0	31	27.2	10	62.5	6	31.6	47	31.5
	1	83	72.8	6	37.5	13	68.4	102	68.5
Total		114		16		19		149	

This showed that Chinese L1 students were more likely to make Teacher Interaction Pronunciation Errors than Other, and European L1 students.

Error/Sex Analysis

A X^2 Test between twelve Teacher Interaction Errors and twelve Peer Interaction Errors, and two Sex Categories (Male (0); Female (1)) was carried out, which identified no variables of significance out of a total of 24 variables.

The data represented in Tables 4.1.24 and 4.1.25 below summarise significance levels.

Table 4.1.24 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Errors and Sex Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Class	102	.159	1	.840
Wrong Word	Class	83	.099	1	.851
Tense	Class	45	.038	1	1.000
Addition	Class	89	.013	1	1.000
Omission	Class	77	.263	1	.708
Grammar	Class	57	.043	1	1.000
Word Order	Class	23	2.222	1	.194
Hesitation	Class	49	.362	1	.554
Unfinished	Class	20	.003	1	1.000
Vernacular	Class	6	.257	1	1.000
Native/L1	Class	17	.154	1	.769
Meaning	Class	17	.623	1	.562

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.1.25 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Errors and Sex Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	X^2	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Pronunciation	Peer	50	1.672	1	.234
Wrong Word	Peer	31	.257	1	.646
Tense	Peer	18	1.931	1	.246
Addition	Peer	49	.041	1	.844
Omission	Peer	43	.184	1	.682
Grammar	Peer	29	.580	1	.480
Word Order	Peer	24	.328	1	.798
Hesitation	Peer	20	1.341	1	.407
Unfinished	Peer	11	.737	1	.472
Vernacular	Peer	4	5.300	1	.051
Native/L1	Peer	50	2.230	1	.165
Meaning	Peer	17	.623	1	.562

** p<.01 * p<.05

None of the PI error types and none of the TI error types are significantly different out of a total of twelve PI error types and twelve TI error types respectively.

The Sex groups were identified simply as Male and Female, which attracted 75 and 141 students respectively. This proportional bias affects the statistical power of the test and may be a reason statistical significance was not achieved.

An Overview of Results

Five variables of significance were identified between the Older Age Category (23-51 age group) and Addition errors committed during CI; and Pronunciation; Wrong Word; Grammar; and Word Order errors committed during PI. This shows the older students were more likely to make these errors in the respective situations compared to the Younger Age Category (16-22 age group) students.

Three variables of significance were identified between the Years Category (1-10 years) and Pronunciation; Wrong Word; and Omission errors committed during PI. This shows students who have studied English as a second language between 1 to 10 years were more likely to make these errors in the respective situations compared to the students who have studied English longer, between 11 to 26 years.

One variable of significance was identified between the Native/L1 Category and Pronunciation errors committed during CI. This shows that Chinese students were more likely to make these errors in this respective situation compared to the European or Other Category students.

No variables of significance were identified in terms of Sex Category (Male/Female) and errors committed during CI/PI, and Level Category (6.0-6.5/7.0-7.5) and errors committed during CI/PI.

PI/TI Error Type and Individual Difference Variation

The twelve error types (5.2.1) identified in classroom observation research combined with reliable and more important intrinsic and extrinsic factors from research by Oxford & Shearin (1994), Williams & Burden (1997), and Dörnyei (2001) helped to identify significant

variation in the type and frequency of speaking errors committed by age, gender, native/first language (L1), self-concept, and prior learning ability.

The manipulation of integrative and instrumental motivational aspects creates an environment of acceptance of and willingness to participate in the L2 learning process (Gardner, 1985) and the socio-educational model exhibits individual difference characteristics some or all of which may affect outcomes both positively and negatively at different levels individually. Individual difference characteristics that may be affective include biological or experiential antecedent factors including age, gender, or prior learning experience, learner variables including intelligence, aptitude, strategies, attitudes, motivation, and anxiety, SLA contexts, and learning outcomes.

Evidence of failure in second language learning has been attributed to cognitive factors such as intelligence, aptitude, and language-learning strategies (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Dörnyei, 2001), affective factors including attitudes, motivation, and anxiety (Ellis, 1994), social factors and influences underlying expected success in different cultures, environmental factors covering opportunities, resources, time and timing, and teaching methods particularly feedback on listening experiences (Rost, 2013). Other areas of failure have been identified in genetic factors covering the critical period of language acquisition (Singleton, 1995), and linguistic factors such as L1 and L2 differences (Gass, 1996; Rost, 2013).

Age

Age is a very important factor to which many other factors are relative to the point that the older a person gets the better and wiser they become, which can be linked to Temporal self-appraisal theory where people have a positive current self that will always improve based on the present situation (Ross, 1997; Markus, & Nurius, 1986; Wilson & Ross, 2001; Wilson, Buehler, Lawford, Schmidt, & Yong, 2012; Ross, & Wilson, 2002).

Error and Age Analysis

The X^2 Test conducted between Error and Age Categories identified a group of ninety-three 23-51 year-olds as the Older Category showed significant differences in five cases and were more likely to make respective TI and addition, and PI and pronunciation, word order, and grammar errors, and PI and wrong word errors in particular (Tables 4.1.7 and 4.1.8).

Problems may develop as a result of a failure to reach and maintain certain levels of cognitive and mental abilities (Piaget, 1978), fluency and pronunciation (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992), listening and concentrating to a wider range including level of work and peer influences (Williams & Burden, 1999), later complex and differentiated development of mental structures (Oxford and Sherin, 1996), and experience of learning in the right conditions (Ford, 1992; Oxford, 1996).

Transitional processes from younger to older age reflect many differences experienced as a child, an adolescent, and an adult. Research into the transition from pre-adult to adult highlights differences from extrinsically to intrinsically motivated (Brown, 1994; Ehrman & Oxford, 1991), lower to higher motivation (Okada, Oxford, Abo, 1996), narrower to wider range of strategies (Okada, Oxford, Abo, 1996), control to facilitation (Wlodkowski, 1986), negative to positive self-concept, securing agreements to sharing intentions (Bruner, 1992), arguing to prove a point to checking to confirm points (Vygotsky, 1978; Piaget, 1978), limited to memories and facts and reliance on logic and abstract facts to fully developed and automatic (Vygotsky, 1978), and stronger to heavily reduced memory recall, which could all cause problems for the older category of students (Vygotsky, 1978).

Individual characteristics and differences in culture, age, gender, ability level and attitude complicate human nature and affect self-concept, motivational strategies, and learning

outcomes (Bong & Clark, 1999; Byrne, 1984; Byrne & Worth, 1996; Shavelson, & Bolus, 1982; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976; Dörnyei, 2001).

Listening and test-related stress and poor outcomes can be the result of diminished confidence and self-concept, which is exacerbated by increased age (Wick (1973), Lindvall & Nitko (1975a), and Cohen (1980). However, Oxford (1996) and Schmidt et al (1996) research into language learning among adults, age, gender, and proficiency identified motivation is linked to extended learning, learning strategies, and a preference for certain kinds of classes and learning tasks respectively.

Learning is identified as optimal given that the self and situation or conditions are relatively so, which points to a situation that is mostly less than ideal. The significance of pronunciation errors committed by older students during TI could relate to less-than-optimal learning conditions, requiring more time to process new material, back-sliding to a previously fossilized state or failed strategies. The situational dynamics are affected far more in terms of the frequency and type of errors committed during PI and the lack of teacher control compared to CI. Older students may be more confident in their approach to participation and subject themselves to increased, riskier involvement and exposure to making more significant errors than the younger students. It is interesting to note that the five error types identified as significant and very significant in terms of wrong word error may be attributed to L1 interference.

Years of Study PLA

Temporal self-appraisal theory holds for years of study and prior learning ability. It parallels changes with age (Markus & Nurius, 1986), which is supported by research into developmental age and stage factors in L2 learning by Oxford (1996) and Schmidt et al (1996). Research conducted on 18 undergraduates, mostly Chinese L1 speakers, identified

fossilized speakers. They had studied for a number of years (5+) and had a history of course failure (Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

The results from research into 1,109 English speaking adults learning a difficult second language such as Japanese compared to Spanish identified considerably higher motivation levels and the use of a wider range of language learning strategies, which may promote learning (Okada, Oxford, Abo, 1996). Furthermore, differences in ability level and attitude affect motivational strategies (Dörnyei, 2001) so higher motivation levels and the use of a wider range of language learning strategies may also hinder learning by working against eachother.

Listening and other testing systems can inspire negative and affective feelings brought about by former stressful experiences and poor outcomes, which may be transferred to L2 learners in the 1-10-year category (Wick, 1973; Lindvall & Nitko, 1975a; Cohen, 1980).

Mediated behaviour development results in higher mental processes dependent upon motivation, engagement, transformations, and satisfaction of structured conditions over time. Mediated memory shows reduced recall by a half in adults compared to younger learners (Vygotsky, 1978).

Educational requirements include being physiologically and psychologically ready, able, and willing to learn at the appropriate level. This may lead to difficulties caused by premature learning, learning at the incorrect level (Vygotsky, 1978).

Error/Years Analysis

The X^2 Test conducted between Errors and Years Categories identified very significant differences between pronunciation, wrong word, and omission errors committed during PI

with the (1-10) Years of English study group being more likely to make Peer Interaction Errors than the group with more experience (Tables 4.1.14 and 4.1.15).

This may be accounted for by the fact that students with fewer years of experience in English study may be going through the early stages of learning and attempting to communicate more, but in doing so errors are more prevalent. There is also a situation where awkwardness and lack of confidence may manifest itself during and as a result of PI whereas students with more than ten years of experience in learning English may have become accustomed to it. Furthermore, it is possible that more experienced learners either get more language correct or avoid communicating thus reducing the number of errors committed.

Problems may develop and be projected as a result of failure to reach and maintain certain levels and goals in life such as early development cognitive and mental abilities (Piaget, 1978), fluency and pronunciation (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992), listening and concentrating to a wider range including level of work and peer influences (Williams & Burden, 1999), later complex and differentiated development of mental structures (Oxford and Sherin, 1996), and experience of learning in the right conditions (Ford, 1992; Oxford, 1996).

The same transitional processes from younger to older age reflect many differences experienced, which may be affected detrimentally within and across age ranges and relative prior learning ability. Research covers variations and types of motivation, strategies, processing ability, self-concept, intentions, confirming, and reduced memory recall, which could all cause problems for students in the 1-10 years of English study group and respective prior learning ability.

Learning and teaching practice may be undermined by motivational strategies in terms of differences in ability level and attitude (Dörnyei, 2001). Self-concept can be affected by

individual characteristics such as prior learning ability (Bong & Clark, 1999; Byrne, 1984; Byrne & Worth, 1996; Shavelson, & Bolus, 1982; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976), which can manifest as a long period of stress and poor outcomes in listening, and other testing (Wick, 1973; Lindvall & Nitko, 1975a; and Cohen, 1980).

Level, Self-concept, and Culture

If most people consider the positive current self is better and will improve over time, and most people are specifically motivated to learn a foreign language to a satisfactory level (Dörnyei, 2001), then success and position within a system based on duration, which is linked to age and number of years of study is important. However, mostly older adults are more intrinsically oriented, which may mean rewards such as levels are less significant (Brown, 1994; Dörnyei, 2001). Any aspect of motivation applied to or emergent from individual characteristics can be positively and negatively affected by perception (Okada, Oxford & Abo, 1996; Bong & Clark, 1999; Byrne, 1984; Byrne & Worth, 1996; Shavelson, & Bolus, 1982; Shavelson, Hubner & Stanton, 1976; Wick, 1973; Lindvall & Nitko, 1975a; and Cohen, 1980).

Error/Level Analysis

None of the 24 variables were found to be statistically significant between Errors and Level Categories, (6.0-6.5) and (7.0-7.5), based on modal values and IELTS grade levels as represented in Tables 4.1.19 and 4.1.20.

The fact that there are not more differences between 6.0-6.5 and 7.0-7.5 IELTS Level Categories in terms of number and type of errors made during peer interaction and classroom interaction is surprising. This highlights the expectation that a greater incidence of errors made during the lower-level category simply due to the barriers inherent during early exposure, gradual learning, accuracy, and rate of learning in the formative and pre-

intermediate stages of language learning do not lead to statistical significance in this case. In the higher-level category the expectation that students become more fluent in use of language learned to date with the added load of increased subject difficulty, cognitive organisation, and vocabulary do not lead to statistical significance in this case either.

One hypothesis which might explain the lack of statistical significance between errors and level categories could be that the same errors persist throughout the English language learning process regardless of attaining IELTS levels in the 6.0-7.5 range. Another hypothesis might be that testing systems such as IELTS are not very discriminating.

L1/L2

My observation is that Chinese students tend to be motivated and conditioned to identify with more interdependent and interpersonal collective relationships. Most students in this study would like teacher interaction slightly more than peer interaction, which reflects interdependence, perhaps underpinned by the cultural belief that teachers are the recognised authority and ultimately responsible for teaching and learning outcomes rather than peers. Saving face is a major concern, which although exposed during TI appears to be the more acceptable form of interaction where identification of errors and correctness lead to perhaps a higher belief and value in terms of learning and success (Levinson, 1983). A preference for more traditional teacher interaction reflects efficient and effective collective and direct learning, which works particularly well with large student numbers, but whether by default or a strategy students tend to avoid confrontation, be introverted, prefer memorization strategies, and exhibit anxiety, a lower fluency level and a tendency to avoid colloquial words that affect student self-concept, motivation, competence, and behavior.

Pronunciation errors are especially prevalent among Chinese students of English (Table 4.1.23; Table 4.1.34), and most have been attributed to L1 interference, however languages of relative difficulty to English such as Chinese (Level 4) have a high, but limited initial

motivation level that enters a critical period leading to memorisation strategies, a reduction in frequency, and increased introverted behaviour according to research conducted by Schiefle (1991), which could also be a factor in explaining the reason for pronunciation errors during TI in this study.

Less than optimal readiness to access and ability to process information during speech production in processability theory, which draws similarities to ZPD, i+1, and assimilation/accommodation requirements (Pienemann, 1999), and the lack of challenges, exposure, support, and feedback in listening skills will affect development and self-concept according to Rost's (2002) research. Time constraints and limited processing capacity in short-term memory during listening (Van Patten, 1990; 1996), could result in expected pronunciation being missed due to position in the input processing sequence (Rost, 2013).

Affective variables such as anxiety are one of the main reasons for learning difficulty. For listening there is a negative correlation with anxiety among Chinese learners of English, but also among pair interactions and self-concept. Increased anxiety corresponds to decreased listening, peer interaction, and self-concept, which could explain the significance attached to making pronunciation errors (Dulay, Burt & Krashen, 1982; Yang, 1993; Aniero, 1990; Rost, 2002).

Social factors such as perceived differences between peers (Pica, 1992), social standing, and self-concept affect negotiation of meaning (Gudykunst, 1995; Carrier, 1999), and could explain why face-saving politeness strategies are employed in an attempt to establish common ground (Levinson, 1983).

Interactional competence and listening success in L2 can be less than optimal in terms of cross-cultural pragmatics, knowledge of cultural norms, position of response tokens, relative projectability and expectations to the English SVO structure, and turn-taking linguistic

devices whereby Chinese students pronunciation may be affected because they wait the longest (Clancy, Thompson, Suzuki & Tao, 1996). Success in L2 can also be affected where projectability and expectations are relatively early and results in complete silence or persistent interruption at the wrong time (Iwasaki, 2009; Morita, 2008; Carroll, 2005; Takahashi, 2009), and results in fossilization (Tannen, 1984; Blum-Kulka et al, 1989; Wong & Waring, 2010; Lantolf & Appel, 1994).

Error/Native L1 Analysis

The X^2 Test between Errors and Native L1 Categories identified one variable of significance as represented in Tables 4.1.21 and 4.1.22, where the Chinese L1 students were more likely to make pronunciation errors during TI than Other, and European L1 students.

Pronunciation is a much-recognised problem among all learners of language and teachers and can be attributed to L1 interference in line with SLA theory, particularly in the case of differences in L1/L2 difficulty such as between Chinese and English and vice versa.

Gender/Sex

Many examples of gender differences identified in various stages of research place males and females as significantly more interdependent and preferring larger groups (Cross and Madson, 1997; Gabriel and Gardner, 1999; Maccoby, 1990; Boesch and Boesch-Achermann, 2000). Research identified gender differences in self-concept, interaction, affect, cognition, behaviour, gender stereotypes, abilities, academic success, age, self-construal, social structure, motivation, learning strategies, different approaches to communication, and preference for certain kinds of classes and learning tasks (Tannen, 1990). And in other research female students often use more strategies at higher levels regardless of cultural background. Self-construal is stronger among females, women use both sides of the brain when listening, females are better and more willing listeners and less burdened by feelings of subordination

and self-concept issues, women maintain communication in a responsive and supportive way, and effect is the same for any group size (Oxford, 1995; Okada, Oxford, & Abo, 1996; Tiedemann, 2000; Benner and Mistry, 2007; Benenson & Heath, 2006; Schmidt et al, 1996; Cohen, 1981; Wodak, 1997; Kothoff & Wodak, 1998; Fishman, 1983). Higher levels of social behavior were observed among same-sex groups of children, which diminished in mixed groups where females tended to become more responsive during communicative activities (Jacklin & Maccoby, 1978).

Error/Sex Analysis

The X^2 Test conducted between Errors and Sex Categories did not identify any variables of significance as represented in Tables 4.1.24 and 4.1.25. No differences were found between male and female learners despite many differences indicated between gender types, as well as some similarities, identified in much research, which suggests gender is neutral or insignificant in this case.

Question 1.d

To what extent are errors of commission rather than omission made?

The total number of errors from all ten classes involved in observation research is 5540. The total errors of Omission are identified as 626 (11.30%) errors, which results in the remaining 4914 (88.70%) being errors of commission (Table 4.1.26). There is approximately a 1 to 8 ratio of errors of omission to commission. It is therefore reasonable to see why teachers may tend to focus on errors of commission rather than omission.

Table 4.1.26 Errors of Commission and Omission.

	Interaction	Tally	Totals	(%)
Errors of Commission	PI/TI	4914	5540	88.70
Errors of Omission	PI/TI	626	5540	11.30
	PI	225	5540	4.06
	TI	401	5540	7.24
	PI/TI	626	4914 Commission	12.74
	PI	225	4914 Commission	4.58
	TI	401	4914 Commission	8.16
	PI	225	626 Omission	35.94
	TI	401	626 Omission	64.06

A further sub-division of the total 626 Omission errors reveals the PI total of 225 (35.94%) errors and TI total of 401 (64.06%) errors. Evidence shows the ratio of just under 2 to 1 omission errors were committed during TI as compared to PI.

Commission and Omission Errors

The difficulty in discriminating between errors has resulted in a further form of prioritisation in which according to Harmer (2007) teachers prefer to focus on errors of commission rather than omission. Other research suggests a broader view of prioritisation in terms of high occurrence rate, importance, or ease of correction (Cohen, 1975), or phonological errors (Nystrom, 1983), or meaning-focused content errors (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977), but what of the type and frequency of omission errors?

The total number of errors from all ten classes involved in observation research was 5540 (100.0%) of which 626 (11.30%) were identified as errors of omission and the remaining 4914 (88.70%) errors of commission respectively (Table 4.1.26). The percentage of omission errors relative to the total number of errors equates to a ratio of just over one in ten. It is reasonable to conclude that teachers tend to focus on errors of commission rather than omission as a result. However, omissions remain conspicuous by their absence. Some researchers suggest errors should be identified and dealt with either immediately or subject to delay strategies, whereas others identify with the view that it is impossible to deal with all

errors all of the time. SLA research places omission errors in the form category, which is different to linguistic level category such as pronunciation errors or type category such as systematic errors. This could explain the practicality attached to dealing with more tangible errors considered more important and prioritised accordingly.

A further sub-division of the total of 626 omission errors reveals the Peer Interaction (PI) total of 225 (35.94%) omission errors and the Teacher Interaction (TI) total of 401 (64.06%) omission errors. This means a ratio of just under two to one omission errors were committed during Teacher Interaction as compared to Peer Interaction. When compared to the total overall error tally of 5540 errors committed during observation research the number of PI omission errors (225) and TI omission errors (401) were 4.1% and 7.2% respectively. A possible reason for such a large number of omission errors is L1 interference. Another possible reason for the extent of omission errors, which could include elements of elision and ellipsis, may be that the meaning is not affected and the strategy is more fluency focussed than accuracy.

The overall tally of errors of commission is a majority of 4914 (88.7%) in this study, which is such a surprisingly large figure that it makes sense for teachers to focus on errors of commission rather than omission in line with Harmer's (2007) view.

Question 1.d.i

What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of omission during adult peer interaction?

Table 4.1.27 shows student questionnaire data for the statement: "I often miss words out." A total of 216 students from ten classes completed a questionnaire of which the higher proportion of 149 (69.0%) who responded 1+2+3 tend to disagree that they often miss words out. It should be noted that the adverb of frequency 'often' is relevant in that the same students may agree to make omission errors less often rather than never. Fifteen (6.9%)

students neither agreed nor disagreed. The interesting point is that the remaining 52 (24.1%) students who responded 5+6+7, which equate to just under 1to 4, tended to agree that they often miss words out.

Table 4.1.27 Missing Words Out.

Likert Scale	Scale	Frequency	%
1	One	57	26.4
2	Two	65	30.1
3	Three	27	12.5
4	Four	15	6.9
5	Five	19	8.8
6	Six	20	9.3
7	Seven	13	6.0
	Total	216	100.0

The following table (Table 4.1.28) shows student questionnaire data for the statement: “I often miss parts of words out.” A higher proportion of 137 (63.5%) tend to disagree that they often miss parts of words out. Eighteen (8.3%) students neither agreed nor disagreed. The interesting point is that the remaining 61 (28.2%) students, which equate to over 2 to7, tend to agree that they often miss parts of words out.

A slight increase in the number of students agree they often miss out parts of words (54; 24.1%) compared to whole words (61; 28.2%).

Table 4.1.28 Missing Parts of Words Out.

Likert Scale	Scale	Frequency	%
1	One	46	21.3
2	Two	55	25.5
3	Three	36	16.7
4	Four	18	8.3
5	Five	30	13.9
6	Six	18	8.3
7	Seven	13	6.0
	Total	216	100.0

The following table shows teacher questionnaire data for the statement: “Students often miss words out.” A total of 15 teachers completed a questionnaire of which the lower proportion of

5 (33.3%) tend to disagree that students often miss words out. None of the teachers selected '1' for 'strongly disagree'. Two (13.3%) teachers neither agree nor disagree. It is interesting to note that the remaining 8 (53.3%) teachers, which equate to just over 1 to 2, tend to agree that students often miss words out. Two female and three male teachers disagree; two females neither agree nor disagree. Five females and three males agree.

The higher proportion of eight (53.3%) teachers agree students often miss words out, but it is interesting to note the lower proportion of students 52 (24.1%) agree they miss words out.

Table 4.1.29 (Teacher) Missing Words Out.

Likert Scale	Scale	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	2	13.3
3	Three	3	20.0
4	Four	2	13.3
5	Five	2	13.3
6	Six	3	20.0
7	Seven	3	20.0
	Total	15	100.0

The next table (Table 4.1.29) shows teacher questionnaire data for the statement: "Students often miss parts of words out." A total of 15 teachers completed a questionnaire of which the lower proportion of 1 (6.7%) tends to disagree that students often miss parts of words out. None of the teachers selected '1' for 'strongly disagree' or '3'. Four (26.7%) teachers neither agree nor disagree. It is interesting to note that the remaining ten (66.6%) teachers, which equate to just over 2 to 3, tend to agree that students often miss parts of words out.

The higher proportion of ten (66.6%) teachers agree students often miss parts of words out, but it is in contrast to the lower proportion of students 61 (28.2%) agree they miss parts of words out. More teachers agree words and parts of words are often missed out by students with the latter slightly higher. The student proportion of agreement is lower in terms of both words and parts of words, but the relative proportion shows an increase in missing parts of

words out often. This is in line with the teachers' perception of students often making whole or part omission errors in their classes.

Table 4.1.30 (Teacher) Missing Parts of Words Out.

Likert Scale	Scale	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	1	6.7
3	Three	0	0.0
4	Four	4	26.7
5	Five	3	20.0
6	Six	5	33.3
7	Seven	2	13.3
	Total	15	100.0

Interview data

Interview data for the question: "How common is omission during peer interaction?" shows:

Student 152 IM Class 7: "More than during student-teacher interaction."

Student 209 CM Class10: "Common."

Student 58 AF Class 5: "Rare."

The male student perspective is that omission during peer interaction is common to more common than during teacher interaction. The female student perspective is that it is rare.

Classroom observation research shows Class 7 omission errors during peer interaction as 64 (65.31%) compared to teacher interaction omission errors as 34 (34.69%), which supports the statement by student 152 (Table 4.1.31). Class 10 omission errors during peer interaction totals 24 (39.34%) compared to 37 (60.66%) during Teacher interaction, which holds true for student 209. Class 5 peer interaction omission errors total 12 (46.15%) compared to 14 (53.85%) during Teacher interaction. The tallies of omission errors in Class 5 are low in

incidence and peer interaction omission errors are slightly lower than in Teacher interaction, but they are close and high in percentage terms to prove more common rather than rare.

The cumulative total of Omission errors observed in all ten classrooms is 626 errors.

The total errors experienced during Peer Interaction (PI) appear to be a minimum tally of 225 errors, which represents 35.94% of the total omission errors committed.

The total errors experienced during Teacher Interaction (TI) appear to be a minimum tally of 401 errors, which represents 64.06% of the total omission errors committed.

Table 4.1.31 Omission Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	60	62.50	36	37.50	96
2	5	6.49	72	93.51	77
3	26	35.14	48	64.86	74
4	4	7.41	50	92.59	54
5	12	46.15	14	53.85	26
6	14	19.44	58	80.56	72
7	64	65.31	34	34.69	98
8	3	9.68	28	90.32	31
9	13	35.14	24	64.86	37
10	24	39.34	37	60.66	61
All ^ Type Only	225	35.94	401	64.06	626
All Sets Errors	2013	36.34	3527	63.66	5540

Classes 7 and 1 show a higher percentage of PI rather than TI Omission errors at 65.31%, and 62.5% respectively. The obverse is true in terms of the other eight classes, and represented overall at 64.06% where TI Omission errors are committed.

Interview Data

Interview data for the question: “How common is omission during peer interaction?” shows:

Student 152 IM Class 7: “More than during student-teacher interaction.”

Student 209 CM Class10: “Common.”

Student 58 AF Class 5: “Rare.”

None of the three interviewees mentioned omission as an error type in terms of peer or student-teacher interaction despite opportunities during questions 1, 4, and 7 to do so.

The Italian male student explained that there appears to be a fear of being wrong during CI, which is less of a problem during PI. Class performance is expected to be better, which results in fewer omission errors. The perception is PI affords the student the opportunity to concentrate less, which results in an increase in omission errors and a poorer overall performance. Omissions are acceptable in terms of forms of speech such as set phrases and those epitomised as journalistic style bullet points.

The Chinese male student noticed that missing out words during PI happens, but at a lower frequency than making errors, which suggests he does not consider omission an error type or as less serious. He further mentions he did not realize he made this type of error. The fact that omissions have not been pointed out is due in his estimation that a peer would say something, but saving face prevents monitoring in this way. He agreed that no student would correct another out of politeness.

After requesting an example of what an omission error was the Arabic female student admits she notices omission errors, but in her opinion, it is a rare occurrence. The omissions are not seen as something you consider as long as the utterance is understandable. The student mentions that she can understand the meaning even when some parts of the sentences are not there, which suggests a preference for fluency, meaning, and understanding over accuracy.

Perception of Omission during PI

According to Harmer (2007) teachers tend not to focus on errors of omission, but would prefer to focus on errors of commission. This highlights a common perception among teachers that errors are hierarchical and errors of omission are of low priority. Students may also consider omission errors as satisfactory based on the shared experience and falling in line with teachers' priorities in a similar regard.

Students appear to be aware of omission in terms of missing words or parts of words out as indicated by questionnaire evidence carried out post-class observation and further supported by teacher opinions of student practices. Disagreement exists where the majority of students tend to think that they do not make omission errors often, whereas the majority of teachers report that students do. However, both students and teachers agree that missing parts of words out often is slightly more prevalent than missing out whole words (Tables 4.1.27-30).

Overall, observation data identified omission errors as occurring much less during PI than TI (Table 4.1.31). Despite this, students' perceptions of omission are relatively close to the observed limits in respective classrooms because variation exists when compared to overall data figures. Another limitation may emerge where opinion may follow a trend by general consensus, or accepted as general knowledge, which may or may not agree with personal experience or actual occurrences at different levels.

Despite two out of ten classes showing a higher percentage of PI Omission errors at 65.31%, and 62.5% respectively none of the interviewees mentioned omission as an error type in terms of peer or student-teacher interaction except for opportunities directed by the surveyor, which indicates other types are more prevalent, or TI is the preferred option, and cause for concern.

The perception among students was that PI affords peers the opportunity to concentrate less and participate without the fear of embarrassment, which results in an increase in omission errors and a poorer overall performance. A lack of awareness in committing this type of error during PI exists perhaps facilitated by the overuse of politeness strategies that prevent monitoring properly even though peers are aware they should. Students reported that as long as the meaning remains intact and the utterance is understandable, omissions are disregarded, which suggests a preference for fluency, meaning, and understanding over accuracy supported by teachers' strategies of not digressing from lesson objectives. Individual factors could be responsible for heavy influence on PI and the cause of omission including, culture, sex, L1, self-concept, level, age, years of study, and prior learning ability.

Despite teachers and peers being aware of complete and/or partial omission errors the focus on satisfying lesson objectives and opting for fluency over accuracy, as well as cultural considerations tends to override the need for correction as long as meaning, understanding, lesson objectives and focus are maintained. Some omissions are acceptable in terms of forms of speech such as elision, ellipses, set phrases and those epitomised as journalistic style bullet points, which as long as lesson objectives are met may be a poorer, and yet satisfactory performance.

Omission errors not only need to be identified and acknowledged as a problem, but they need to be addressed earlier in language study from beginner level during the accuracy stage rather than being accepted in favour of fluency production. Students who later emulate TI practices during PI may then be more aware of and deal with omission errors as they occur, if any, with confidence and without diminishing fluency production.

Question 1.e

To what extent do learners appear unable to hear what is being said in a listening context?

Obvious specific examples from classroom observation transcription depict silence, correct answers not acknowledged, and incorrect responses, which aid in the identification of the possible instances and extent that learners appear unable to hear in a listening context. Overall, the tally data is limited, but it does highlight the existence of errors which occur in parts of speech with a noticeable proportional difference in incidence between the Chinese and Other categories.

In terms of longer utterances there are a total of thirteen questions posed by the respective teachers to which there was no response at all from complete classes comprising both Chinese and Other categorical student groups (Table 4.1.32). Two further questions were answered in part by Chinese students where the final part on each occasion remained unanswered until further prompted by the teacher.

Table 4.1.32 Sentence Errors Made in Apparent Non-listening Situations.

Listening Error	Chinese	%	Other	%	Total
No response	All		All		13
Limited	2	100.0	0	0.0	2

Errors which emerged as a result of the 'unable to hear' nature of the examples produced resulted in four groups as follows: Wrong Word; Addition; Omission; and Pronunciation.

Comparison of the part and total tallies of the four groups show Pronunciation errors made during instances where learners appear unable to hear in a listening context is the largest at 145; 41.9% of 346 total listening errors (Table 4.1.33). Omission (74; 51.0%) and Wrong Word (71; 49.0%) tallies are approximately half, and Addition (56; 38.6%) is approximately a third of the Pronunciation (145; 41.9%) tally respectively.

The overall tally total resulted in 346 errors, which is made up of Chinese and Other categories at 302 (87.3%) and 44 (12.7%) errors respectively (Table 4.1.33). Incidentally, only five (11.4%) of the 44 errors from the Other category were from Japanese students, which further justifies the removal of Japanese as a separate category. It should be remembered that the proportion of all students in ten classes who are Chinese is roughly two thirds of the population and should be reflected in the error committed tallies and percentages. Generally, Chinese students make more, and Other students make fewer, errors than expected.

Table 4.1.33 Error Tally where Learners Appear Unable to Hear in a Listening Context.

Listening Error	Chinese	%	Other	%	Total
Wrong Word	61	85.9	10	14.1	71
Pronunciation	127	87.6	18	12.4	145
Omission	62	83.8	12	16.2	74
Addition	52	92.9	4	7.1	56
Total	302	87.3	44	12.7	346

The Wrong Word tally total of 71 errors represents 61 (85.9%) Chinese and 10 (14.1%) Other category errors.

The Pronunciation tally total of 145 errors were committed during non-listening situations, which are heavily biased towards Chinese students who made 127 (87.6%) compared to Other 18 (12.4%). This bias is further noted in the case of Omission and Addition errors.

Omission errors total 74 of which 62 (83.8%) were Chinese and Other 12 (16.2%).

Addition errors total 56 of which 52 (92.9%) were Chinese and Other 4 (7.1%).

In terms of word structure Pronunciation errors occur in Initial, Medial, and Final stages of a word as identified in Table 4.1.34. The pattern shows total Medial errors (95) occur the most compared to Initial (30) and Final (20), but the relative frequency of occurrence in percentage terms show Chinese Category Medial (85, 89.5%) in close proximity to Final (17, 85%) and Initial (25, 83.3%). The Other Category shows a different order where Initial (5, 16.7%),

Final (3, 15%), and Medial (10, 10.5%) errors take place, which may reflect the different nature of L1 comparisons between English, Chinese and Other languages. The results help identify differences in the pronunciation errors made by Chinese students and Other-category students in terms of greater frequency of occurrence, types of words where the errors take place, and also the position of error in each individual word.

Table 4.1.34 Pronunciation.

Listening Error	Chinese	%	Other	%	Total
Initial	25	83.3	5	16.7	30
Medial	85	89.5	10	10.5	95
Final	17	85.0	3	15.0	20
Total	127	87.6	18	12.4	145

The category of Omission shows instances of words, part words, and phonemic items sub-divided into Initial, Medial, and Final positions where errors are manifest (Table 4.1.35). The tally of total Omission errors shows Final (16) as the most common, followed by Medial (15), and Initial (4) position errors. The data show Chinese category students omit Initial, Medial, and Final items compared to Final, Medial, and Initial in decreasing frequency by Other-category students. Complete words (32, 94.1%) are omitted more by Chinese than Other-category students (2, 5.9%). Similarly, part words (3, 60.0%) are omitted more by Chinese than Other-category students (2, 40.0%).

Table 4.1.35 Omission.

Listening Error	Chinese	%	Other	%	Total
Initial	4	100.0	0	0.0	4
Medial	13	86.7	2	13.3	15
Final	10	62.5	6	37.5	16
Part word	3	60.0	2	40.0	5
Word	32	94.1	2	5.9	34
Total	62	83.8	12	16.2	74

The Addition errors occur with the lowest frequency and show a decreasing Final, Initial, and Medial order respectively (Table 4.1.36). The Chinese category displays a greater occurrence

of Addition errors in all but one category Medial, Final, and Initial, where both Chinese and Other categories show 50% Initial error. Complete words (31, 96.9%) are omitted more by Chinese than Other-category students (1, 3.1%). Similarly, part words (12, 100.0%) are omitted more by Chinese than Other-category students (0, 0.0%).

Table 4.1.36 Addition.

Listening Error	Chinese	%	Other	%	Total
Initial	1	50.0	1	50.0	2
Medial	1	100.0	0	0.0	1
Final	7	77.8	2	22.2	9
Part word	12	100.0	0	0.0	12
Word	31	96.9	1	3.1	32

Classes 1-6 are the smaller pre-sessional paid/conditional classes, which feature relatively fewer listening errors compared to the larger free in-sessional classes 7-10.

Examples of utterances and omissions from class observation research provide opportunities to identify areas where students appear unable to hear what is being said in a listening context as follows:

In Class 1 of Aug 22 all five students (SPSS 1-5) failed to respond to the teacher's enquiry, "How is the board now?" and "Better?"

All five students made 's' final omission errors. Other omission errors include 'd' and 'ed' in the verb final position. Complete word omissions include 'have', and 'phrased'.

Two Chinese female students made '*s' final addition errors.

Two Chinese female students made wrong word errors, which include:

*direct/double, *them/and, *citation/quotation, and *use of/useful.

Examples of initial pronunciation errors include *k/q; medial pronunciation errors such as *zh/s, and marketing/*marking; and final pronunciation errors are have/*hava.

An instance of not listening could be the result of misunderstanding in the case of ‘drawbacks.’ A Korean male student uttered the correct form twice, but then twice omitted the word final plural ‘s’ in ‘drawbacks.’

In peer interaction there is an instance where the Chinese female student said ‘quotation’ correctly then lapsed into the incorrect word initial pronunciation ‘*kotation.’

In Class 2 of Sep 9A all eleven students (SPSS 17-27) failed to respond to the teacher’s enquiry,

“So what could we say instead of cold, then?”

One Chinese male student failed to respond to a further question from the teacher,

“Bill, what are the modal verbs *are we talking about here?” and a prompt “Bill?”

The resulting wrong word error was *perhaps/may. Two Chinese female students also made wrong word errors *can’t/may, *should/may, and *could/may.

In Class 3 of Sep 9B from a total of five students (SPSS 28-32) a Turkish male student made persistent pronunciation errors in terms of ‘*d/th’, ‘*t/th’ in the case of the/*de, this/*dis (also think/*teenk/*tink; these/*dees; thought/*taught and yet the word ‘that’ was pronounced perfectly!). And despite multiple attempts at variation multi-faceted/*moolti-faced/*mult/*moolti-facet-ed/*moolti-facent/*multi-facent became a struggle that eventually led to the student giving up his part in the conversation.

In Class 4 of Sep 13A (SPSS 33-44) all twelve students failed to respond to the teacher’s enquiry,

“Em, what sort of comments did you get?”

“What sort of feedback did you get on this?”

The follow up question, “Did Simon say very well, good, well done, or very good?” eventually gleaned a limited class response of, “No.”

Further failed responses occurred too, “What do you understand by the word ‘niche’?

“It’s a lovely word isn’t it, ‘niche’?

“What does ‘niche’ mean to you?”

“Don’t understand it at all?”

In response a Chinese female student answered, “Mm? He-he. Sorry. Mm, he-he.” to the question, “Number 6?” and failed to respond further.

One Thai female student despite prompting by a fellow Thai female student continued to utter *neetch/niche even after eleven minutes. A further ten minutes later a Chinese female student uttered “*neek”, which the teacher thought was “league”, but when investigated the student spelled niche perfectly and pronounced the word perfectly after prompting. Much later the same Thai student although prompted correctly by a Chinese female student persisted with, “*Neetch.” Later still a Chinese male student pronounced the word, “*Nitche.”

On another occasion a Chinese female student uttered “variables” correctly after prolonged pronunciation practice with the class only to revert to “*vari-vari-bres”, then “*vari-variables”, “*vari-bres”, and “*variabres.” The same student also went from “students/*stoodents/students” with teacher support.

In Class 5 of Sep 13B (SPSS 45-58) all fourteen students failed to respond to three teacher questions,

“What is example number one?”

“Has anybody got Diego’s attached to theirs?”

“No? The back? Can somebody check at the back, they haven’t got Diego’s?”

A Chinese female student answered the wrong word *Tyne/at the end. Instead of the main verb “is” a Spanish male answered “*construction” and a Chinese male answered “*heart-attack”, which are both nouns.

Two Chinese males and females used wrong words *globalisation instead of glocalisation. Although the example appears to be a possible pronunciation problem compared to completely wrong words in previous cases, both were in the context paragraph and clearly the exercise and/or meaning led to misinterpretation.

In Class 6 of Sep 16 (SPSS 59-70) one of the twelve Chinese female students interjected with a wrong word error reflecting cultural differences *sick/lie-in.

One student responded with the wrong answer, but in doing so also failed to repeat her classmate’s response, “that people accuse big brands of being evil”/” *it’s *big *brand of being *ebil.”

In Class 7 of Oct 15 (SPSS 118-153) all 36 students were Chinese. An excellent example shows a Chinese female student recounting an experience where she asked where she could borrow a trolley from, and due to poor pronunciation, the lady thought she said *toilet. The teacher listening to the anecdote thought she said *towel. The Chinese female student agreed with the teacher and the wrong word ‘*towel’, but then corrected it to ‘*trowel’, which is also incorrect. Another Chinese female student corrected them both and still had to repeat ‘trolley’ to confirm the correct word to the teacher before the penny dropped. The conversation follows:

20.02 S30 Yeah, yeah, and, eh, the lady at ze Brookes House Reception, I ask her the, her, where can I borrow a trolley? And, eh, she sought I needa go to the *toilet. So

she takes me to the place and say there is a *toilet there. No, no, I just want to borrow a trolley, he-he.

T A *towel?

20.22 S30 Yeah. *Towel. *Trowel.

S31 Trolley.

20.24 T A trolley?

20.25 S31 Trolley.

20.26 T Oh, a trolleeey. Oh, you wanted to borrow a trolley and she thought you wanted to borrow a toilet. Okay, that's a good one.

Despite several attempts by the teacher and Chinese female peer to correct a Chinese female student's pronunciation error '*mous/mouth' in the 'th' word final position, the interaction proved unsuccessful. Perhaps uncharacteristically, the peer questioned her classmate's inability by saying, "Really?" in disbelief.

34.57 S17 *Mous.

S18 Mouth.

35.00 S17 *Mous.

S18 Mouth.

35.01 T Mouth.

35.03 S17 *Mous.

S18 Really? Mouth.

35.05 T Mou-thu.

35.07 S17 *Mous.

At 61.36 minutes the class repetition involved the word ‘photographer’, which was successful. The teacher drilled part of the word ‘tog’, where a Chinese female student repeated ‘*photog’. The European male peer corrected her and drilling was successful. At the end of the drill a Chinese male student repeatedly pronounced the word incorrectly.

At the 62.33-minute point a Chinese female student pronounced parabola *parabora twice, was corrected by the teacher, repeated the word correctly, then immediately fell back on the error form. A Chinese male pronounced it *parabla despite further teacher correction.

There appears to be a trend by a Chinese male student in the failure to emulate or mimic pronunciation of utterances such as important/*impohtant, statistical/*stateestical, sta/*teesta, tees/*sta-teesta, what you’re saying is/ *what you’re saying/ *what you’re/*you’re saying, think/*sink, that NATO/*the NATO, is a thing/is a *sing, that’s it/*thet’s it, it’s outlived its usefulness/ It’s *outloved its *usefelmiss, the Soviet Union’s gone/ the Soviet *noon’s gone, Russia’s an ally/*Roossia’s an ally, not a threat/ not *ret *sret.

A Chinese female student said, “So, what you are saying is”, but the Brazilian male peer replied, “So, *so, what *chips are saying*”.

Whilst repeating the teachers sentences a Chinese male student made persistent pronunciation and omission errors which include: You see I think there are a number of things we can do/*Num-number of *; *I think, *I think, *I think *a number of *sings we can do; We could vary * material we use in the structure; say/*Just *to say; Not *a-, not any, *no-not *a-any old *ceramic; *Eh, one; and *incuporateit *in; *cema-ceramics.

At 91.20 minutes into the lesson the teacher made wrong word errors, which were repeated by the class correctly despite being wrong: *there are/ I think. A Chinese male student says, “I *theenk/I think”, then gets it right to then say, “*sink” and immediately self-corrects to “think”.

Addition errors include *there and *are, and plural ‘s’ in structure/*structures. Also, teacher error using the modal auxillary verb ‘can’, we use/we *can use.

Pronunciation errors are evident in terms of things/*sings and *wary/vary; be understood/be *anstood; but understanding/ but *unstanding; and thank/*sank x3.

Grammar errors include: there are a number of things/*there’s a number of *sings.

Omission errors show the possibility of meaningful omission due to existing knowledge that pronunciation of the word ‘vary’ is difficult: vary the material/ *the material.

Tense error of present perfect instead of simple present is shown in we use/*that are used.

Wrong word error is still in the possessive pronoun category: its/*their.

In Class 8 of Oct 22 Teacher Interaction reveals Omission errors which include, *and/and feeling full; I was a fool/*fool. A Chinese male student made omission errors wearing a hood and feeling full/*wearing hood; get him in/*get in; my brother is broken/*rarur is; a high/*prime; he’s very/*very. A Chinese male student made an Omission error and Pronunciation error as in, is Paris/*Paras x2.

Chinese female student omissions include *wonderfulchievement/wonderful achievement/*A *what *erful *…; portion of/*portion.

Another Chinese male student pronounces hard/*haad; him/*heem incorrectly. Chinese male student Pronunciation errors are shown as in he’s/*he is; fool/*foal; and hood/*hoot. A

Chinese female student persistently makes pronunciation errors: tongue x3/*tong x3. Chinese female students Pronunciation errors include *and/'n' and a Chinese male student, fish/*fees. A Chinese male was unable to pronounce morphed or time sensitive forms such as *kind of x2/kinuv x3; *do yuh x2/duyuh x3; *1 and/1and.

A Chinese male student error then becomes Wrong Word from Omission as in, brother is broken/*he's broken; he's/*she's. A Chinese male made Wrong Word errors such as London/*Jordan; capital of/*capital's.

A Chinese male student made an 's' final plural Addition error: music x3/*musics.

The following example from the class transcript shows students are unable to listen to or comprehend instructions fully.

72.32	T	The first line, the second line, and the third line.
	S14	Okay, *em, 1-2-3-4. *1and -2 and -3 and -*6 and -*3 and -4. *1-1, *eh, -2 and -3 and -4, he-he.
	T	What's the third line?
72.45	S14	Okay, *eh, *1-1 and *-2 and a-3 and a-4.
	T	1 and a-2 and a-3 and a -4.
73.04	T	Would you read for us all of the lines?
	S26	*Eh, *both, *eh, all of the four lines?
	T	All of the four lines?
73.10	S26	1-2-3-4, 1and -2 and *a -3 and *a -4. 1 and a -2 and a -3 and a -4.
	T	And the last one.

73.16 S26 *1-1 and then a -2 and then a -3 and then a -4.

Furthermore, rhythm and stress create timing errors, which affects pronunciation and creates opportunities for addition errors. In some instances, hesitation utterances such as, ‘em’ affect the flow of the utterance from the start.

In Class 9 of Nov 4 at 11.57 minutes into the lesson a Japanese male student made Pronunciation errors: *deescreeminate/discriminate; *subzectif/*subzective/subjective. The Chinese female peer corrected both times without success. The Japanese male also had difficulty pronouncing *lang/*langage/language.

A male student was unable to pronounce *anziety x3/anxiety despite a teacher prompt.

A Chinese female made the pronunciation error *makting/makiting, then had a class prompt, followed by teacher metalinguistic help, which resulted in correct pronunciation with an American accent. Another teacher prompt led to incorrect pronunciation again *markting, but a further teacher pronunciation prompt finally gleaned a correct response.

A Chinese female also experienced Pronunciation errors with confidence/confidence/*cafeedence/confidence despite Korean male peer and teacher prompts.

A Chinese female had difficulty pronouncing *kon x5/quan, and was able to say the initial syllable ‘quan’ in isolation, but not quantitive.

A Korean female made a pronunciation error *pro/pruh. An Indian male made pronunciation errors *poo/pul twice, first and third attempts despite being correct on the second attempt.

A Chinese female student made persistent pronunciation errors, *conseederation x 15/consideration; *deesemination x 6/dissemination despite correction by a Korean female peer.

An Italian male student's pronunciation errors were similar as in work/*weurk, learn/*leurn.

A Male student's pronunciation errors include *l-learn/learn, work/*vork.

A Chinese female student made pronunciation errors such as *lorrov/lot of; *haad/hard; *langage x 6/language; an Omission error *certain/certainly; and a Wrong Word error *the x 4/that. Despite class and male prompts, the Chinese female student pronunciation errors included: that/*that's; that/*that's; tha'/*that; then the class repeated the teacher's error until finally everyone was correct.

In Class 10 of Nov 20 at 31.06 minutes into the lesson the pronunciation error *Torrento/Toronto was made by a Chinese female and led to disagreement despite correct prompting by the group captain. This is perhaps due to the beginning of the class where the teacher failed to notice/correct the error. Chinese female tin/*teen; thin/*theen. Chinese female tin/*teen. Chinese male tin/*ten; thin/*theen x 2.

The teacher asked, "Threw is past. What's the present form?" A male student made a Wrong Word error with *past x 2. A female student also made a Wrong Word error with *past form x 2. Another male student responded correctly, but made a pronunciation error *srow/throw.

A Male student's spelling pronunciation revealed the error *t-h-i-j-h, whereby a female student repeated 'g-h' correctly three times. The male student repeated *j-h incorrectly, then answered 'g' correctly.

A male student pronounced ship/sheep, *sheep/sheep. He knew the different sounds i/ee, then reversed words sheep/ship. This may reflect a lack of confidence in the student's ability.

Female students made pronunciation errors, which include tin/*teen; *teen and teen/tin and teen;*ten/tin. The teacher asked for the number after nine and elicited the answer ten from male and female students. The teacher repeated tin/teen, but a female student made the pronunciation error *ten x 2/tin, then responded correctly.

A male student made pronunciation errors *shaberation/preparation; *probally/probably.

The teacher asked what the first sound in the word ‘exceed’ was. The class responded incorrectly with *k/e. This could be important in terms of the overuse of hesitation markers such as ‘eh’ or’em’ especially if the sounds are not heard or acknowledged for use in speech.

At 59.53 minutes into the lesson a female student made pronunciation errors *inflate/inflation/*eenflation/ inflation.

A female student made persistent omission errors with *department/s despite after recognising the plural was required she made the same error again *department/s.

Both female and male students made persistent pronunciation errors, *and/en x 5/x 2. A female student made a different pronunciation error, *buh/uh. Finally, the male students were correct.

A female student made omission errors *brother/s, *sister/s; pronunciation errors *have you/huv yuh x 5, got/*goat x 3, then got/*goat again; and Omission errors huvyuhgot/ *you.

A male student made omission errors *if necessary/if he’s necessary; certainly, he’s useful, but I wonder/ *I wonder; and Wrong Word errors: if he’s necessary/*certainly. He then got all the utterances correct.

A female student made a pronunciation error, irritating/*erritating; and a Wrong Word error, I wonder/*he wonder.

Extent of Hearing during Listening

Indications of listening require some form of understanding in terms of the situation, what is said, what is required in response, appropriate signals, and the ability to deliver appropriate and correct production. Although many problems can occur with regard to listening ability where utterances and sounds are heard, processed, understood, learned, and stored, it is the condition of the output as production that reflects learning, determines performance levels, and highlights further problems as errors.

It is quite clear that it is difficult to identify whether students are unable to hear or simply unwilling to respond for some reason whether intentional or unintentional. The tally of unanswered data or noticeable gaps where responses should be, help to quantify instances where hearing difficulties may exist. It can be assumed that students are in fact unable to hear in a listening context by the absence of responses regardless of the reasons.

Obvious specific examples from classroom observation transcription depict silence, correct answers not acknowledged, and incorrect responses, which aid in the identification of the possible instances and extent that learners appear unable to hear in a listening context. Overall the tally data is limited, but it does highlight the existence of errors which occur in parts of speech with a noticeable proportional difference in incidence between Chinese and Other categories.

There may be many reasons attributed to the problems experienced in listening. Although identified during PI and TI in conversational activities and possibly caused by the process in itself, Chinese students for example may have got to their respective stages or levels of second language learning by more isolated and individual means. Practices such as learning from more reading, listening to limited media broadcasts, reading class notes, and rigid teaching methods, are all without the opportunity for interaction or negotiation of meaning.

Problems can also be attributed to expectation of what is said compared to what was actually said (Krashen, 1985; Rost, 2013). Even though simple mimicking or repetition can confirm recognition of sounds through to complete sentences, it appears lacking on many occasions in this study where instructions are not followed and questions go unanswered.

The complexity and potential for error in language learning is described in Dynamical Systems Theory, Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Vygotsky's ZPD, Piaget's accommodation, and operating simultaneously in de Bot's multiple ZPDs at varying levels. Even once learned language may fail due to potential atrophied states such as memory-store duration, recall and forgetfulness.

SLA theory identifies L1 interference in the form of influence and contrast to L2 languages, which covers a range of reasons for deviant language such as cultural differences, timing, stress, rhythm, intonation, accent, cues, process time, sequence, interlanguage, recognition, boundaries, stress and differentiation, acoustics and variation, prosody, perception, delay tactics, addition, omission, pronunciation, wrong word (substitution, false friends, false cognates), code-switching, turn-taking, and response tokens, but not all.

Common causes of lexical, grammatical, and conceptual problems identified by Hinds (1985), Esch (1992), Rost (1990), Bremer et al (1996), Long (1990) included mishearing, ellipsis, difficult construction, and false assumption of shared knowledge.

Complete silence or rambling consistent with the urge to say something, in addition to participatory uncertainty and delays have been attributed to pragmatic difficulties found because of turn-taking, response tokens, projectability of structure differences, and relative timing in respective languages and cultures (Celce-Murcia, 2007; Kasper, 2006; Young & Miller, 2004; Young, 2008; Clancy, Thompson, Suzuki & Tao, 1996; Iwasaki, 2009; Morita, 2008; Wong & Waring, 2010).

Bottom-up processes in listening include speech perception, accuracy, and word recognition, which provide comprehension data experienced more in the earlier stages of learning, whereas top-down processes rely on fall-back strategies such as semantic expectations and generalisation, and reliance on context (Rost, 2002). Easier and lower-level accuracy instruction focuses directly on items in isolation, which can be pronounced differently to items subjected to elaboration, or extension, or chunking, which also alters timing, and meaning in what is uttered and heard (Doughty & Williams, 1998).

Over-generalisation of grammar rules, uncertainty markers, and other deviant language can become acceptable norms through assimilation, modification, clipping, decoding approximation, foreigner talk, linguistic adjustments or modified input, redistribution of stressed-unstressed syllable patterns, resyllabification, elision, reduction, weak forms (function words, lacks), and ellipses, instances of errors of which alter the stress and timing of language structures in terms of delay and have a knock on effect on expectation, listening, and meaning.

Inadequate levels of knowledge, experience, readiness, willingness, intention, expectation, and motivation trigger survival tactics and strategies limiting listening and production ability (Pienemann, 1999).

Expectation and processing listening input is affected by attitude to speech, accent, and gender, and learning multiple skills at once such as reading/writing learning affects speaking/listening output in terms of prosody, which also has the effect of attitude to speech.

Thirteen questions from teachers failed to meet with any response from classes comprising both Chinese and Other categorical student groups (Table 4.1.32). Two further questions were answered in part by Chinese students where the final part on each occasion remained unanswered until further prompted by the teacher.

Sentence Level

In one class all twelve students failed to respond to the teacher's enquiry, which could have been listened to and simply ignored or just not heard. Analysis of the question forms identifies a transition from information to yes/no with additional information. This could indicate a ZPD problem where the entire class of students were not ready or able to deal with the language at that level, as suggested by Pienemann (1999), until eventually reiterated and understood successfully. Survival strategies may activate whereby students automatically say nothing for as long as possible as a delay or thinking time strategy, but are forced to say something, anything, in this case yes or no. Silence could also be attributed to L1 interference in terms of response tokens or projectability timings (Iwasaki, 2009; Morita, 2008; Carroll, 2005; Takahashi, 2009). Another problem according to Pienemann (1999) may be connected to preparation and timing readiness and temporary or short-term memory where again in this case an automatic response is adequate, but the sequence of information has not been learned for certain and communication has effectively broken down.

Word Level

The total number of errors produced during instances where learners appeared unable to hear in a listening context was a relatively small 346 (6.25%) compared to the overall tally of 5540 errors. The errors resulted in four types where listening may be affected or defective, which included pronunciation, omission, wrong word, and addition in order of highest to lowest occurrence respectively. Pronunciation errors (145; 41.9%) formed the largest type out of 346 total listening errors (Table 4.1.33), which identified pronunciation as the area where most students fail to listen properly and is one of the main contributors to L1 interference. By comparison to pronunciation, omission, wrong word, and addition errors represented much lower occurrences of almost half or less those committed in the pronunciation tally, which could mean students had improved listening standards when processing these types.

A total of 346 errors was made up of Chinese and Other categories at 302 (87.3%) and 44 (12.7%) errors respectively (Table 4.1.33), which indicates Chinese students made significantly more errors, not just overall, but in a recurring pattern across all four error types, and were unable to hear in a listening context than expected based on the population bias of approximately 2 to 1. Possible reasons for Chinese making more errors could include L1 interference, respective difficulty levels between all languages and English, projectability and response token timing, and recognition, listening experience and practice problems, and limited knowledge.

In terms of word structure total Pronunciation medial errors (95) occur the most compared to initial (30) and final (20) (Table 4.1.34), but the relative frequency of occurrence in percentage terms show Chinese Category medial (85, 89.5%) in close proximity to final (17, 85%) and initial (25, 83.3%). However, the sequences of Omission (Table 4.1.35) and Addition (Table 4.1.36) errors were in a different order, as were the Chinese and Other categories to eachother in diminishing returns. The randomness and complete spread of errors to phonemic level among certain error types highlights the extent of not being able to hear in a listening context, the Chinese category in particular.

Pronunciation errors have been linked to L1 influence, and low-level proficiency, where the amount of strain in terms of degrees of accent and effort to listen, and inconsistencies adversely affects perception, accuracy, meaning, and proficiency in listening (UCLES, 2003; Fulcher, 2000; Jenkins, 2000; Shockey, 2002; Hughes, 2006).

Students from the Chinese category omitted and added significantly more complete words (32, 94.1%) and (31, 96.9%), and part words (3, 60.0%) and (12, 100.0%) respectively than the Other category students.

Classes 1-6 are the smaller pre-sessional paid/conditional classes, which feature relatively fewer listening errors and more students appear able to hear what is being said in a listening context compared to the larger free in-sessional classes 7-10.

Examples of utterances and omissions from class observation research provide opportunities to identify areas where students appear unable to hear what is being said in a listening context as follows:

Omissions

Examples of complete word omissions cover the lexical spectrum. Part phrases are omitted to leave salient features, but not the same groups of lexical items, whereas part words could also mean over-generalisation, which is common in this study particularly plural 's' omission. Elision omits the sound altogether as a result of speed and register the more common of which include /v/, /th/, /l/, /r/, /n/, /k/, word final /t/ and /d/ such as in superlatives and past forms of verbs, and as Brown (1990) concluded between consonants (Shockey, 2002) and is common in this study. Laver (1994) points out all polysyllabic words can have reduced pronunciation 'actually to [ashli]' resulting from weakness or learned that way as a simplified chunk (Field, 2008) such as [der] in 'understood' and 'understanding'.

Foreigner talk, linguistic adjustments or modified input (Parker & Chaudron, 1987; Long & Larsen-Freeman, 1991) may contribute to deviant language provision (Chaudron, 1988; Rost, 2002). Learning and fluency is affected by simplified input between Japanese ESOL students and native speakers (Chafe, 1994). The comprehensible output hypothesis recognises listening proficiency is gained by semantic-pragmatic means, but it may not be free of processing unfamiliar or difficult structures in this case.

Parts of speech cannot be identified because of numerous weak forms that are caused by vowel quality, phoneme loss, lack of stress, short duration, and regional variation, which can

be missed or ignored (Gimson, 1994). Field (2008). Similarly, the lack of detailed information and reliance on context, learning multiple skills at once, and use of 'schwa' cause problems (Davenport & Hannahs, 2010).

Koster, (1987), Brown (1990), and Gimson (1994) assume L2 listeners approximate the decoding process and are unable to identify whole words due to assimilation or modification, and clipping the ends of words particularly word-final consonants: [n, t, d, s, z], which is common in this study such as in the final position *lang clipped or using the cut-off repair initiator, and adverbial final '-ly'.

Fluency characteristics such as segmentation and variation identify initial word boundaries based on stressed syllables, 90% of content words in particular, and differentiation, which could explain using the initial part of words and dropping the remainder (Rost, 2002; Cutler & Butterfield, 1992; Sajavaara, 1986; Davenport & Hannahs, 2010). Post-positions in Japanese stress and explicit emphasis promotes boundaries and accuracy, and confirms meaning is heard and understood, which is different in other languages.

Field, (2008) suggests many breakdowns in listening are reduced to a poor recognition of sounds, syllables, words, and grammatical patterns or features of intonation where a phoneme error is taken as a word-level error, which leads to failure. Slower lexical recognition could be the result of learners processing information in compound or different stores rather than coordinate or same store styles as found in bilingualism (Churchland, 1999; Rost, 2002).

Wrong Word

Chinese male and female students made wrong word errors, which included connected and unconnected types where boundaries went unnoticed and although some errors were shared by Spanish students, Brazilian students made very different types by comparison, which may

be the result of variation between respective language difficulty levels compared to English and each other.

Listening was operational in this case, but simple repeating, or mimicking coupled with reading the answer proved too much where learning multiple skills simultaneously creates problems such as backsliding (Hughes, 2006):

“that people accuse big brands of being evil”/ “*it’s *big *brand of being *ebil.”

In this example listening was operational, but teachers and students suddenly learned incorrect information and carried on to a point:

A Chinese female asked for a trolley, but it was misheard/misunderstood as *toilet. The teacher misheard/misunderstood it as *towel. The Chinese female then agreed with ‘*towel’, but then corrected it to ‘*trowel’, which was also incorrect. Another student had to remind everyone it was a trolley including the person who initiated the story.

Blindly following an example after the teacher made wrong word errors, which were repeated by the class correctly despite being wrong epitomises belief in teacher-led activities:

*there are/ I think. The class listened to the literal items, but failed to ‘listen’ to what was really correct.

Many utterances were made correctly by students who reverted to incorrectness despite peer and teacher support, which is perhaps linked to backsliding (Selinker, 1972), or giving up, alternation, or regression (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). The particular areas affected among Chinese students can be seen at phoneme, morpheme, consonant, vowel, both, addition, elision, omission, word, phrase, and sentence levels during teacher and peer interaction. Both instructive and supportive assistance is given multiple times at immediate and delayed times where it remains unclear whether the information is even heard in terms of attention due to

the persistence of some errors, sometimes extreme in cases and may be attributed to fossilization or stagnation (Rost, 2013). The students all appeared to be attentive, interested and participatory throughout observation, which points to a problem with external interference between observed behaviour and listening, ignoring or blocking-out input, or implicit processing interference to produce deviant language. Some situations showed students actively listening, and trying, but persistently repeating the same error, or some other incorrect derivation to then return to the same error again, which points to some kind of implicit cognitive or ability resistance, or conflict if you will. The amount of time to process new or unfamiliar language coupled with sufficient practice is also a major concern in learning.

Examples from this study of backsliding to an earlier fossilized state is reflected in: persistent omission errors, despite recognising the plural was required, persistent use of an incorrectly taught word believed to be true, and incorrect responses believed to be true. Chinese and Japanese students' most common medial error i/*ee is supported by existing research, however 'language' was reduced to 'langage' by both, and then '*lang' by Japanese. Chinese students repeated both 'quotation' and 'quantitive' with initial 'k', and although able to say the initial syllable 'quan' in isolation, 'quantitive' eluded them. Chinese students also had problems with making contractions and elided forms, and also reversing the process when necessary, and time sensitive forms and timing also proved tricky despite peer and teacher correction on multiple occasions. Interestingly similar activity was researched whereby English L1 students of L2 French instruction in Canada scored highly in listening comprehension, but fossilised in terms of productive control of grammar and lexis (Swain & Lapkin, 1999).

Pronunciation

Despite multiple listening and corrective opportunities between peers and teachers, immediate and delayed repeated feedback persistent errors prevailed whereby a Turkish student displayed difficulty with initial '*t/th' and '*d/th', except 'that', which was unexpected; and a Thai student with final *neetch/niche, and Chinese students with *neek, and *nitche. Further failure to emulate or mimic pronunciation of utterances such as medial o/*oh, i/*ee, a/*e, b/*l, and initial th/*s was common for Chinese students, but *w/v; *j/g, j/*z was more common for European and Japanese others.

The cost of repeating the correct number of syllables in the time appears to be paid in terms of pronunciation and comprehensibility. There is a gap between listening, what is heard, the pragmatics, and the productive output, and meaning and accuracy is lost in the attempt to be accurate.

The teacher asked what the first sound in the word 'exceed' was. The class responded incorrectly with *k/e. This could be important in terms of the overuse of hesitation markers such as 'eh' or'em' especially if the sounds are not heard or acknowledged for use in speech. A Brazilian student said, "So, *so, what *chips are saying*", which identifies timing interference by an additional 'so' that perhaps cost the verb 'is' in the sentence final position, and/or a failure to listen. This may be the result of uncertainty markers or repair initiators such as repetition being overused to the point of accepted use in conversation, but may be a delay tactic (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Common errors observed such as addition errors include plural 's' and 'to' with infinitive from overgeneralisation, grammar errors include is/are and singular/plural final 's', and tense error of present perfect instead of simple present is shown in we use/*that are used some of which support Ferguson (1971) who identified unnecessary addition of 'to' with infinitive,

and ignoring the Direct Object marker as common input modifications presented among learners of Spanish, which differed in the case of learners of Arabic where over-generalisation of 3rd person masculine singular, and ignoring the 3rd person 's' were more common.

Another example from the class transcript involved repetition and timing and shows students are unable to listen to, or comprehend, instructions fully. Chinese Whispers tasks often fail due to mishearing, lack of attention, short-term memory or capacity limitations, discomfort, or comparison with experience and knowledge. Furthermore, rhythm and stress create timing errors, which affects pronunciation and creates opportunities for addition errors. In some instances hesitation utterances such as, 'em', and the overuse of uncertainty markers such as 'how you say' or 'you mean', as well as repair initiators such as cut-off, sound stretch, pause, perturbation or repetition become an automatically accepted part of any utterance (Gass & Selinker, 2008), but language learners may be repairing an error or employing delay tactics any of which affect the flow of the utterance in terms of timing and stress from the start.

Many differences in cross-cultural pragmatics such as cue mismatch between the lexicogrammatical structure and intonation causes several problems (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Kaspar & Rose, 2001; Hughes, 2006; Davies & Tyler, 1994). Field (2008) mentions spoken language boundaries are identified by correct or incorrect stress, intonation, and pausing for breath, but it is inconsistent and difficult for listeners to decode, more so with redistribution and resyllabification. Listening and speaking is unnatural when reading is involved, because of the receptive difficulty of prosody (Hughes, 2006). Research into Chinese adults learning English identified high-pitch utterances and pitch drops affected perception and cues negatively (Pickering, 1999), whereas Japanese ESOL students' learning, fluency and perception was affected by intonation and high pitch (Chafe, 1994; Abe, 1998; Loveday, 1981; Chun, 2002).

Comprehensible input is affected by phonetic, prosodic, pausing, pace, and speed factors, which influence lexical segmentation and stressed syllable recognition, however unreliable boundary markers affect stress, and phonological coding leading to delays in recognition (Kim, 1995; Ross, 1997). Pragmatics, expectation and intention, individual knowledge of cultural norms or inferencing influences listening success (Blum-Kulka et al, 1989; Tannen, 1984; Rost, 2002).

Language recognition through listening may not be learned to become knowledge naturally due to unreliable cues, delays, fluid boundaries, and lack of knowledge of basic meaning (Rost, 2002), blurred, missed, or non-existent sound or word boundaries and/or insufficient word meaning and incorrectly applied knowledge (Rost, 2002).

Understanding may not be maximised due to issues involving phonological processing, grammatical parsing, word recognition, informational packaging, conceptual difficulty of the content (ZPD), elliptical utterances, assessing intention, attending to form, and limited processing capacity in short-term memory, and respective time constraints (Rost, 2002; Bremer, Roberts, Vasseur, Simonot & Broeder, 1996; Yule & Powers, 1994; Van Patten, 1990; 1996). Input processing principles in a listening context appear to follow a time-sensitive sequential order such as meaning, form, content, lexical and grammatical items, and finally, morphology, which may only be utilised to initial stages on each occasion resulting in errors or even the same errors repeatedly (Rost, 2013).

Researchers agree both accuracy and meaning are required in variation for total language use and understanding and requires bottom-up processes in listening, which include speech perception and word recognition that provide comprehension data, and also top-down processes that rely on fall-back strategies such as semantic expectations and generalisation (Rost, 2002; Ellis, 2002: Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). Elaboration or extension may

alter the meaning remembered and used as a series of chunks. (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Batstone, 2002; Topping 1998, 2005; Sutherland & Topping, 1999). Explicit instruction links accuracy to teacher-led explanation or inductive with limited direction, and implicit instruction links memorizing or inferencing without awareness or intention (Dekeyser, 1995; Reber, 1976).

Research into listener attitude on perception of speech and intelligibility identified relationships including speed and accent involving three male Chinese speakers as significant (Anderson-Hsieh & Koehler, 1988), attitude towards accent (Munro and Derwing, 1995), speech perception and social beliefs (Hughes, 2006), and gender stereo-typing (Strand, 1999; Naslund, 1993) as factors of mishearing or poorer comprehension fluency characteristics (Rost, 2002; Cutler & Butterfield, 1992; Sajavaara, 1986; Davenport).

A relatively small number of errors (346; 6.25%) provided examples of potential listening difficulty, which identified pronunciation as the most common error type, and Chinese students by far the most affected. L1 interference, individual differences, pragmatics, input manipulation, and lack of knowledge affect recognition leading to deviance and affect the listening process. Limitations exist in terms of knowing what is heard or not, or ignored, based on knowledge, willingness, and ability to respond at all, never mind correctly, which makes it difficult to analyse without evidence of errors, lapses, and silence in production or comprehensible output.

4.3 Part 2 Corrections

Question 2.a

What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of correcting errors during adult peer interaction?

Questionnaire data provides this study with insight into motivational and self-concept issues in terms of being corrected by teachers and peers in a classroom environment. The majority of students responded that they feel comfortable being corrected by both teachers and peers. A slightly higher proportion of students agreed that they feel they must try harder whenever they are corrected by both teachers and peers, which suggests a desire to succeed and increase or maintain self-concept overrides feeling comfortable.

Table 4.2.1 shows the majority of students agreed (5+6+7; 139; 64.3%) that they feel comfortable when corrected by the teacher. The spread is over seven points.

Table 4.2.1 Question11: When my teacher corrects me, I feel comfortable.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	16	7.4
2	Two	12	5.6
3	Three	17	7.9
4	Four	32	14.8
5	Five	29	13.4
6	Six	50	23.1
7	Seven	60	27.8
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.1 clearly presents data identifying the majority of students who feel comfortable being corrected by the teacher. The median is 6.

Chart 4.2.1 When my teacher corrects me, I feel comfortable.

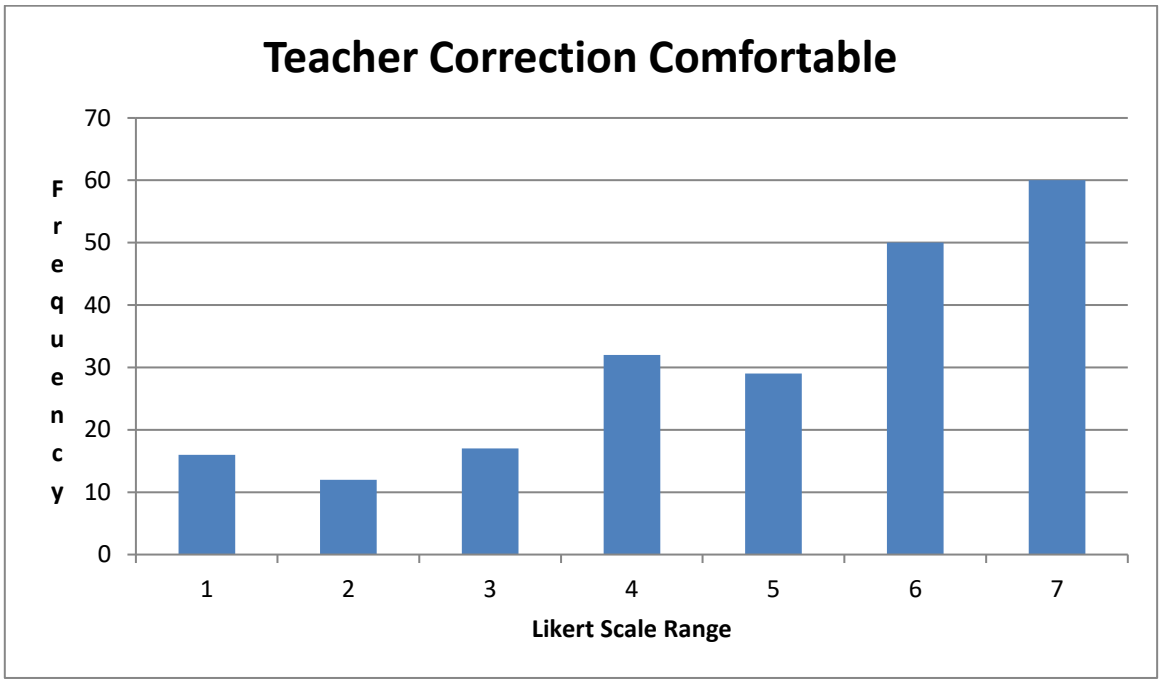


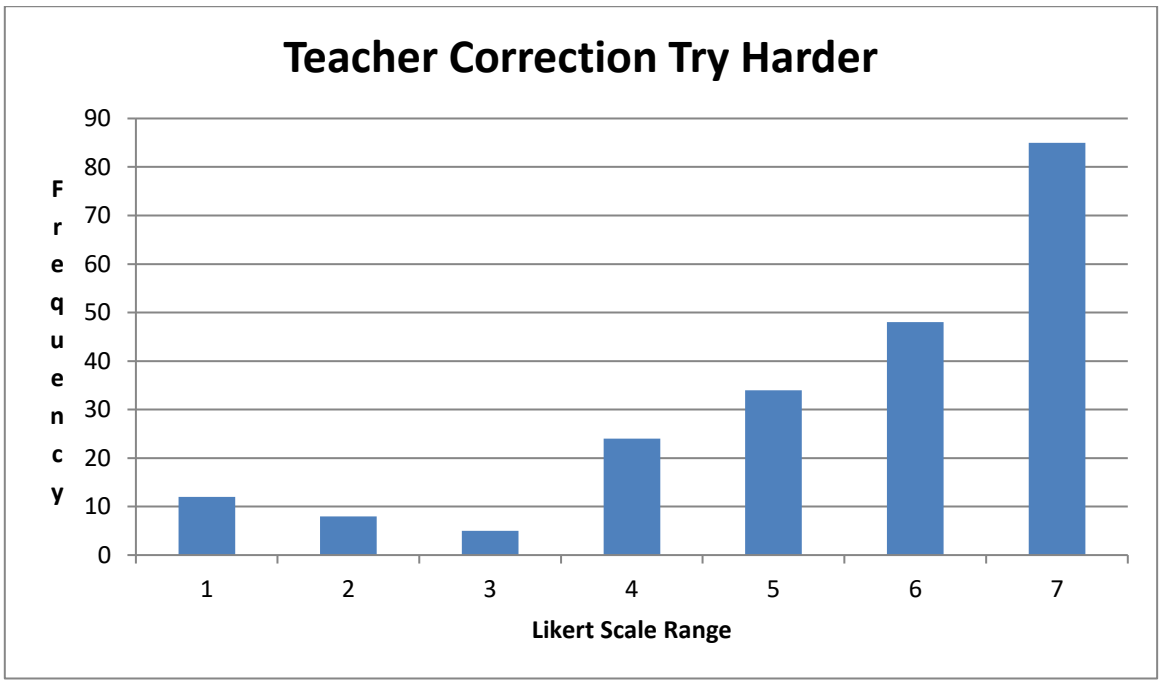
Table 4.2.2 displays the number of students who feel they must try harder when the teacher corrects them. The scale number spread is over seven points. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 25; 11.6%) and agree (5+6+7; 167; 77.3%) show a significant majority who agreed.

Table 4.2.2 Question12: When my teacher corrects me, I feel I must try harder.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	12	5.6
2	Two	8	3.7
3	Three	5	2.3
4	Four	24	11.1
5	Five	34	15.7
6	Six	48	22.2
7	Seven	85	39.4
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.2 depicts data identifying the majority of students who try harder after being corrected by the teacher. The median is 6.

Chart 4.2.2 When my teacher corrects me, I must try harder.



Peer interaction responses to feeling comfortable in Table 4.2.3 shows the spread is over seven points. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 37; 17.1%) and agree (5+6+7; 146; 67.6%) show a significant majority in agreement.

Table 4.2.3 Question13: When my pair-work partner corrects me, I feel comfortable.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	16	7.4
2	Two	7	3.2
3	Three	14	6.5
4	Four	33	15.3
5	Five	34	15.7
6	Six	57	26.4
7	Seven	55	25.5
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.3 clearly presents data identifying the majority of students who feel comfortable being corrected by a peer. The median is 6.

Chart 4.2.3 Question13: When my pair-work partner corrects me, I feel comfortable.

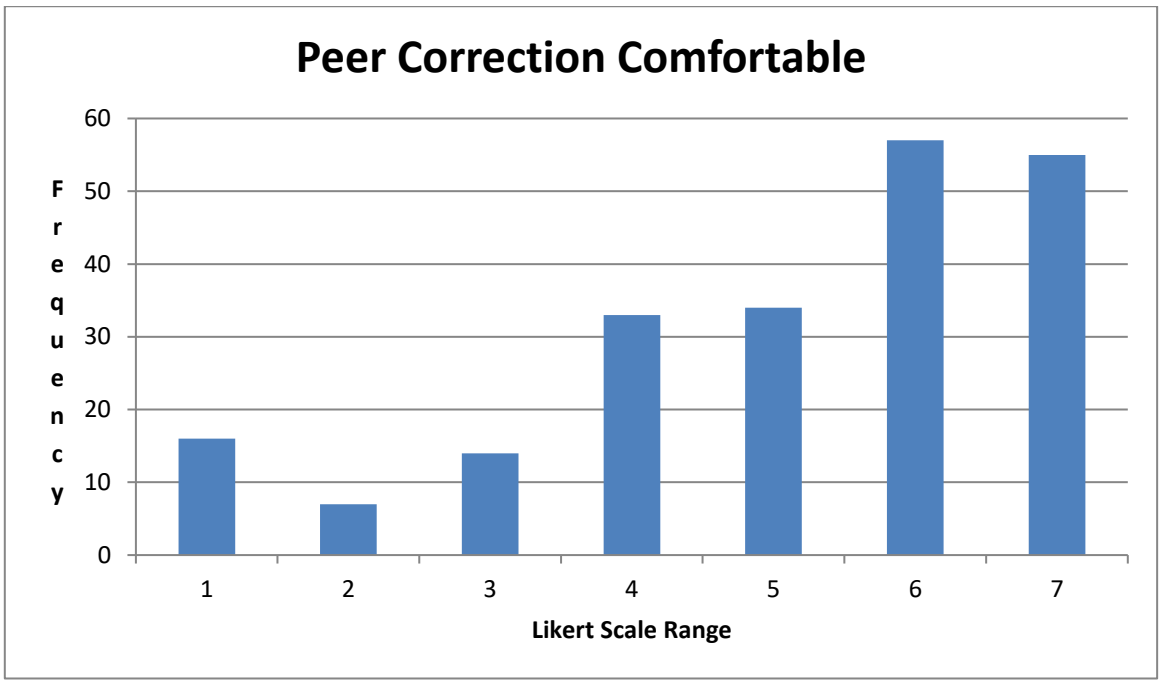


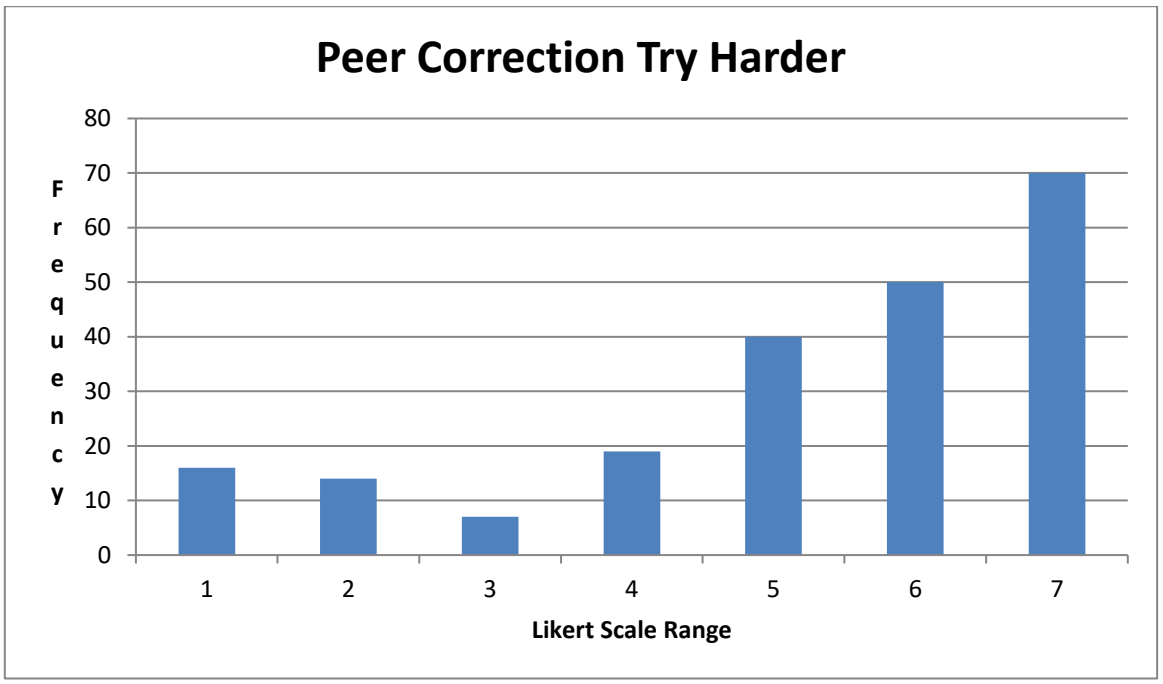
Table 4.2.4 displays the number of students who feel they must try harder when a peer corrects them. The scale number spread is over seven points. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 37; 17.1%) and agree (5+6+7; 160; 74%) show a significant majority who agree.

Table 4.2.4 Question14: When my pair-work partner corrects me, I feel I must try harder.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	16	7.4
2	Two	14	6.5
3	Three	7	3.2
4	Four	19	8.8
5	Five	40	18.5
6	Six	50	23.1
7	Seven	70	32.4
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.4 shows data identifying the majority of students who try harder after being corrected by a peer. The median is 6.

Chart 4.2.4 Question14: When my pair-work partner corrects me; I feel I must try harder.



In summary Questions 11 to 14 in Table 4.2.5 identify respondents who tend to feel they must try harder when their teacher (77.3%) and peer (74%) correct them, and feel comfortable when their peer (67.6%) and teacher (64.3%) correct them respectively.

Table 4.2.5 Self-concept.

Question	Disagree	(1+2+3)	(4)	((5+6+7)	Agree	Self-concept
11.	16 (7.4%)	45(20.9%)	32(14.8%)	139(64.3%)	60(27.8%)	TComfortable
12.	12 (5.6%)	25(11.6%)	24(11.1%)	167(77.3%)	85(39.4%)	TTryHarder
13.	16(7.4%)	37(17.1%)	33(15.3%)	146(67.6%)	55(25.5%)	PComfortable
14.	16(7.4%)	37(17.1%)	19(8.8%)	160(74%)	70(32.4%)	PTryHarder

The state of being comfortable during the correction process in terms of teacher or peers may be the result of positive or negative motivation and a reflection of self-concept level in a given situation. Both tallies indicate a lower percentage of respondents who think they are comfortable compared to increased figures who think they try harder as a result of correction. The motivation to try harder appears to be the stronger. The need to succeed is fostered by or fosters self-concept and motivation.

To summarise Questions 8, 9 & 10 in Table 4.2.6 represent respondents' responses as to whether they would like explicit (69.9%), implicit (52.3%), and ignore (9.3%) as forms of correction from their teachers respectively.

Table 4.2.6 Teacher Correction Types.

Question	Disagree	(1+2+3)	(4)	(5+6+7)	Agree	Correction
8.	8 (3.7%)	41 (19%)	24 (11.1%)	151(69.9%)	81 (37.5%)	Explicit
9.	33 (15.3%)	70 (32.4%)	33 (15.3%)	113(52.3%)	56 (25.9%)	Implicit
10.	151(69.9%)	190 (88%)	6 (2.8%)	20 (9.3%)	10 (4.6%)	TIgnore

The responses to question 10 showed that 88% of respondents disagreed that they would like the teacher to ignore (TIgnore) their mistakes. Respondents appear to want explicit teacher correction significantly more than implicit teacher correction. Only 9.3% respondents agree they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes, whereas Question 11 mentioned earlier shows 20.9% of respondents disagree they feel comfortable when corrected by the teacher.

Peer Interaction

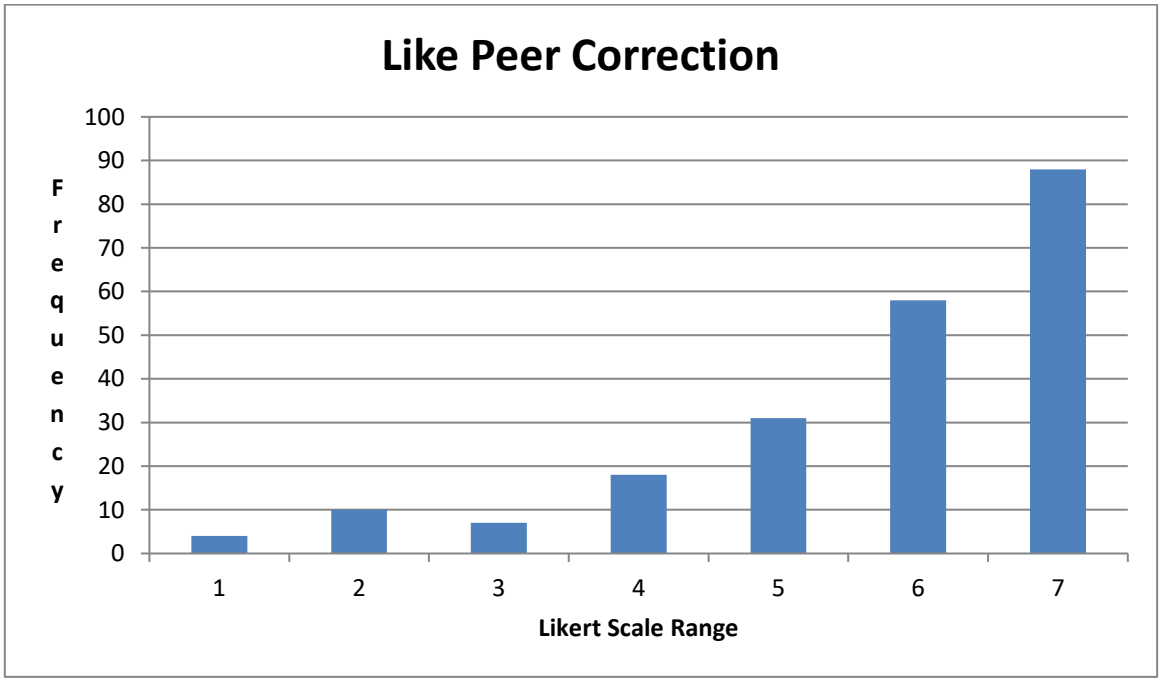
The spread in Table 4.2.7 is over seven points and identifies the students who would like their peer to correct them. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 21; 9.7%) and agree (5+6+7; 177; 82%) show a significant majority in agreement.

Table 4.2.7 Question 17: I would like my pair-work partner to correct my errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	4	1.9
2	Two	10	4.6
3	Three	7	3.2
4	Four	18	8.3
5	Five	31	14.4
6	Six	58	26.9
7	Seven	88	40.7
	Total	216	100.0

The data in Chart 4.2.5 clearly indicates the majority would like their peer to correct them. The median is 6.

Chart 4.2.5 Question 17: I would like my pair-work partner to correct my errors.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that they would like peers to correct their errors (82%) and minority tend to disagree (9.7%) respectively.

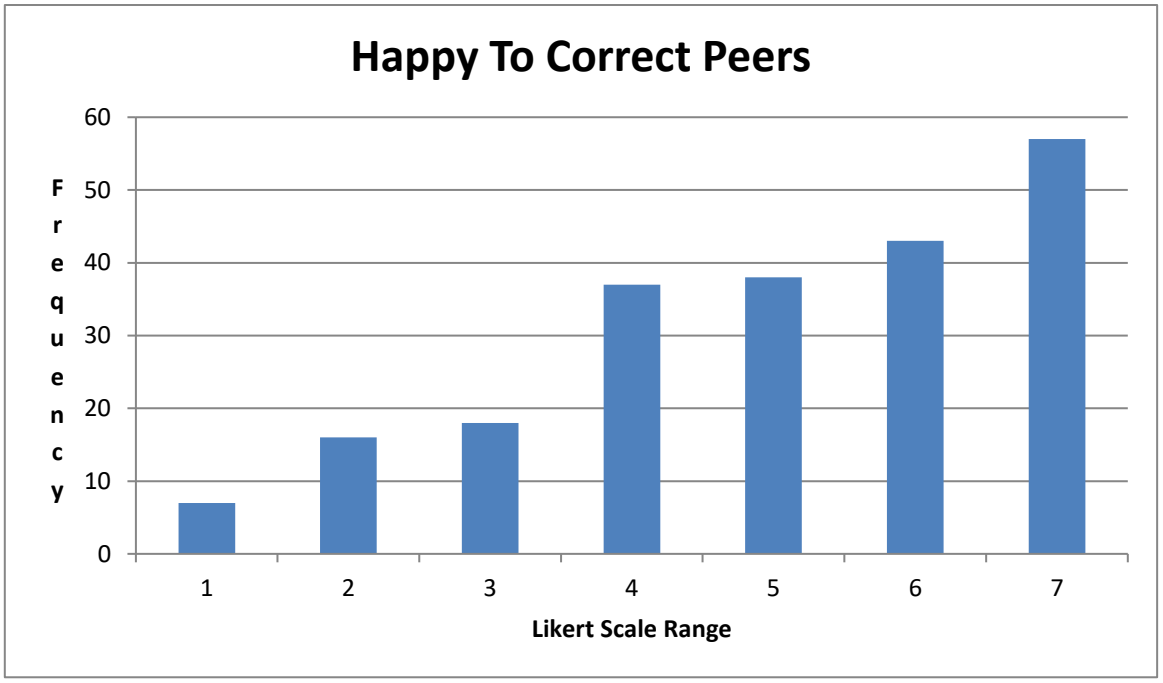
In Table 4.2.8 the data shows the number of students who are happy to correct their peers. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 41; 18.9%) and agree (5+6+7; 138; 63.9%) show a significant majority in agreement The spread is over seven points.

Table 4.2.8 Question 18: I am happy to correct my pair-work partner's errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	7	3.2
2	Two	16	7.4
3	Three	18	8.3
4	Four	37	17.1
5	Five	38	17.6
6	Six	43	19.9
7	Seven	57	26.4
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.6 identifies the majority are happy to correct their peers. The median is 5.

Chart 4.2.6 Question 18: I am happy to correct my pair-work partner's errors.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that they are happy to correct peers' errors (63.9%) and minority tend to disagree (18.9%) respectively.

A reminder of the survey instrument questions involving teacher correction types and results (Table 4.2.6) includes:

Question 8. I would like the teacher to correct me directly.

Question 9. I would like the teacher to correct me indirectly.

Question 10. I would like the teacher to ignore my mistakes.

A reminder of the survey instrument questions involving peer interaction (Table 4.2.9) includes:

Question 15. It is normal practice to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

Question 16. It is normal practice for my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.

Question 17. I would like my pair-work partners to correct my errors.

Question 18. I am happy to correct pair-work partner's errors.

Question 19. I would like my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.

Question 20. I am happy to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

Table 4.2.9 Peer Interaction.

Question	Disagree	(1+2+3)	(4)	(5+6+7)	Agree	Peer Interaction
15.	31(14.4%)	99(45.9%)	45(20.8%)	72(33.3%)	26(12%)	NTIPE
16.	30(13.9%)	81(37.5%)	44(20.4%)	91(42.2%)	27(12.5%)	NTIME
17.	4(1.9%)	21(9.7%)	18(8.3%)	177(82%)	88(40.7%)	LPTCM
18.	7(3.2%)	41(18.9%)	37(17.1%)	138(63.9%)	57(26.4%)	HTCP
19.	102(47.2%)	181(83.7%	14(6.5%)	21(9.7%)	5(2.3%)	LPTIM
20.	66(30.6%)	136(63%)	36(16.7%)	44(20.4%)	20(9.3%)	HTIP

Surprisingly Questions 15 & 16 showed it is normal practice to ignore peers' errors (33.3%) and for peers to ignore (42.2%) reciprocally, which appears high despite the 45.9% and 37.5% who tend to disagree respectively. Fewer respondents appear to ignore peers' errors (33.3%), but indicate peers appear to ignore their errors more (42.2%). Interestingly a bias appears to exist between Questions 17 & 18, which asked if respondents would like peers to correct them showed that 82% were positive, but although happy to correct peers (63.9%) the figures show the feeling is less so. This means a higher majority of students prefer to be corrected by peers more than correcting peers. The tendency experienced in Questions 15 & 16 is followed in Questions 19 & 20 where a minority (9.7%) would like peers to ignore their errors, and (20.4%) are happy to ignore peers' errors respectively. Question 10 indicates 88% of respondents disagree that they would like the teacher to ignore their errors, and 9.3% agree they would. So, 88% would not like errors to be ignored by the teacher. Similarly, Questions 15, 17, &19 show 45.9% agree it is not normal practice to ignore peer errors, 82% would like peer error correction, & 83.7% would not like peers to ignore their errors. Interestingly, Question 10 shows 9.3% would like the teacher to ignore their errors. Similarly, Questions 15, 17, & 19 show 33.3% agree it is normal practice to ignore peer errors, 9.7% would not like

peer error correction, and 9.7% would like peers to ignore their errors. The responses to question 16, 18, & 20 show that it is not normal practice for peers to ignore errors (45.9%), that they were generally happy to correct peers' errors (63.9%), and were not happy to ignore peers' errors (63%). However, it appears normal practice for peers to ignore "my errors" (42.2%), not happy to correct peers' errors (18.9%), and happy to ignore peers' errors (20.4%).

Teachers' data shows lower percentages for questions 11 to 14 compared to the student responses with regard to themselves, but indicate the majority of students in each case agree and follow the same trend. According to teachers the majority of students appear to feel comfortable and must try harder whenever they are being corrected.

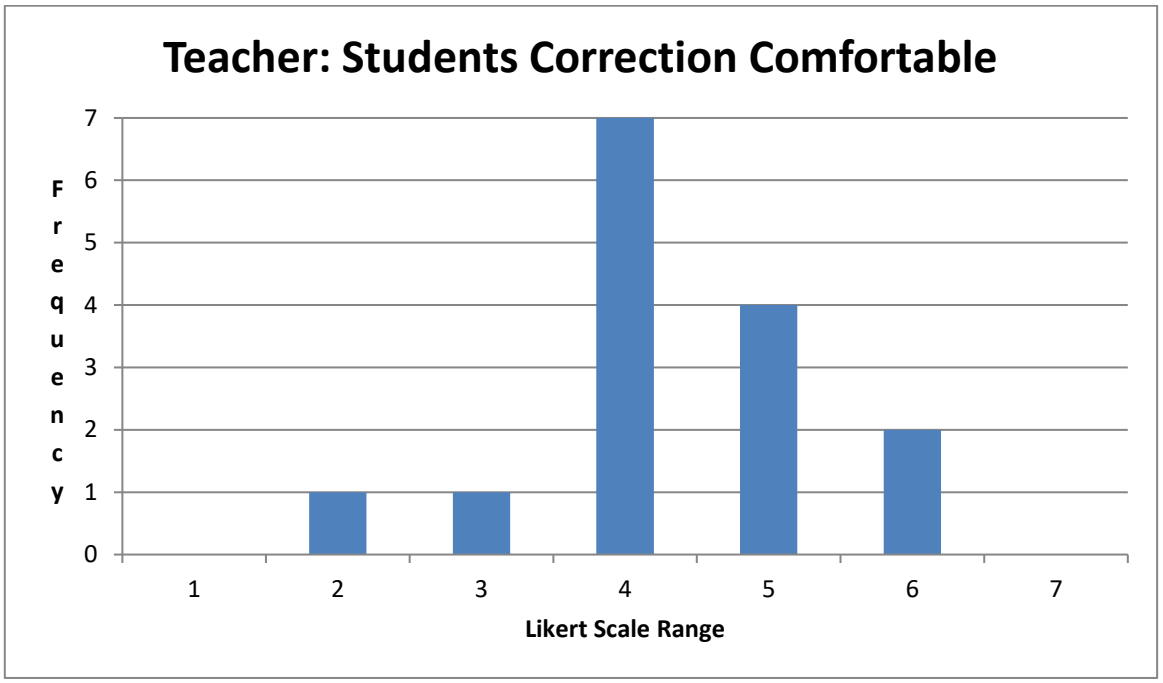
Table 4.2.10 shows the majority of teachers agreed (5+6+7; 139; 64.3%) that students feel comfortable when being corrected. The spread is over five points.

Table 4.2.10 Question 11 Students appear to feel comfortable whenever they are being corrected.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	1	6.7
3	Three	1	6.7
4	Four	7	46.7
5	Five	4	26.7
6	Six	2	13.3
7	Seven	0	0.0
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.7 presents data identifying the majority of teachers who agree students are comfortable being corrected.

Chart 4.2.7 Students appear to feel comfortable whenever they are being corrected.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that students appear to feel comfortable whenever they are being corrected (40%) and minority tend to disagree (13.4%) respectively.

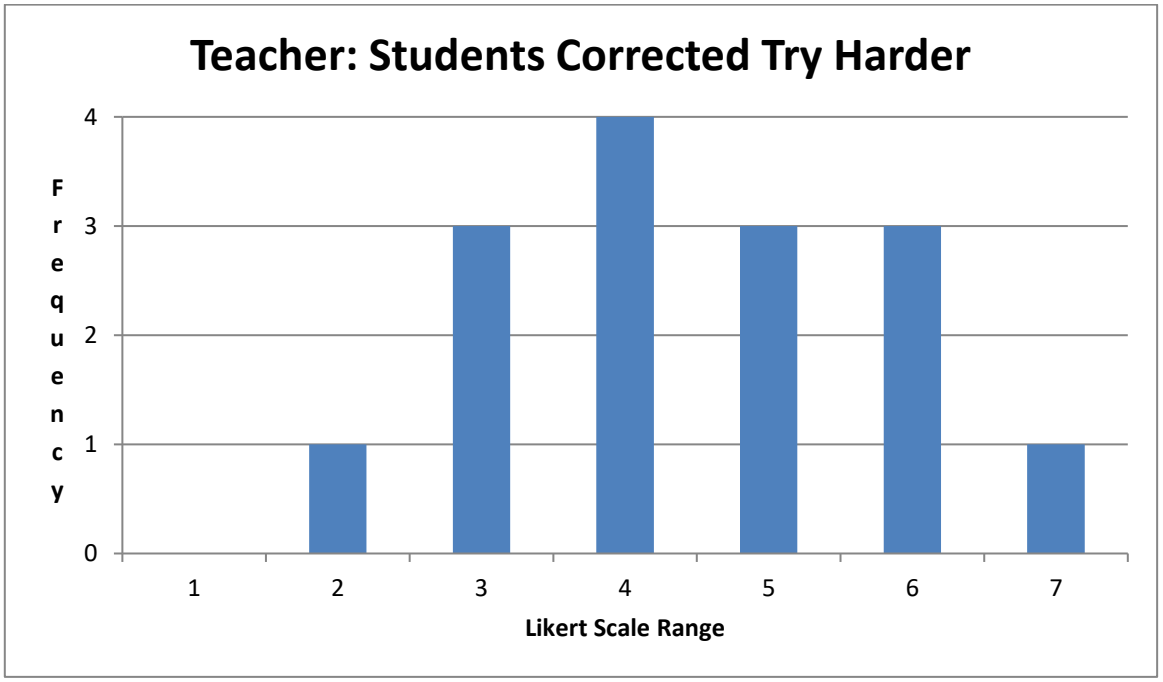
Table 4.2.11 displays the number of teachers who think students feel they must try harder when they are corrected. The scale number spread is over six points. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 4; 26.7%) and agree (5+6+7; 7; 46.7%) show a significant majority who agreed.

Table 4.2.11 Question 12 Students appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	1	6.7
3	Three	3	20.0
4	Four	4	26.7
5	Five	3	20.0
6	Six	3	20.0
7	Seven	1	6.7
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.8 depicts data identifying the majority of teachers who think students try harder after being corrected.

Chart 4.2.8 Students appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that students appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected (46.7%) and minority tend to disagree (26.7%) respectively.

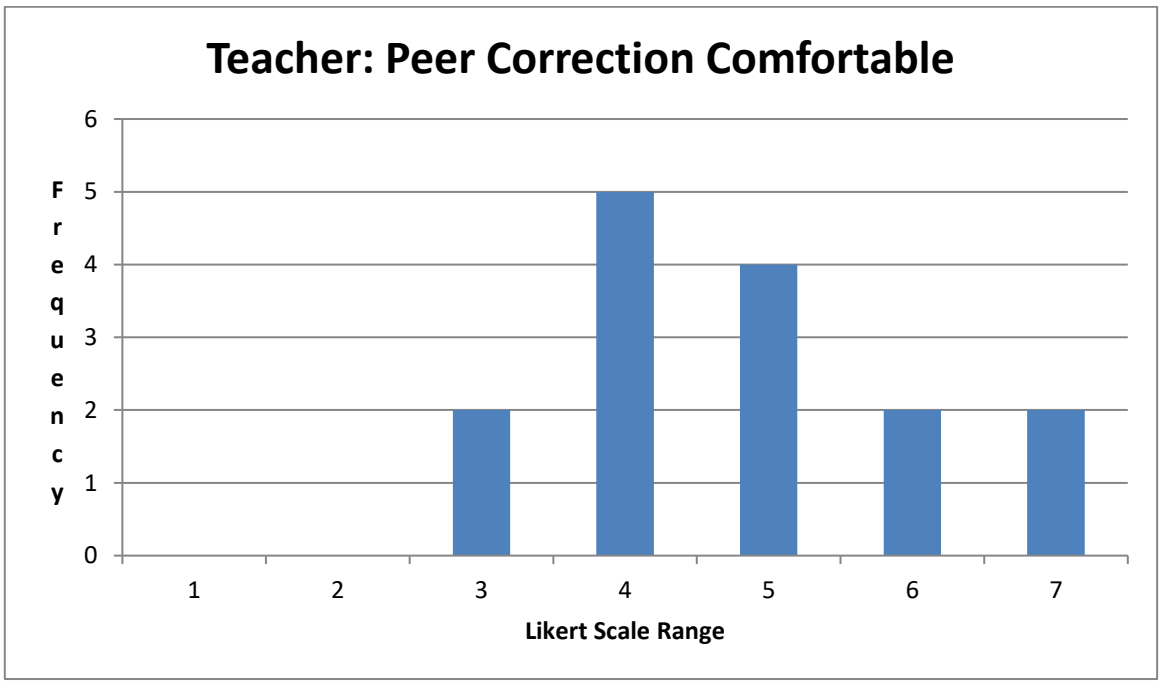
The data in Table 4.2.12 shows the spread is over five points for teachers who think students feel comfortable correcting one another. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 2; 13.3%) and agree (5+6+7; 8; 53.3%) show a significant minority and majority respectively

Table 4.2.12 Question 13 Pair-work partners appear to feel comfortable whenever they correct one another.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	0	0.0
3	Three	2	13.3
4	Four	5	33.3
5	Five	4	26.7
6	Six	2	13.3
7	Seven	2	13.3
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.9 clearly presents data identifying the majority of teachers who think students feel comfortable correcting one another.

Chart 4.2.9 Pair-work partners appear to feel comfortable whenever they correct one another.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that pair-work partners appear to feel comfortable whenever they correct one another (53.3%) and minority tend to disagree (13.3%) respectively.

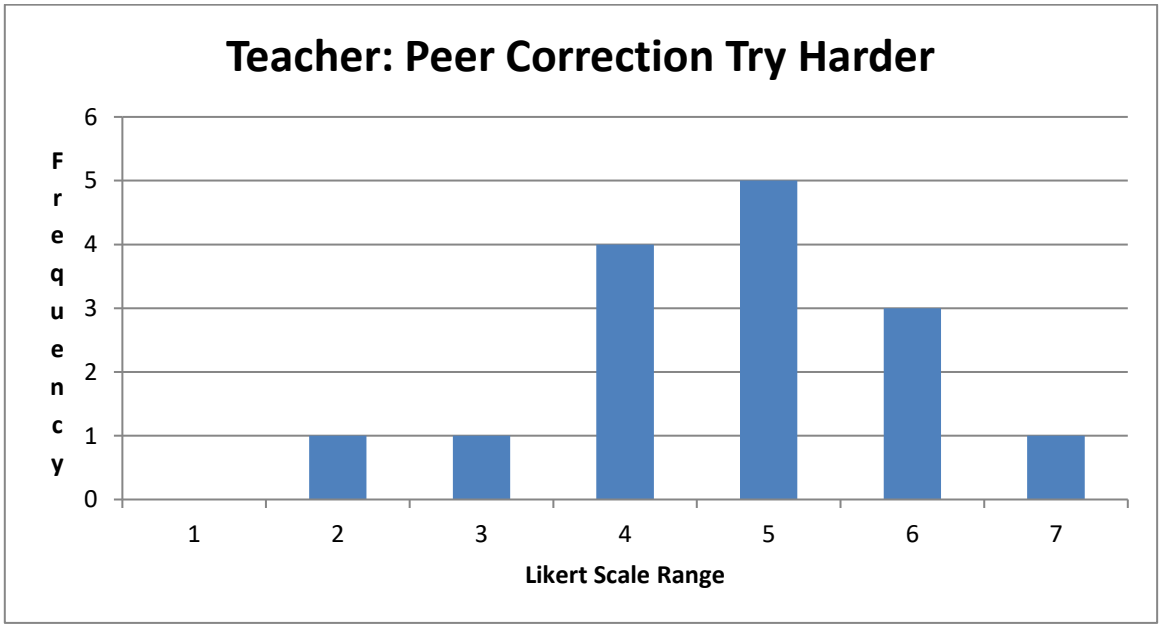
In Table 4.2.13 the spread is over six points for teachers who think students appear to feel they must try harder after being corrected by one another. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 2; 13.4%) and agree (5+6+7; 9; 60.0%) show a significant minority and majority respectively.

Table 4.2.13 Question 14 Pair-work partners appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected by one another.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	1	6.7
3	Three	1	6.7
4	Four	4	26.7
5	Five	5	33.3
6	Six	3	20.0
7	Seven	1	6.7
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.10 clearly shows the majority of teachers think that students feel they must try harder after being corrected by a peer.

Chart 4.2.10 Pair-work partners appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected by one another.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that Pair-work partners appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected by one another (60.0%) and minority tend to disagree (13.4%) respectively.

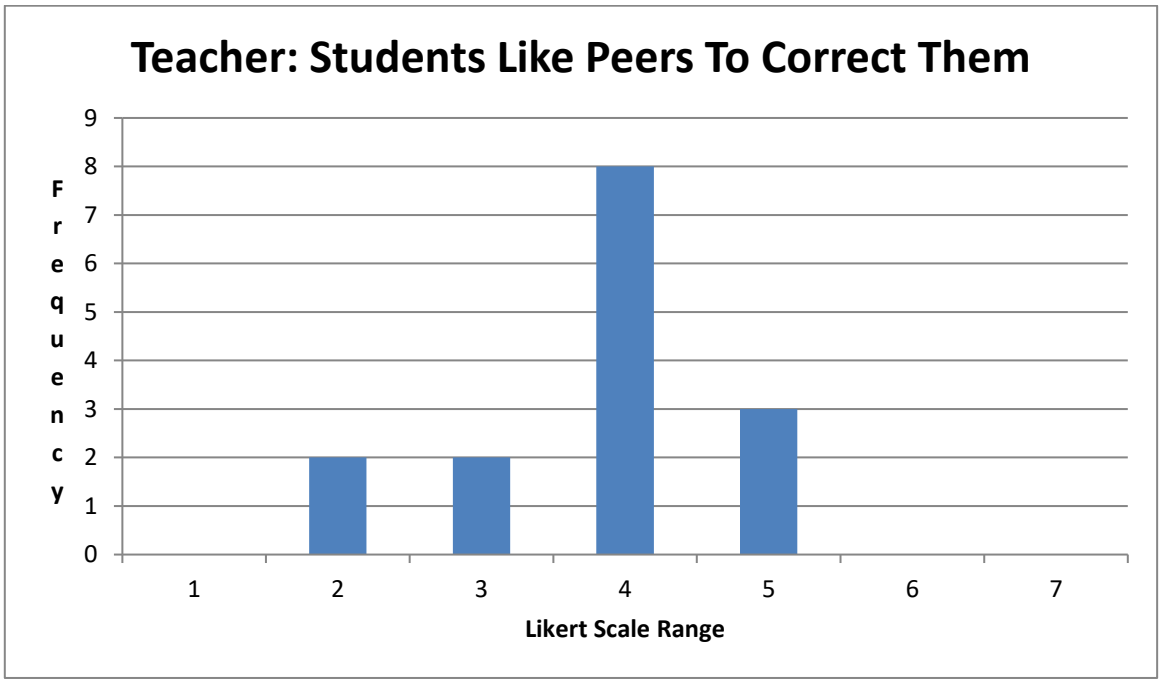
Table 4.2.14 shows the spread is over four points for teachers who think students would like their peers to correct them. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 4; 26.6%) and agree (5+6+7; 3; 20.0%) show a significant majority and minority respectively.

Table 4.2.14 Question 16 Students would like their pair-work partners to correct their errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	2	13.3
3	Three	2	13.3
4	Four	8	53.3
5	Five	3	20.0
6	Six	0	0.0
7	Seven	0	0.0
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.11 identifies the majority of teachers who think students would not like to be corrected by their peers.

Chart 4.2.11 Students would like their pair-work partners to correct their errors.



In summary, the majority of teachers tend to disagree that students would like their pair-work partners to correct their errors (26.6%) and minority tend to agree (20.0%) respectively. A large disparity emerges where teachers indicate students would like peers to correct their errors (3; 20%), and students data shows a much higher level of agreement (177; 82%). A high percentage of teachers selected item 4 (neither agree nor disagree) on the scale (8; 53.3%), which leaves the number of teachers who disagree at 4 (26.6%).

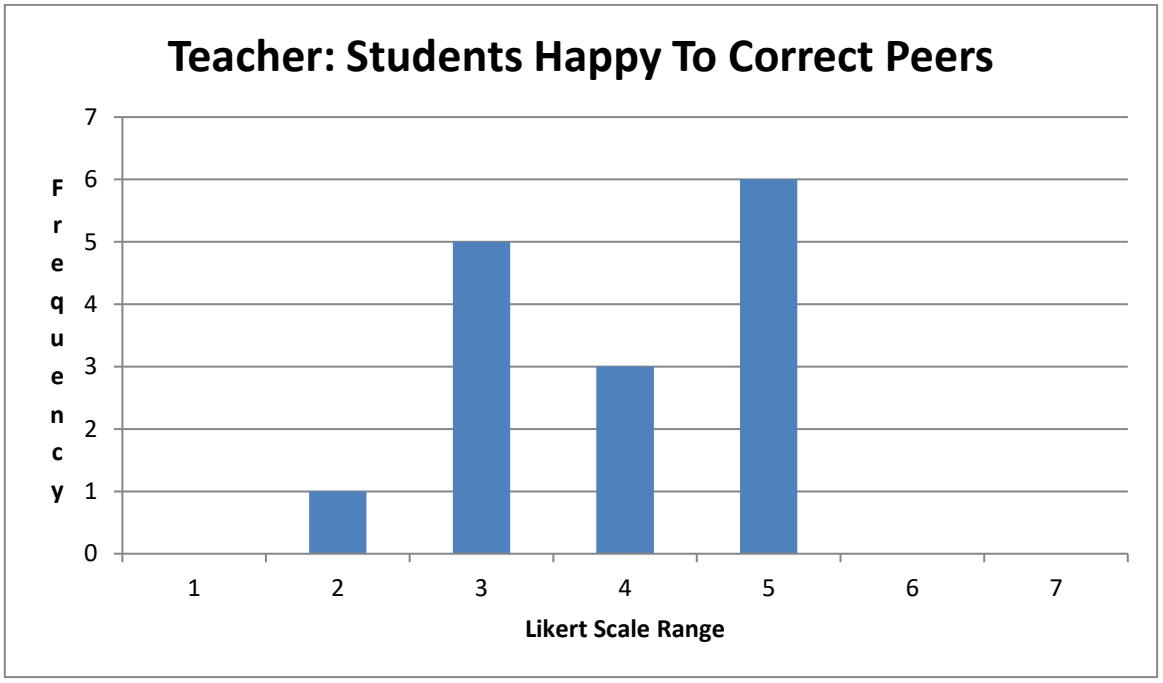
Table 4.2.15 identifies data for teachers who think that students are happy to correct their peers' errors and shows the spread is over four points. The sum of respondents who disagree (1+2+3; 6; 40.0%) and agree (5+6+7; 6; 40.0%) show equality and share a split-majority.

Table 4.2.15 Question 17 Students are happy to correct their pair-work partner's errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	1	6.7
3	Three	5	33.3
4	Four	3	20.0
5	Five	6	40.0
6	Six	0	0.0
7	Seven	0	0.0
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.12 illustrates the number of teachers who think students are happy to correct peers.

Chart 4.2.12 Students are happy to correct their pair-work partner's errors.



In summary, even though the split-majority tends to agree (40.0%) and disagree (40.0%) that students would like their pair-work partners to correct their errors respectively, the latter has a slightly stronger consensus being spread over two points. A relatively higher number of teachers (6; 40.0%) agree students are 'happy to correct peers' compared to 'would like peers to correct them' (4; 20.0%), which is at odds with students' responses respectively (138; 63.9%, and 177; 82.0%).

Interview comments:

Question 2. Which method of correction is common in the classroom?

A mixture of responses shows the Italian male considers Direct (explicit) correction, the Chinese male mentions Recast (implicit) and Direct (explicit), whereas the Arabic female states Indirect (implicit) correction as most common in the classroom.

Question 3. Is there any one correction method which you consider most beneficial to improving actual learning in the long term?

All three interviewees agree that Direct (explicit) correction is the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term.

Question 10. Which types of correction are commonly employed during peer interaction?

There is a difference in the responses given by the three interviewees. The Italian male mentions Direct (explicit) correction is commonly employed during peer interaction. This view is shared by the Chinese male in terms of some Direct (explicit) correction, but also adds the more familiar the peers are Repeat (implicit) correction and mimicking in joke form are employed. The Arabic female states she hasn't noticed the type of correction used in peer interaction.

Question 12. Do you think peer correction has any impact on the motivation of peers during peer interaction?

All three interviewees concur that peer correction has a negative impact on motivation during peer interaction, but remain happy to be corrected by others. The Chinese male feels uncomfortable for a short time, hesitant and unwilling to peer correct and concurs with the Italian male that it remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice. The Arabic female says peer correction should be helpful, but would be good if the practice was accepted and

reinforced, which implies doubt in the authority attached to peer correction, and a lack of awareness of occurrence or peer correction is avoided in practice.

Peer Correction

As reported in Chapter 2 much research identifying error correction and feedback is firmly established. Teachers are seen as the authority figures who are put in control of dissemination of knowledge, facilitating the learning process, preparing for assessment, and application of feedback in order to achieve success in learning through a series of goals.

Overall respondents in this study tend to feel teacher and peer correction stimulates the need to try harder to a greater extent and it is a comfortable experience, which reflects an absence of anxiety and an attitude of acceptance that errors do occur and correction is a necessary part of the teaching and learning process, and suggests a highly motivated desire to succeed and increase or maintain self-concept overrides feeling comfortable and is triggered by correction (Table 4.2.5).

The percentage of those who neither feel comfortable nor try harder as a result of teacher or peer correction is surprisingly large. A significant proportion of students may be negatively affected and are apparently content to maintain an adequate or fossilized level of L2 competence (Chart 4.2.2; 4.2.4).

The state of being comfortable during the correction process may be a reflection of self-concept level in a given situation perhaps based on cultural background. The motivation to try harder appears to be strong regardless of feeling comfortable or not, which supports the need to succeed. The perception of correction suggests that correction is expected. Students appear used to the idea of correction being necessary regardless of who is doing the correcting, however there may be more kinship experienced with peers, and subsequently less

embarrassment attached to the situation as a face-saving strategy, or less pressure, or even importance attached to peer-shared situations.

According to teachers the majority of students appear to feel comfortable and must try harder whenever they are being corrected.

A major concern is highlighted in both teacher and student responses where a significant minority think that students neither feel comfortable nor try harder when corrected by teacher or peer alike.

In addition to the expectation that teachers are responsible for error correction and feedback as part of the teaching role (De Luque & Sommer, 2000), respondents would clearly like explicit teacher correction significantly more than implicit teacher correction (Table 4.2.6). A rather large 88% of respondents indicated they would not like the teacher to ignore their mistakes, however many errors excluded from correction remain developmental in the scope of initial instruction (De Luque & Sommer, 2000).

According to the data above correction by peers is 18.1% more desirable (177; 82%) than correcting one's peers (138; 63.9%) during peer interaction, which could be a reflection of cultural differences and L1 interference. Peer correction is clearly acceptable, although the results are still lower than teacher correction figures. The culture of correction is reflected from receiving rather than giving; being corrected is deemed proper and the transfer of authority to peer acting as teacher is still seen as rather unorthodox for many (Eagleman, 2016). Immediate and explicit feedback is common due to the time sensitive nature of correction and remaining on topic during TI and PI, however it is considered more of a last resort compared to delayed and implicit correction types (Corder, 1981; Topping, 2005; Harmer, 2007; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Students appear to prefer to be corrected much more than correcting others, but remain happy to correct peers to a lesser extent, whereas teachers think it's the opposite.

Surprisingly it was felt by a large minority that it is normal practice to ignore other peers' errors (33.3%) and for a majority that their errors are ignored more (42.2%), which appeared high despite (45.9%) and (37.5%) who tended to disagree respectively.

However, both student (74%) and teacher (60%) data indicated that students try harder as a result of peer correction.

The majority of respondents wanted explicit teacher correction (69.9%) significantly more than implicit teacher correction (52.3%). A majority of 88% of respondents would not like the teacher to ignore their mistakes, which confirms that some form of correction is required during teacher interaction. Interview research into the method of correction uncovered a spread of responses, however all interviewees agreed Direct (explicit) correction is the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term in their opinion.

The common corrections employed during peer interaction were accepted as being the same as those used during teacher interaction according to interviewee opinion.

According to the data above correction by peers is more desirable than correcting one's peers during peer interaction. All three interviewees agreed that they react differently to corrections now as a result of increased prior learning ability, self-concept, and age, but gender was not mentioned. The students have become more accepting of being corrected through a process of duration and maturity, and more positive in terms of reacting differently at the time of the interview.

A general opinion from interviewees was that peer correction has a negative impact, but they are progressively happier and more comfortable being corrected during peer interaction, than during Teacher interaction. Despite the overall consensus that correction remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice the student view is that peer correction should be helpful, but the practice needs to be accepted and reinforced just as teacher correction is.

Other research identified students are aware of the pursuit of shared goals, but consider Cooperative Learning as a lesser substituted form of teacher interaction simply working together instead of structuring positive interdependence (Slavin, 1980), and emulation of teacher drill and practice is insufficient and requires elaboration and role reversal to create value and interest in peer tutoring, which is affected by cross-age and skill practices (Topping 1998, 2005; Sutherland & Topping, 1999).

Cognitively Peer Learning involves conflict and challenge (Piaget, 1978; Vygotsky, 1978; Topping, 2005), which is a situation preferably avoided in terms of a face-saving strategy particularly among Chinese students and when viewed as temporary and fleeting.

The study of classroom interaction reveals learning outcomes are the result of both teacher's and learner's contributions, but is perceived less in terms of peer contributions. In the course of accomplishing instructional objectives interactive work takes place between peers and the creation of other learning opportunities, both expected and unexpected, which are not envisaged. Learner preoccupations and goals feed personal agendas that they attempt to clarify during interactive work, however psychological and emotional dispositions arise to create or destroy learning opportunities and socially constructed events (Corder, 1977). The absence or break down of negotiation signifies anything taught may not be learned (Allwright, 1984), which is why team building and the development of trust and skills to enable group functionality is an essential factor in cooperative learning (Dörnyei, 1997). Wong & Waring (2010) suggest that as first language speakers make similar mistakes in L2 learning the errors can be corrected in an orderly manner, Cohen (1975) limits the scope to correcting limited and selected errors, and Corder (1981) argues errors should be corrected on an opportunistic basis due to their inevitability. Research opinion identifies the importance of correction in terms of selection and order, however the option among peers is whether to correct or not, and if so, explicitly and directly to save time and follow teacher-led experiences. Ignoring

errors, or situations where errors remain unnoticed, or untreated, suggests parameters exist for allowing error during both TI and PI. From a TI perspective it appears that errors are overlooked or missed as long as interpretation remains unaffected (Boomer & Laver, 1968), adverse effects are not experienced, or delays in getting to the conclusion are not experienced (Rost, 2013). Other conditions for ignoring appear to be when ignoring form and linguistic error is deemed appropriate teacher behaviour (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977), ignoring developmental errors (Harmer, 2007), and errors made outside lesson objectives or conforming to views of initial instruction (De Luque & Sommer, 2000). However, during PI the criteria are limited to immediate and explicit correction, or ignoring the situation out of respect, or saving face.

Question 2.a.i

What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of implicit corrections during adult peer interaction?

The total number of implicit corrections from observation research conducted on ten classes is a very low 38 (3.0%) out of a total tally of all corrections, which is 1264 (Table 4.2.16). The implicit corrections are observed as evenly distributed between Peer Interaction (19; 50.0%) and Teacher Interaction (19; 50.0%). The picture is different when observed in terms of PI total corrections 783 and TI total corrections 481, which equates to 2.4% and 4.0% respectively. Table 4.2.16 presents extremely low data by class whereby a slight increase in implicit corrections occur more in five classes to four during TI than PI.

Table 4.2.16 Implicit Corrections by Class.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	5	83.3	1	16.7	6
2	1	50.0	1	50.0	2

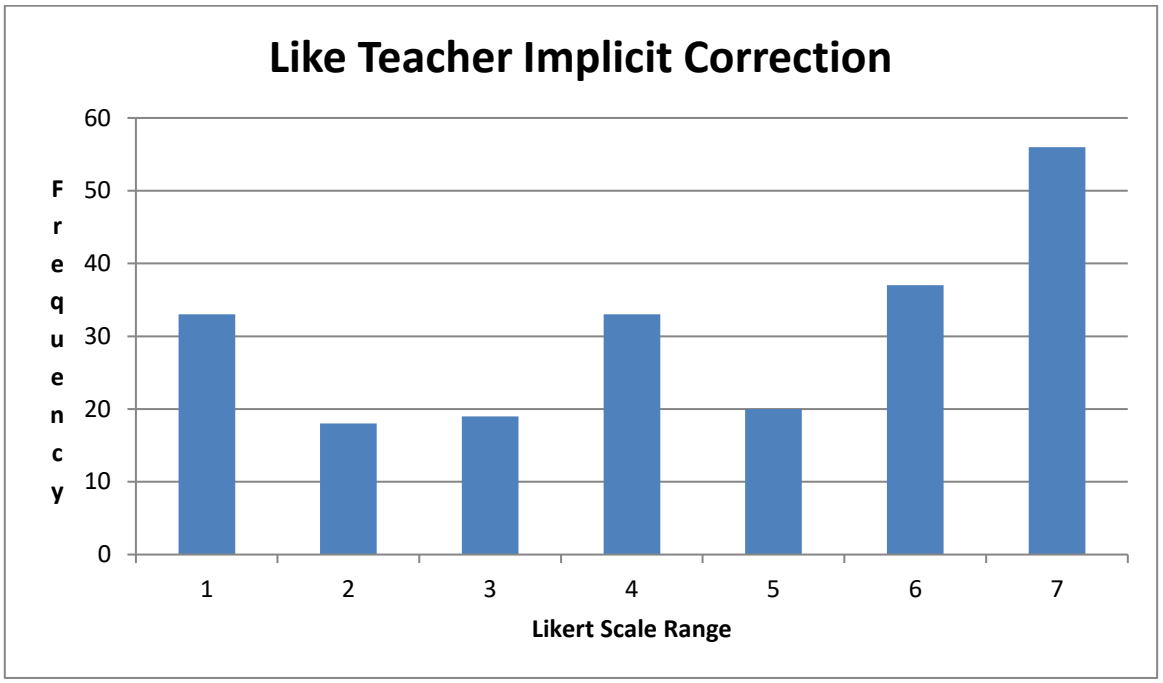
3	1	33.3	2	66.7	3
4	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
5	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
6	1	14.3	6	85.7	7
7	5	71.4	2	28.6	7
8	0	0.0	2	100.0	2
9	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
10	4	80.0	1	20.0	5
All Implicit Only	19	50.0	19	50.0	38
All Sets Corrections	783	62.0	481	38.0	1264

The majority of students responded they would like the teacher to correct them indirectly (Table 4.2.17). The spread is over seven points with a median of 5.

Table 4.2.17 Question 9: I would like the teacher to correct me indirectly.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	33	15.3
2	Two	18	8.3
3	Three	19	8.8
4	Four	33	15.3
5	Five	20	9.3
6	Six	37	17.1
7	Seven	56	25.9
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.13 Question 9: I would like the teacher to correct me indirectly.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that they would like the teacher to correct them indirectly (52.3%) and minority tend to disagree (32.4%) respectively. Respondents who selected 4 and neither agree nor disagree may prove to be the least affected whatever the occurrence, whereas all others who agree/disagree may be affected if they do not get their preference.

A reminder of the survey instrument questions involving teacher correction types includes:

Question 8. I would like the teacher to correct me directly.

Question 9. I would like the teacher to correct me indirectly.

Question 10. I would like the teacher to ignore my mistakes.

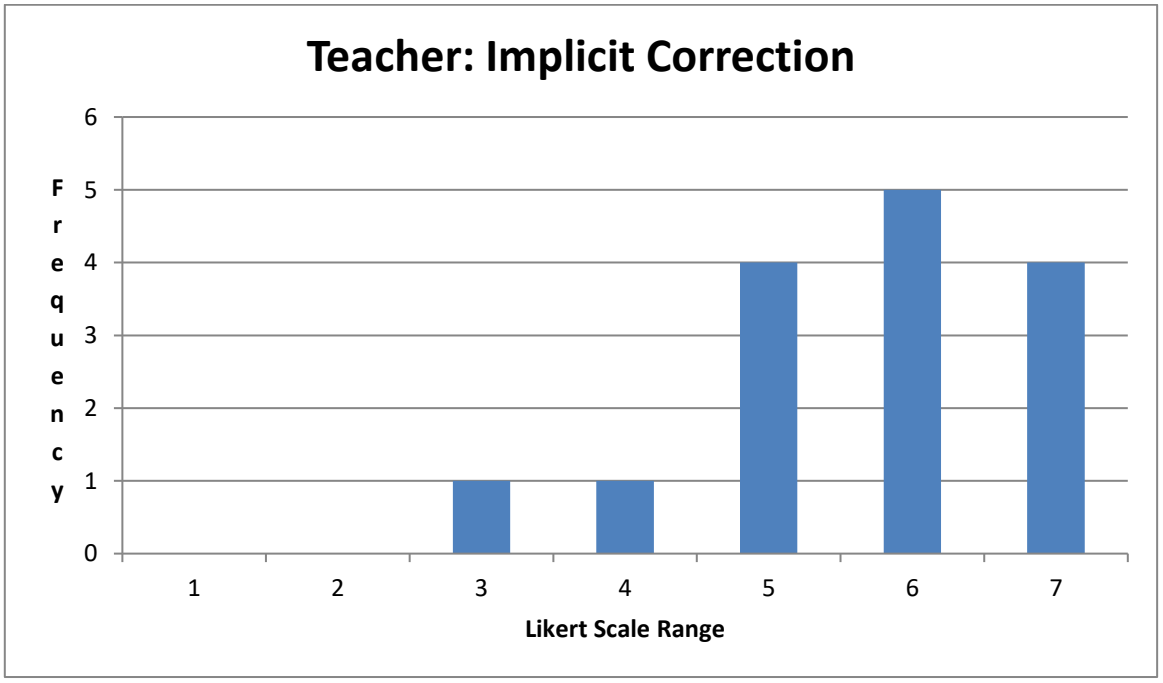
Table 4.2.6 presents respondents responses where they tend to think they would like explicit (69.9%), implicit (52.3%), and ignore (9.3%) as forms of correction conducted by their teachers respectively. Question 10 attracted 88% of respondents who disagreed that they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes.

Responses by 15 teachers show the majority often correct students indirectly (Table 4.2.18; Chart 4.2.14).

Table 4.2.18 I often correct students indirectly.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	0	0.0
3	Three	1	6.7
4	Four	1	6.7
5	Five	4	26.7
6	Six	5	33.3
7	Seven	4	26.7
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.14 I often correct students indirectly.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that they often correct students indirectly (13; 86.7%) and minority tend to disagree (1; 6.7%) respectively. Respondents who selected 4 and neither agree nor disagree may prove to be the least affected whatever the occurrence, whereas all others who agree/disagree may be affected if they do not get their preference!

Interview comments:

Question 2. Which method of correction is common in the classroom?

A mixture of responses shows the Italian male considers Direct (explicit) correction, the Chinese male mentions Recast (implicit) and Direct (explicit), whereas the Arabic female states Indirect (implicit) correction is common in the classroom.

Question 3. Is there any one correction method which you consider most beneficial to improving actual learning in the long term?

All three interviewees agree Direct (explicit) correction is considered the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term.

Question 10. Which types of correction are commonly employed during peer interaction?

There were different responses given by the three interviewees in terms of between each-other and between Teacher and peer interaction. The Italian male mentions Direct (explicit) correction is commonly employed during peer interaction. This view is shared by the Chinese male in terms of some Direct (explicit) correction, but also adds Repeat (implicit) and mimicking in joke form if peers are familiar. The Arabic female states she hasn't noticed the type of correction used in peer interaction.

Question 12. Do you think peer correction has any impact on the motivation of peers during peer interaction?

All three interviewees concur: peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction, but remain happy to be corrected by others. The Chinese male feels uncomfortable for a short time, hesitant and unwilling to peer correct and concurs with the Italian male that it remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice. The Arabic female says peer correction should be

helpful, which implies that it is negative or avoided in practice, but would be good if the practice was accepted and reinforced.

Implicit Peer Correction

There does not appear to be much research available covering the area of correction type selection and use during peer interaction other than in Topping's (2005) view that in practice peers give feedback, implicitly and explicitly, however corrections employed by teachers is well researched by comparison the results of which appear to be inferred. Peer correction is employed where students are asked to help or correct each other during PI, but without the benefit of the teacher support they are accustomed to during teacher interaction, which results in an emulative strategy.

Much research describes implicit, indirect, or embedded corrections as covertly or surreptitiously applied to situations where errors occur as a preferred less invasive option by both students and teachers (Cohen, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Nystrom, 1983; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Alderson & Beretta, 1992). Effectiveness can be diminished when implicit correction goes unnoticed, and as a result of time constraints in particular. However, implicit types of correction include recasts as the most commonly preferred type of correction, repetition is common, self-correction is important, and cueing is most effective, which provides support for continued use (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977; Rost, 2002; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Wong & Waring, 2010; Corder, 1981; Schegloff et al., 1977; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Nakamura, 2008; Celce-Murcia, 2007; Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

From a teacher's perspective the large majority agreed that they often correct students implicitly (13; 86.7%) (Table 4.2.18) and from a student's perspective the majority of

students tended to agree that they would like the teacher to correct them implicitly (113; 52.3%). This supports other research where implicit correction is preferred in the first instance with explicit correction as a safeguard from a teacher's perspective (Harmer, 2007; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Interviewee opinion considered the method of correction most common in the classroom, and during peer interaction, was split equally between Indirect (implicit) and Direct (explicit) correction. The reason for the low majority and high minority could be due to preference for explicit correction or both as more of a guaranteed option of success particularly when more students would prefer explicit correction (69.9%).

The total number of implicit corrections from observation research was a surprisingly low 38 (3.0%), which was evenly distributed between Peer Interaction (19; 50.0%) and Teacher Interaction (19; 50.0%), and identified a higher relative occurrence of almost double during TI (Table 4.2.16).

Covert types of correction may equally fail under certain conditions, where the intention could be missed, the error unidentified, and meaning may go unnoticed, which is why, from a teacher's perspective, implicit correction types are favoured initially with the explicit forms being utilised in the event of failure (Han, 2002; Harmer, 2007).

Although the majority of peers want implicit correction by the teacher and teachers agree that they correct students implicitly, both peers and teachers give feedback implicitly and explicitly, which is noticed as common among interviewees and supported by equal occurrences and could be the result of implicit correction being deemed less exploitative, intrusive, or disruptive in the first instance, but due to time constraints and lack of uptake explicit correction remains the fall-back strategy.

Question 2.a.ii

What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of explicit corrections during adult peer interaction?

The total number of explicit corrections from observation research conducted on ten classes is 192 (15.2%) out of a total tally of all corrections, which is 1264 (Table 4.2.19). The explicit corrections are observed as a slight majority in terms of Peer Interaction (102; 53.1%) and the minority Teacher Interaction (90; 46.9%). The picture is different when observed in terms of PI total corrections 783 and TI total corrections 481, which equates to 13.0% and 18.7% respectively. Table 4.2.19 presents low data by class whereby a slight increase in explicit corrections occur more in five classes to four during PI than TI.

Table 4.2.19 Explicit Correction.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	11	55.0	9	45.0	20
2	1	6.3	15	93.7	16
3	7	87.5	1	12.5	8
4	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
5	4	25.0	12	75.0	16
6	0	0.0	5	100.0	5
7	25	73.5	9	26.5	34
8	5	50.0	5	50.0	10
9	35	70.0	15	30.0	50
10	12	38.7	19	61.3	31
All X Type Only	102	53.1	90	46.9	192
All Sets Corrections	783	62.0	481	38.0	1264

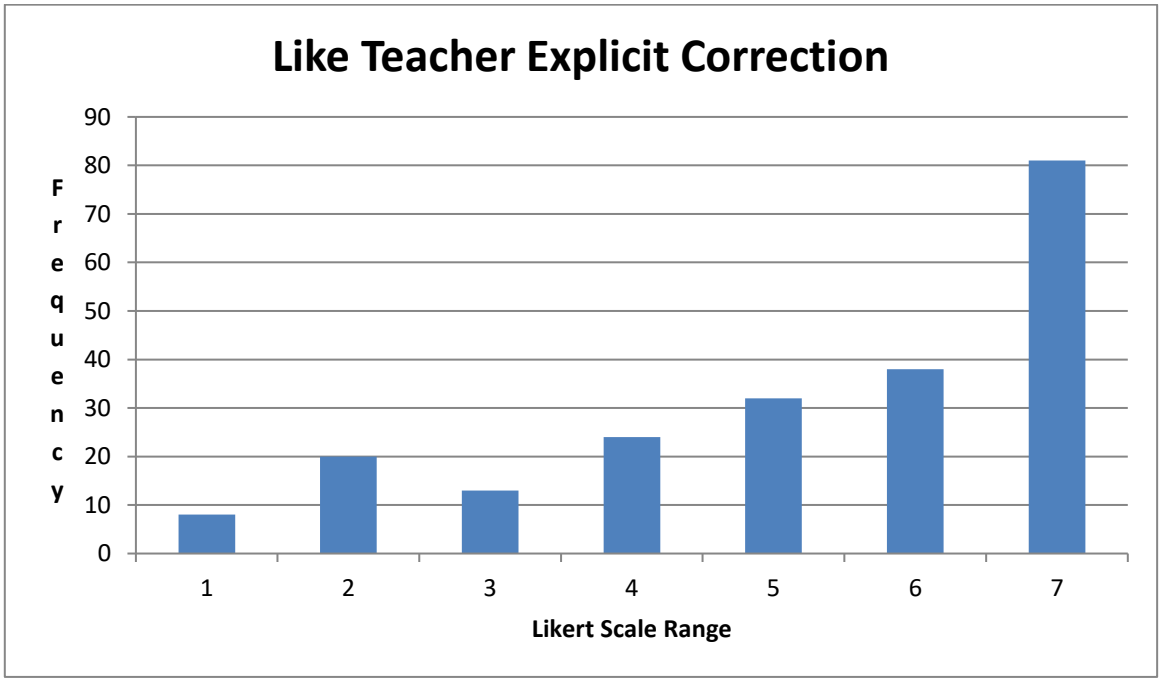
The majority of students responded they would like the teacher to correct them directly (Table 4.2.20). The spread is over seven points.

Table 4.2.20 Question 8: I would like the teacher to correct me directly.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	8	3.7
2	Two	20	9.3
3	Three	13	6.0
4	Four	24	11.1
5	Five	32	14.8
6	Six	38	17.6
7	Seven	81	37.5
	Total	216	100.0

The median is 6, which does appear to reflect the true picture (Chart 4.2.15).

Chart 4.2.15 Question 8: I would like the teacher to correct me directly.



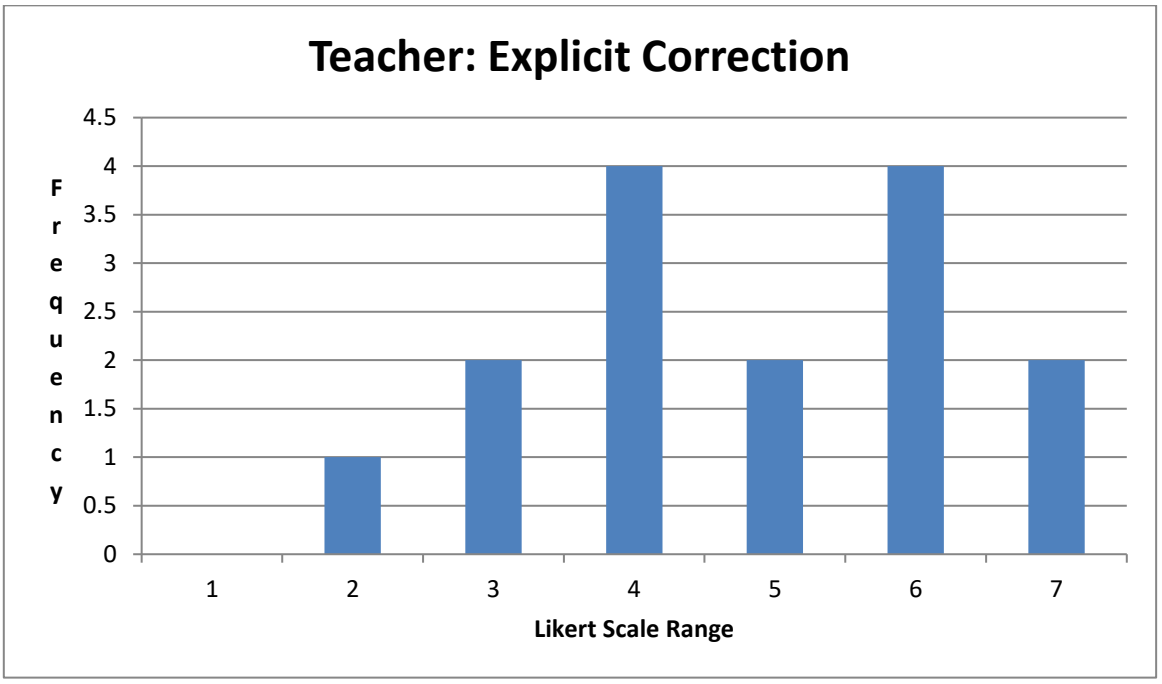
In summary, the majority tend to agree that they would like the teacher to correct them directly (69.9%) and minority tend to disagree (19.0%).

Responses by 15 teachers show the majority often correct students directly (Table 4.2.21). This falls in line with the majority of students who would like direct correction from the teacher.

Table 4.2.21 I often correct students directly.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	0	0.0
2	Two	1	6.7
3	Three	2	13.3
4	Four	4	26.7
5	Five	2	13.3
6	Six	4	26.7
7	Seven	2	13.3
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.16 I often correct students directly.



In summary, the majority tend to agree that they often correct students indirectly (8; 53.3%) and minority tend to disagree (3; 20.0%) respectively.

Questions 8, 9 & 10 represent respondents' responses where they tend to think they would like explicit (69.9%), implicit (52.3%), and ignore (9.3%) as forms of correction conducted by their teachers respectively (Table 4.2.6). Question 10 indicated that 88% of respondents disagree that they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes.

Interview comments:

Question 2. Which method of correction is common in the classroom?

A mixture of responses shows the Italian male considers Direct (explicit) correction, the Chinese male mentions Recast (implicit) and Direct (explicit), whereas the Arabic female states Indirect (implicit) correction is common in the classroom.

Question 3. Is there any one correction method which you consider most beneficial to improving actual learning in the long term?

All three interviewees agree Direct (explicit) correction is considered the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term.

Question 10. Which types of correction are commonly employed during peer interaction?

There is a difference in the responses given by the three interviewees in terms of between each other and between Teacher and peer interaction. The Italian male mentions Direct (explicit) correction is commonly employed during peer interaction. This view is shared by the Chinese male in terms of some Direct (explicit) correction, but also adds Repeat (implicit) and mimicking in joke form if peers are familiar. The Arabic female states she hasn't noticed the type of correction used in peer interaction.

Question 12. Do you think peer correction has any impact on the motivation of peers during peer interaction?

All three interviewees concur peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction, but remain happy to be corrected by others. The Chinese male feels uncomfortable for a short time, hesitant and unwilling to peer correct and concurs with the Italian male that it remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice. The Arabic female says peer correction should be

helpful, which implies that it is negative or avoided in practice, but would be good if the practice was accepted and reinforced.

Explicit Peer Correction

Explicit correction is an expedient method commonly used by teachers and traditionally expected by students that highlights an error and subsequent correction has occurred, factors which are directly linked to improvement and success. Despite negative effects such as increased exposure and disruption, explicit correction is successful in terms of timeliness, awareness, and learning (Cohen, 1975; Chaudron, 1977; Alderson & Beretta, 1992; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Jefferson, 1987; Wong & Waring, 2010). The majority of teachers in this study agreed that they often correct students explicitly, which interviewees agreed is the method considered the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term.

Explicit corrections are often directly applied by a teacher for reasons of expediency in the first instance. Explicit corrections may also be employed as a final solution when time is limited and all other less disruptive implicit methods have been attempted without success. Answers, comparisons, or explanations involving meta-language terms or linguistic items are used more often by the teacher the formality of which perhaps makes TI more appealing to learners (Nystrom, 1983; Alderson & Beretta, 1992). The negative aspect of direct correction has the potential to highlight particular students and associated difficulties in the public arena, which can cause embarrassment leading to motivation and self-concept issues, and affect learning.

The majority of students agreed that they would like the teacher to correct them explicitly, however the method of correction considered common in the classroom, and during peer

interaction, among interviewees was split equally between explicit and implicit correction as supported by the observed corrections above.

The general consensus from research indicates that students prefer correction by the teacher rather than peers, however during PI scenarios the dynamic would have to change in terms of students adopting the role, language, and knowledge of the teacher and similarly dealing with a peer in the same situation. In terms of PI explicit correction may be used more by way of transference from TI experiences, and similarly applied due to time constraints during respective activities.

Results from this study identified much greater use of explicit corrections compared to implicit corrections out of a total tally of all corrections and also identified increased use of explicit correction during PI compared to TI.

All three interviewees follow the general consensus that correction remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice and by contrast peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction. However, the students are becoming more accepting and happier to be corrected during PI. A major impasse is where Chinese and Asian cultural traits are so embedded that any kind of confrontation leading to an embarrassing situation must be avoided at all costs, which is why explicit correction during TI is the accepted norm in terms of toleration, but it is still considered unwanted attention and a necessary evil. The majority of explicit corrections conducted during PI in this study may also be treated in the same regard, but lacking in authority and respect based on students' attitudes to status.

Question 2.b

What types and frequency of corrections are experienced by adult second language learners when listening for information and speaking in the classroom?

Nine types of corrections made by adult second language learners observed in the classroom have been identified as follows (Table 4.2.22): Ignore (I); Explicit (X); Recast (R); Repeat (r); Clarify (K); Self-correct (S); Elicit (L); Meta-linguistic (M); and Gesture (J).

Table 4.2.22 Correction Types: Tallies and Percentages.

Correction Type	Total Corrections By Type	(%)
I	1034	81.8
X	192	15.19
R	13	1.03
r	10	0.79
K	6	0.47
S	6	0.47
L	1	0.08
M	1	0.08
J	1	0.08
Total	1264	

Ignore corrections were the highest at 81.8%, followed by Explicit (15.19%), Recast (1.03%), Repeat (0.79%), and so on.

Interview comments:

Question 2. Which method of correction is common in the classroom?

A mixture of responses shows the Italian male considers Direct (explicit) correction, the Chinese male mentions Recast (implicit) and Direct (explicit), whereas the Arabic female states Indirect (implicit) correction is common in the classroom.

Question 10. Which types of correction are commonly employed during peer interaction?

There is a difference in the responses given by the three interviewees in terms of between each-other and between Teacher and peer interaction. The Italian male mentions Direct (explicit) correction is commonly employed during peer interaction. This view is shared by the Chinese male in terms of some Direct (explicit) correction, but also adds Repeat (implicit)

and mimicking in joke form if peers are familiar. The Arabic female states she hasn't noticed the type of correction used in peer interaction.

Question 11. How often are errors ignored during peer interaction? All three interviewees report that the method is common, and the Chinese male considers the practice very, very common. The Italian male confirms that the errors are noticed, but ignored out of politeness. He further admits peer correction is limited even if the teacher instructs the students to do so. The Chinese male tends to follow the teacher's line of fluency over accuracy as well as being due to time consideration. Both the Chinese male and Arabic female note it is also common for errors to be ignored during classroom interaction.

Type and Frequency of Corrections

The nine types of correction identified in existing research are split into two main categories and labelled implicit and explicit correction as expected. The explicit corrections observed in the classroom were just over five times the frequency of the implicit corrections, which was unexpected. The preference for implicit correction by teachers and students alike because of its effectiveness, less invasive role, and application before employing explicit correction methods made them appear well matched, but explicit correction more so. The conditions applied to using explicit corrections such as time constraints and emulating TI practice during PI corrections may account for the large difference in frequencies. Even more surprising was a third, less mainstream, category identified as ignoring (81.8%), which could be seen in terms of non-correction, or inactive/passive correction. Ignore corrections were over five and twenty-seven times the frequency of explicit and implicit corrections respectively.

The order of frequency not only identifies explicit correction as relatively high instead of the highest as reported in the previous chapter, but isolates the remaining types as forms of implicit correction at a much lower frequency of occurrence. The most surprising data

identified Ignore as the outright leader in correction type, especially as it is considered separate from explicit and implicit correction by Harmer (2007), but it also represents such a huge difference that if all the missed opportunities were dealt with accordingly, it may have a positive effect on teaching and learning.

Interviewee opinion revealed a complete spread from Direct (explicit) correction, both Direct (explicit) and Recast (implicit), to Indirect (implicit) correction was common in the classroom respectively, which makes the huge difference in observed results even more surprising as to just how common.

Ignoring errors or situations where errors remain unnoticed or untreated reasons for allowing error despite the large majority of responses representing those who do not want errors to be ignored. It appears that errors are overlooked or missed as long as interpretation remains unaffected (Boomer & Laver, 1968), adverse effects are not experienced, or delays in getting to the conclusion are not experienced (Rost, 2013). More specifically, ignoring form and linguistic error is deemed appropriate teacher behaviour during error treatment according to research carried out in the Bangalore Project (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977). Harmer (2007) mentions ignoring developmental errors as a correction method set aside from overt or covert correction. In terms of corrective feedback errors made outside lesson objectives and errors conforming to views of initial instruction are ignored (De Luque & Sommer, 2000).

All of the interviewees reported that the method of ignoring errors is common during classroom interaction, and also during peer interaction from a Chinese respondent's perspective. In other opinion errors are noticed, but ignored out of politeness and peer correction is limited even if the teacher instructs the students to do so. A Chinese student's

opinion was to follow the teacher's line of fluency over accuracy and time consideration, which results in ignoring.

Explicit correction was expected to be more common than implicit correction types in line with other research, but the significant difference in results is unexpected.

The implicit correction group appears to reflect similar value and corresponding order to the types identified in this study, although the frequency of occurrence of respective types were surprisingly low compared to explicit and ignore types. Rost's (2002) research highlights recasts as the most commonly preferred type of correction whereas repetition is common (Corder, 1981; Harmer, 2007), clarification is necessary for meaning (Harmer, 2007; Wong & Waring, 2010), self-correction is not only important, but the best (Corder, 1981; Schegloff et al., 1977; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Nakamura, 2008; Celce-Murcia, 2007), cueing is most effective (Alderson & Beretta, 1992; Harmer, 2007; Hattie & Timperley, 2007), meta-linguistic is more teacher-oriented (Alderson & Berretta, 1992), and gesture is useful (Harmer, 2007).

The questionnaire research identified a range of nine correction types only Explicit (15.9%) of which is direct correction and is second most common after Ignore (81.8%). The remaining seven correction types are Implicit forms and much less common than the Explicit form.

Interviewee opinion concerning Peer Interaction mirrors the same correction types as common in classroom interaction with the exception that the Arabic student did not notice the correction type, the reason for which may be due to the surreptitious nature of implicit type correction not being noticed and failing to identify that anything was incorrect in the first place or due to ignoring.

If so many errors are ignored, and implicit correction is deemed preferable to teachers and students in an attempt to limit confrontation and negative effects in the first instance before explicit correction is employed as a safeguard, the optimum correction potential of corrections deemed important enough will be approximately 18%. This creates a situation that leaves huge scope for repeated errors to go unchecked and even fossilise over time.

Question 2.c

What is the difference and the relationship between correction types and frequency made during adult peer interaction and adult student/teacher interaction?

The total number of Correction types can be further rationalised into two distinct groups; those committed during peer interaction (PI); and those committed during classroom or teacher/student interaction (TI).

The frequencies of corrections made by adult second language learners observed in the classroom consist of total occurrences in the classroom, which can be further categorised as corrections made by specific, identified students, and one or more unidentified students (M, F, or 0), which result from group choral work and/or peer interaction.

As a reminder the cumulative total corrections of all nine types observed in all ten classrooms gives 1264 corrections:

Total Corrections (All sets): 1264 (100%), which consists of

Total Corrections (PI): 783 (61.95%).

Total Corrections (TI): 481 (38.05%).

Of the nine correction types M, J, I, R, r, and X show a greater incidence of occurrence in PI as reflected by 100%, 100%, 64.02%, 61.54%, 60%, and 53.13% respectively (Table 4.2.23). Ignore, Explicit, Recast, repeat, and Clarification correction types occurred during both Peer Interaction and Teacher Interaction. Self-correction and Elicitation did not occur during PI, whereas Meta-linguistic and Gesture did not occur during TI.

Table 4.2.23 Correction Types: PI and TI Tallies and Percentages.

Correction Type	PI Correction Tally	PI (%)	TI Correction Tally	TI (%)
I	662	64.02	372	35.98
X	102	53.13	90	46.87
R	8	61.54	5	38.46
r	6	60	4	40
K	3	50	3	50
S	0	0	6	100
L	0	0	1	100
M	1	100	0	0
J	1	100	0	0
(All Sets Corrections)	(783)	(61.95)	(481)	(38.05)

Correction type K shows equal incidence for PI and TI. The remaining two types, S and L, show increasing incidence in terms of TI at 100% and 100% respectively. By contrast the All Sets Corrections show a greater incidence during PI at 61.95%.

By far the largest occurrence of correction type is Ignore (662; 64.02%) during PI and (372; 35.98%) during TI respectively. This equates to an approximate ratio of 2 to1 PI corrections to TI corrections. Furthermore, the ratio is just over five times more than the next highest correction tally, which is Explicit. PI Explicit corrections (102; 53.13%) are six times and TI (90; 46.87%) Explicit corrections are four times less frequent than Ignore corrections.

Still much fewer occurrences are Recast corrections (8; 61.64%) and (5; 38.46%) for PI and TI occurrences respectively.

Ignore and Explicit Corrections results are substantial enough to analyse, however the data representing the other seven types are rather limited for useful analysis.

The following tables represent all classes observed by correction type:

Ignore corrections experience a higher incidence during PI in nine classes ranging from 78.5% to 50.5%. The exception is class 4 at 38.6% during TI (Table 4.2.24). The Ignore correction total tally shows PI at 662 (64.0%) and TI at 372 (36.0%) occurrences respectively. Six classes (60.0%) above the total Ignore PI level include 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and 10, whereas four classes (40.0%) 2, 4, 6, and 8 are above the total Ignore TI level.

Table 4.2.24 Ignore Correction.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	146	72.3	56	27.7	202
2	56	38.6	89	61.4	145
3	71	77.2	21	22.8	92
4	28	57.1	21	42.9	49
5	38	65.5	20	34.5	58
6	48	50.5	47	49.5	95
7	95	78.5	26	21.5	121
8	39	59.1	27	40.9	66
9	69	70.4	29	29.6	98
10	72	66.67	36	33.33	108
All I Type Only	662	64.0	372	36.0	1034
All Sets Corrections	783	62.0	481	38.0	1264

Explicit corrections experience a higher incidence during PI in five classes ranging from 55.0% to 100.0% (Table 4.2.25). The Explicit correction total tally shows PI at 102 (53.1%) and TI at 90 (46.9%) occurrences respectively. Five classes (50.0%) above the total Explicit PI level include 1, 3, 4, 7, and 9, whereas five classes (50.0%) 2, 5, 6, 8, and 10 are above the total Explicit TI level. One class 8 shows a split-majority of 5 (50.0%) explicit corrections during both PI and TI.

Table 4.2.25 Explicit Correction.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	11	55.0	9	45.0	20
2	1	6.3	15	93.7	16
3	7	87.5	1	12.5	8
4	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
5	4	25.0	12	75.0	16
6	0	0.0	5	100.0	5
7	25	73.5	9	26.5	34
8	5	50.0	5	50.0	10
9	35	70.0	15	30.0	50
10	12	38.7	19	61.3	31
All X Type Only	102	53.1	90	46.9	192
All Sets Corrections	783	62.0	481	38.0	1264

The incidence of implicit correction types was too low to research. However, Recast corrections experienced a higher incidence during PI and in more classes. Clarify, Repeat, Metalinguistic, and Gesture corrections also experienced a higher incidence during PI. However, Elicit and Self corrections experienced a higher incidence during TI.

A summary of corrections made during classes shows eight correction types including I, X, R, K, r, M, and J (77.8%) that occurred more during PI than TI. Only two classes (22.2%) experienced occurrences of corrections made in the majority during TI include L and S.

Table 4.2.26 Summary of Corrections and Class Occurrence.

Correction Type	PI	%	TI	%	50%	%	0%	%
I	9	90.0	1	10.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
X	5	50.0	4	40.0	1	10.0	0	0.0
R	3	30.0	2	20.0	2	20.0	3	30.0
K	2	20.0	1	10.0	0	0.0	7	70.0
R	3	30.0	2	20.0	2	20.0	3	30.0
L	0	0.0	1	10.0	0	0.0	9	90.0
M	1	10.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	90.0
J	1	10.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	90.0
S	0	0.0	3	30.0	0	0.0	7	70.0

Interview comments:

Question 2. Which method of correction is common in the classroom?

A mixture of responses shows the Italian male considers Direct (explicit) correction, the Chinese male mentions Recast (implicit) and Direct (explicit), whereas the Arabic female states Indirect (implicit) correction is common in the classroom.

Question 3. Is there any one correction method which you consider most beneficial to improving actual learning in the long term?

All three interviewees agree Direct (explicit) correction is considered the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term.

Question 10. Which types of correction are commonly employed during peer interaction?

There is a difference in the responses given by the three interviewees in terms of between each other and between Teacher and peer interaction. The Italian male mentions Direct (explicit) correction is commonly employed during peer interaction. This view is shared by the Chinese male in terms of some Direct (explicit) correction, but also adds Repeat (implicit) and mimicking in joke form if peers are familiar. The Arabic female states she hasn't noticed the type of correction used in peer interaction.

Question 11. How often are errors ignored during peer interaction? All three interviewees report that the method is common, and the Chinese male considers the practice very, very common. The Italian male confirms that the errors are noticed, but ignored out of politeness. He further admits peer correction is limited even if the teacher instructs the students to do so. The Chinese male tends to follow the teacher's line of fluency over accuracy as well as being

due to time consideration. Both the Chinese male and Arabic female note it is also common for errors to be ignored during classroom interaction.

PI/TI Correction Type and Frequency Differences

The quantity of corrections carried out during PI (783; 61.95%) far outweighs the number during TI (481; 38.05%), which indicates more errors take place during PI to justify the volume of correction, PI is an established base among peers for corrective dialogue to take place, but more importantly calls into question the negative impact associated with PI and preference for traditional TI methods and the attitude to status in respective relationships during interaction. The opportunity to talk more and express themselves more openly with peers could mean a conscious decision to exploit uncertain utterances and attempt to practice riskier material without worrying about correction, but it could also identify the existence of actual low-ability levels.

The majority of seven of the nine correction types showed a greater incidence of occurrence during PI compared to TI and identified Ignore, Recast, and Explicit as dominant types respectively (Table 4.2.23), but by comparison to overall PI data the order of highest to lowest occurrence alters in terms of Ignore, Explicit, and Recast. Interviewee opinion and observed results failed to identify ignoring, but indicated Direct (explicit), although much more than Repeat (implicit) correction are both commonly employed during both teacher and peer interaction. Ignore, Explicit, Recast, repeat, and Clarification correction types occurred during both Peer Interaction and Teacher Interaction, which was expected based on other research in terms of all types being reflected in PI and TI. The fact that some correction types are missing was unexpected, such as Self-correction and Elicitation did not occur during PI, and Meta-linguistic and Gesture did not occur during TI. One explanation could be that these forms of correction are more likely to be teacher-oriented where students are afforded more

time to respond during TI as pointed out in other research. An interesting point is that Meta-linguistic and Gesture are expected to be used more by teachers during TI, but more students do appear to emulate teacher-led Meta-linguistic and Gesture correction, which is why one would expect occurrence during both PI and TI.

By far the largest occurrence of correction types is during PI with Ignore (662; 64.02%) followed by Explicit corrections (102; 53.13%) and Recast corrections (8; 61.64%). Interviewee opinion suggests that the method of ignoring during peer interaction, and classroom interaction, is common with reasons such as errors being noticed and ignored out of politeness, peer correction is limited or avoided despite teacher instruction to do so, peer's/teacher's preference for fluency over accuracy, and time limitations. In summary more corrections occurred during PI rather than TI, of which Ignore was the most common, followed by explicit and then implicit forms where recast was the most common.

The attitude to status among peers and between students and teachers remains an on-going issue, which indicates increased avoidance of confrontation and embarrassment during PI based on the very high frequency of ignoring compared to TI where the traditionally expected and accepted relationship prevails. All but two of the seven correction types were higher in occurrence during PI and included Ignore, Explicit, and Recast, whereas Elicitation and Self-correction occurred more during TI, which reflected the difference between teaching and learning methodologies experienced during PI and TI, prior learning experience and strategies employed to survive and/or succeed. Only Ignore and explicit corrections were made during all classes, whereas many correction forms did not occur at all, which indicates problems such as cultural interference, attitude to status in relationships, low ability levels, a focus on fluency rather than accuracy, in conflict to a lesser extent with foregoing the negative emotional effect in favour of getting to the point, saving time, learning more effectively and efficiently, and moving on.

Question 2d

How do the type and frequency of correction types vary by age, gender, first language (L1), self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction?

Statistical research was carried out in order to identify how the type and frequency of correction types vary by age, gender, first language (L1), self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction. Significant results have been identified for Age, Native L1, and Level. Other categories of interest, but not statistically significant, include Sex and Years of Study. Tables have been generated separately in terms of Teacher and Peer Interaction for ease of reading and comparison.

Level Analysis.

A X^2 Test between twelve Teacher Interaction (TI) Corrections and twelve Peer Interaction (PI) Corrections and two-Level Categories (6.0-6.5 and 7.0-7.5) was carried out, which identified one variable of significance out of a total of 24 variables (Table 4.2.27).
The criteria for data requirement in terms of expected cell values were not met, which means none of the 24 variables were statistically significant (Table 4.2.28).
The Level Category refers to the IELTS level attained by students who have been actively and formally learning English as a second language, the data of which was collected in the personal detail section of the questionnaire survey issued post-classroom-observation. The range was Levels 6.0 to 7.5, which was subsequently split into two relatively equal sub-categories (6.0-6.5 Levels) and (7.0-7.5 Levels) based on the modal value of the total range.

A total of 216 (245-29) students were observed in ten classes who were identified individually for making corrections. A tally of 29 students remained unidentified thus the

data of whom remain unknown have been removed for the purposes of this study in order to maintain reliability of results.

The data represented in Tables 4.2.37 and 4.2.38 below summarise significance levels.

Table 4.2.27 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Corrections and Level Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Class	59	.232	1	.728
Explicit	Class	42	1.108	1	.345
Recast	Class	4	.337	1	.621
Clarify	Class	2	1.152	1	.535
Repeat	Class	3	5.386	1	.046*
Elicit	Class	1	1.771	1	.362
Meta-language	Class	0			
Gesture	Class	0			
Self-correct	Class	0			
Hint/prompt	Class	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.2.28 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Corrections and Level Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Peer	65	.772	1	.396
Explicit	Peer	34	.076	1	.840
Recast	Peer	7	.187	1	1.000
Clarify	Peer	3	.011	1	1.000
Repeat	Peer	6	.512	1	.668
Elicit	Peer	0			
Meta-language	Peer	1	1.771	1	.362
Gesture	Peer	1	1.771	1	.362
Self-correct	Peer	0			
Hint/prompt	Peer	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

Native L1 Analysis.

A X^2 Test between twelve TI and twelve PI Corrections, and Three Native L1 Categories (Chinese, European, and Other) was carried out, which identified three variables of significance out of a total of 24 variables (Tables 4.2.39 and 4.2.40).

The criteria for data requirement in terms of expected cell values were not met, which means none of the 24 variables were statistically significant.

The data represented in Tables 4.2.39 and 4.2.40 below summarise significance levels.

Table 4.2.29 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Corrections and Native L1 Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	(p)
Ignore	Class	59	0.947	2	.623
Explicit	Class	42	0.146	2	.930
Recast	Class	4	7.809	2	.020*
Clarify	Class	2	.622	2	.733
Repeat	Class	3	.940	2	.625
Elicit	Class	1	.309	2	.857
Meta-language	Class	0			
Gesture	Class	0			
Self-correct	Class	0			
Hint/prompt	Class	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.2.30 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Corrections and Native L1 Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	(p)
Ignore	Peer	65	4.515	2	.105
Explicit	Peer	34	6.558	2	.038*
Recast	Peer	7	1.104	2	.576
Clarify	Peer	3	0.940	2	.625
Repeat	Peer	6	2.827	2	.243
Elicit	Peer	0			
Meta-language	Peer	1	0.309	2	.857
Gesture	Peer	1	6.888	2	.032*
Self-correct	Peer	0			
Hint/prompt	Peer	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

Age Analysis.

A X^2 Test between twelve TI and twelve PI Corrections, and two Age Categories (Younger (16-23); Older (24-51)) was carried out, which identified one variable of significance out of a total of 24 variables (Table 4.2.32).

The data represented in Tables 4.2.41 and 4.2.42 below summarise significance levels.

Table 4.2.31 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Corrections and Age Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Class	59	.399	1	.605
Explicit	Class	42	1.096	1	.349
Recast	Class	4	2.475	1	.297
Clarify	Class	2	1.221	1	.528
Repeat	Class	3	1.844	1	.291
Elicit	Class	1	1.672	1	.376
Meta-language	Class	0			
Gesture	Class	0			
Self-correct	Class	0			
Hint/prompt	Class	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.2.32 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Corrections and Age Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Peer	65	.687	1	.496
Explicit	Peer	34	5.424	1	.026*
Recast	Peer	7	.087	1	1.000
Clarify	Peer	3	.024	1	1.000
Repeat	Peer	6	.048	1	1.000
Elicit	Peer	0			
Meta-language	Peer	1	.606	1	1.000
Gesture	Peer	1	.606	1	1.000
Self-correct	Peer	0			
Hint/prompt	Peer	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

It is interesting to note that one Peer Interaction correction type (Explicit) and none of the Teacher/Student Interaction correction types are significantly different out of a total of twelve

Peer Interaction correction types and twelve Teacher/Student Interaction correction types respectively.

Significant results from Cross-tabulation of Teacher Interaction/Peer Interaction Corrections and Age Categories are as follows:

1. Table 4.2.33 shows 34 (22.8%) out of a total 149 students made Explicit Corrections during Peer Interaction.

In the Younger category 7 (12.5%) students out of 56 made Explicit Corrections during Peer Interaction.

In the Older category 27 (29.0%) students out of 93 made Explicit Corrections during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.2.33 Peer Interaction Explicit Correction and Age Categories Cross-tabulation.

Correction Type	Frequency	Age Categories				Total	%
		Younger	%	Older	%		
Explicit	0	49	87.5	66	71.0	115	77.2
	1	7	12.5	27	29.0	34	22.8
Total		56		93		149	

A difference was shown between Peer Interaction Explicit Correction and Age Categories, which was a significant result (Pearson $X^2 = 5.424$, df = 1, Fisher Exact Test, p = .026) where $p<.05$, and showed that the Older-category students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Explicit Corrections than the Younger-category students.

Analysis by Sex.

A X^2 Test between twelve TI and twelve PI Corrections, and two Sex Categories (Male (0) and Female (1)) was carried out, which identified no variables of significance out of a total of 24 variables.

The data represented in Tables 4.2.44 and 4.2.45 below summarise significance levels.

Table 4.2.34 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Corrections and Sex Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Class	59	.162	1	.848
Explicit	Class	42	.015	1	1.000
Recast	Class	4	5.300	1	.051
Clarify	Class	2	.694	1	1.000
Repeat	Class	3	2.730	1	.160
Elicit	Class	1	.345	1	1.000
Meta-language	Class	0			
Gesture	Class	0			
Self-correct	Class	0			
Hint/prompt	Class	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.2.35 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Corrections and Sex Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Peer	65	.357	1	.576
Explicit	Peer	34	.354	1	.655
Recast	Peer	7	.036	1	1.000
Clarify	Peer	3	1.048	1	.571
Repeat	Peer	6	1.975	1	.173
Elicit	Peer	0			
Meta-language	Peer	1	2.941	1	.255
Gesture	Peer	1	2.941	1	.255
Self-correct	Peer	0			
Hint/prompt	Peer	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

None of the Peer Interaction correction types and none of the Teacher/Student Interaction correction types are significant.

Years Analysis.

A X^2 Test between twelve TI and twelve PI Corrections, and two Years Categories (1-10 and 11-26) was carried out, which identified no variables of significance out of a total of 24 variables.

The Years category refers to the number of years students have been actively and formally learning English as a second language, the data of which was collected in the personal detail section of the questionnaire survey issued post-classroom-observation. The range was one year to 26 years, which was subsequently split into two relatively equal sub-categories (1-10 years) and (11-26 years) based on the modal value of the total range.
The data represented in Tables 4.2.46 and 4.2.47 below summarise significance levels.

Table 4.2.36 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Corrections and Years Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Class	59	.180	1	.734
Explicit	Class	42	.115	1	.853
Recast	Class	4	.162	1	1.000
Clarify	Class	2	.080	1	1.000
Repeat	Class	3	.061	1	1.000
Elicit	Class	1	.679	1	1.000
Meta-language	Class	0			
Gesture	Class	0			
Self-correct	Class	0			
Hint/prompt	Class	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.2.37 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Corrections and Years Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Peer	65	1.977	1	.180
Explicit	Peer	34	1.148	1	.324
Recast	Peer	7	.418	1	.702
Clarify	Peer	3	.061	1	1.000
Repeat	Peer	6	4.215	1	.081
Elicit	Peer	0			
Meta-language	Peer	1	.679	1	1.000
Gesture	Peer	1	.679	1	1.000
Self-correct	Peer	0			
Hint/prompt	Peer	0			

** p<.01 * p<.05

None of the Peer Interaction correction types and none of the Teacher/Student Interaction correction types are significantly different.

PI/TI Correction Type and Individual Difference Variation

Statistical research was carried out in order to identify how the type and frequency of correction types vary by age, gender, first language (L1), self-concept, prior learning ability, and teacher/peer interaction. Significant results were identified for Age and indicated that the Older-category students aged between 24 -51 years old were more likely to make Peer Interaction Explicit Corrections (Table 4.2.32). However, Native L1 and Level, which were initially significant failed to meet the criteria, and other categories of interest, but not statistically significant, included Sex and Years of Study.

Interviewee responses indicated that Direct (explicit) correction is common in the classroom and most beneficial to improving learning in the long term, which is tempered by reacting differently now as a result of increased prior learning ability, self-concept, and age.

A definite change in acceptance of being corrected is shown through duration and maturity where most interviewees are more positive now in terms of reacting differently. The interviewees concur that peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction because correction is perceived as the teacher's authority, domain, and accepted practice, but remain happy to be corrected by others, which appears to be reflected in data where the older student category were more likely to make explicit corrections during PI.

More variables of potential significance were initially identified between PI than TI corrections and IELTS Band Level categories (6.0-6.5 and 7.0-7.5), and Three Native L1 Categories (Chinese, European, and Other), but the criteria for data requirement in terms of expected cell values were not met. Because students react to correction differently and positively now as a result of increased prior learning ability, self-concept, and age, it was expected it would reflect significance in terms of level being linked to different age groups, and culture differences over time.

The X^2 Test failed to identify any variables of significance between Teacher Interaction (TI) Corrections and Peer Interaction (PI) Corrections and two Sex Categories (Male and Female), and two Years Categories (1-10 and 11-26 years of study). All three interviewees suggested that they react differently now as a result of increased prior learning ability, self-concept, and age, which was expected would reflect significance in terms of years being linked to different age groups, level, and culture differences over time, however gender was the only factor not mentioned. As mentioned previously change in acceptance means it is expected that mistakes, corrections, and improvement will occur through duration and maturity, which was not significant in terms of sex or years of study.

Overall, it appears that the older a student becomes the factors of development mentioned in 5.2.3 evolve into a more functional, efficient and effective strategy whereby negotiation and clarification through explicit correction is conducted more during PI in an attempt to maintain motivation and self-concept, attain success, and progress without having to deal with interference from affective factors, cultural factors, or individual differences.

The lack of significant data involving ignore correction is unexpected because of its prevalence in observed research, and interviewee opinion that ignoring is very common during both PI and TI. The disturbing possible explanation for the lack of significance could be that ignoring is so prevalent across all factors that the only evidence is the tally data and the comparison to other correction types, which is inadequate.

Question 2.e

What are the difference and the relationship between the ignoring of errors and committing errors of omission during adult peer interaction?

A X^2 Test was carried out to identify the difference and relationship between ignoring of errors and committing errors of omission during adult peer interaction, the result of which proves highly significant statistically (Table 4.2.25).

Table 4.2.38 Significant Values of Ignoring Errors and Omission Errors.

Interaction	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Peer	39.514	1	.000**

Significant results from Cross-tabulation of Teacher Interaction/Peer Interaction Ignore Corrections and Omission Errors are as follows:

1. Table 4.2.39 shows 43 (28.9%) out of a total 149 students made Omission errors and Ignore corrections during Peer Interaction.

Table 4.2.39 Peer Interaction Ignore Correction and Omission Error Cross-tabulation.

	Frequency	Ignore				Total	%
		0	%	1	%		
Omission	0	77	91.7	29	31.2	106	71.1
	1	7	8.3	36	38.7	43	28.9
Total		84		65		149	

A difference was shown between Peer Interaction Ignore Correction and Omission Error, which is very significant. (Pearson $X^2 = 39.514$, df = 1, Fisher Exact Test, p = .000). This was a very significant result ($p<.01$) and showed that 36 (38.7%) students were more likely to make Ignore Corrections and Omission Errors than one or the other. However, 77 (91.7%) were more likely to make neither Ignore Corrections and Omission Errors than one or the other.

Interview responses:

Question 9. How common is omission during peer interaction? A split emerges in the responses of the three interviewees in that the Italian male states omission occurs more during peer interaction than during classroom interaction to the Arabic female who considers it a rare occurrence. The Chinese male mentions omission occurs, but at a lower frequency than making errors. This suggests the Chinese male does not consider omission an error, which is supported by the comment, 'I didn't realize I made this error'. He further reported that no student would correct omissions out of politeness and saving face.

Question 11. How often are errors ignored during peer interaction? All three interviewees report that the method is common, and the Chinese male considers the practice very, very

common. The Italian male confirms that the errors are noticed, but ignored out of politeness. He further admits peer correction is limited even if the teacher instructs the students to do so. The Chinese male tends to follow the teacher's line of fluency over accuracy as well as being due to time consideration. Both the Chinese male and Arabic female note it is also common for errors to be ignored during classroom interaction.

Question 12. Do you think peer correction has any impact on the motivation of peers during peer interaction? All three interviewees concur peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction, but they remain happy to be corrected by others. The Chinese male feels uncomfortable for a short time, hesitant and unwilling to peer correct and concurs with the Italian male that it remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice. The Arabic female says peer correction should be helpful, which infers that it is negative or avoided in practice, but would be good if the practice was accepted and reinforced.

PI Ignoring and Omission of Errors

The theme behind this particular research question is absence, which has been identified in terms of omission errors or absence of part or complete utterances and the absence of error correction altogether.

Some omission errors occur as a result of some form of linguistic or language deviance that cannot be helped at the moment of utterance, but as pointed out earlier there are occasions where omissions are committed in line with some form of strategy. This could occur where purposive simplification includes elision as the omission of individual phonemes for easier pronunciation, and ellipsis as the omission of items presumed to be known and removed as unnecessary. Munro and Derwing (1995) conducted listening research on utterances from Mandarin speakers of English where more than 33% of the errors were regularizations or omissions of function words and may have strategic focus. Observation research for this

thesis identified a much lower occurrence of omission error (11.3%) of which only slightly more than a third occurred during PI, which is aligned with Interview responses. The connection between omission and ignoring becomes clear when errors are disregarded, pass unrecognised, and even if noticed, are ignored for cultural or pragmatic reasons.

Similarly, although ignoring some errors and not others may be a simple case of missing them, some form of strategic application is also taking place, particularly when the identification of, focus on and priority of errors lead to the part of the teaching and learning process known as correction, which does not happen. Priority of utterances may be important in that identified errors may be ignored to maintain focus on teaching objectives such as fluency over accuracy (Boomer & Laver, 1968; Corder, 1981; Harmer, 2007). Other research identified prioritisation of correction such as commission over omission errors (Harmer, 2007), and also higher occurring, and then important, and easy (Cohen, 1975), phonological (Nystrom, 1983), and content errors (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977), which could explain why certain items including omissions are ignored. Identification or assumption that simplification strategies such as elision and ellipsis are employed may also be a reason for ignoring omissions, however there could just be too many errors to deal with at any one time where a blanket ignoring technique is employed.

Ignore occurrences were observed at the highest level, particularly during PI, and confirmed as common by interviewee opinion. The Chinese interviewee follows the teacher's line of fluency over accuracy and time limitations, which support possible reasons for ignoring shared by Boomer & Laver (1968), Corder (1981), and Harmer (2007) above.

Cross-tabulation of peer interaction ignoring and omission errors indicated the former is more common than the latter. Furthermore, a very significant difference between Peer Interaction Ignore Correction and Omission Error indicated that students were more likely to make both

than one or the other. This result identifies a link between certain students, omission errors, and ignoring whereby when one is made so is the other, which in turn could mean if one was corrected, so could the other and vice versa leading to success.

Observation and interview data identify omission errors do occur and at a much lower frequency during PI. Ignoring during both TI and PI is common, and in terms of the latter, very common from a Chinese perspective, which is aligned with observation data where ignoring occurs at a much higher frequency during PI. Omissions and ignoring can occur for natural reasons such as lack of knowledge or L1 interference, or missed opportunities, but can also be strategic and purposive. The Chinese interviewee perspective is important from not considering omission an error, being unaware he made them, and perceiving that no-one would correct omissions out of politeness and saving face anyway. The connection between omission and ignoring can be viewed in terms of absence whether missed or disregarded, which results in a survival strategy involving fluency over accuracy and time limitations protected by cultural norms.

It is pertinent to reiterate that peer correction has a negative impact on motivation during peer interaction even when sanctioned by the teacher, and although peers remain happy to be corrected by others they prefer not to correct others as a result of it being the teacher's responsibility. Other research posits peer interaction provides a different and value-added environment where an extension and expansion of language production may take place in the less formal and focused situation, however teacher interaction is valued more in students' psyche, which could be another reason for silences and ignoring during PI.

Question 2.e.i

What is the learner/teacher perception of the role of ignoring errors and corrections during adult peer interaction?

Classroom observation research shows students failed to respond to situations where correction was possible and met with silence or failed to respond correctly post-correction by others, which was evidently unsuccessful (Table 4.2.40).

Table 4.2.40 Ignore Correction.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	146	72.3	56	27.7	202
2	56	38.6	89	61.4	145
3	71	77.2	21	22.8	92
4	28	57.1	21	42.9	49
5	38	65.5	20	34.5	58
6	48	50.5	47	49.5	95
7	95	78.5	26	21.5	121
8	39	59.1	27	40.9	66
9	69	70.4	29	29.6	98
10	72	66.7	36	33.3	108
All I Type Only	662	64.0	372	36.0	1034
All Sets Corrections	783	62.0	481	38.0	1264

The tally total of Ignore corrections from all ten classes is 1034 (81.8%) of total All Sets corrections (1264). The total is sub-divided into PI and TI, the results of which are 662 (64.0%) and 372 (36.0%) respectively. The majority of Ignore corrections occur during PI at a rate of just under 2 to 1 compared to TI.

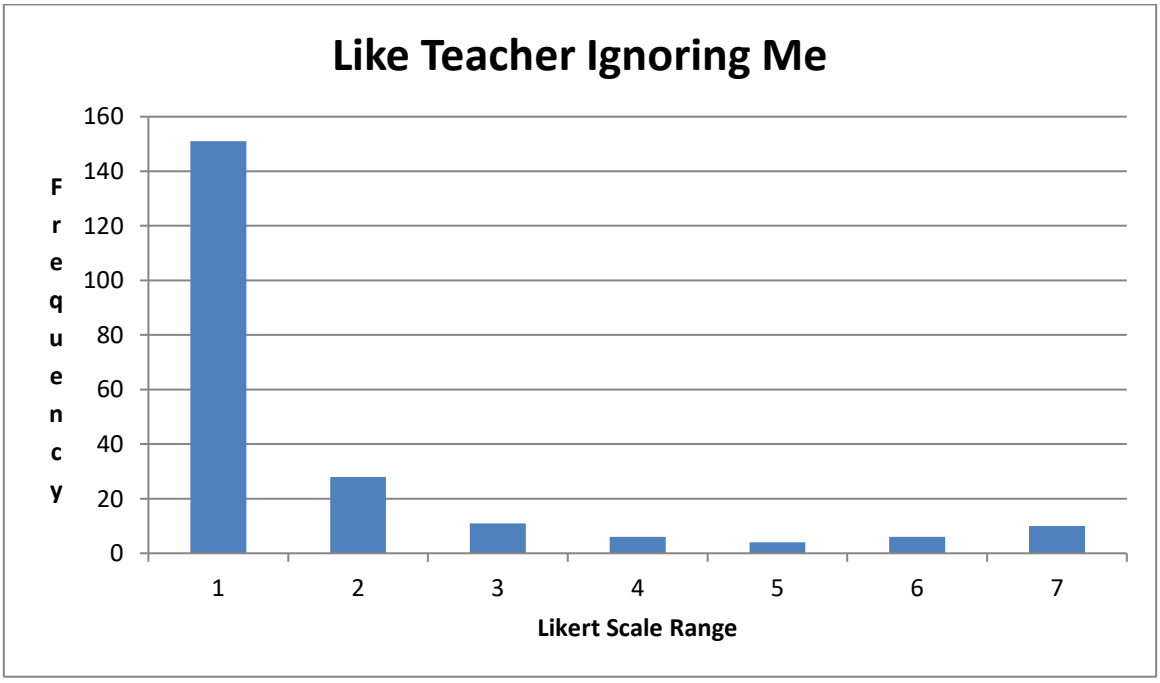
Questions 8, 9 & 10 represent respondents' responses where they tend to think they would like explicit (69.9%), implicit (52.3%), and ignore (9.3%) as forms of correction conducted by their teachers respectively (Table 4.2.6).

Question 10 attracted 88% of respondents who tend to disagree that they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes. The responses are heavily towards disagree, but there are still 6 (2.8%) of respondents who neither agree nor disagree, and 20 (9.3%) who agree that they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes. Of these respondents 10 (4.6%) strongly agree.

Table 4.2.41 I would like the teacher to ignore my mistakes.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	151	69.9
2	Two	28	13.0
3	Three	11	5.1
4	Four	6	2.8
5	Five	4	1.9
6	Six	6	2.8
7	Seven	10	4.6
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.17 I would like the teacher to ignore my mistakes.

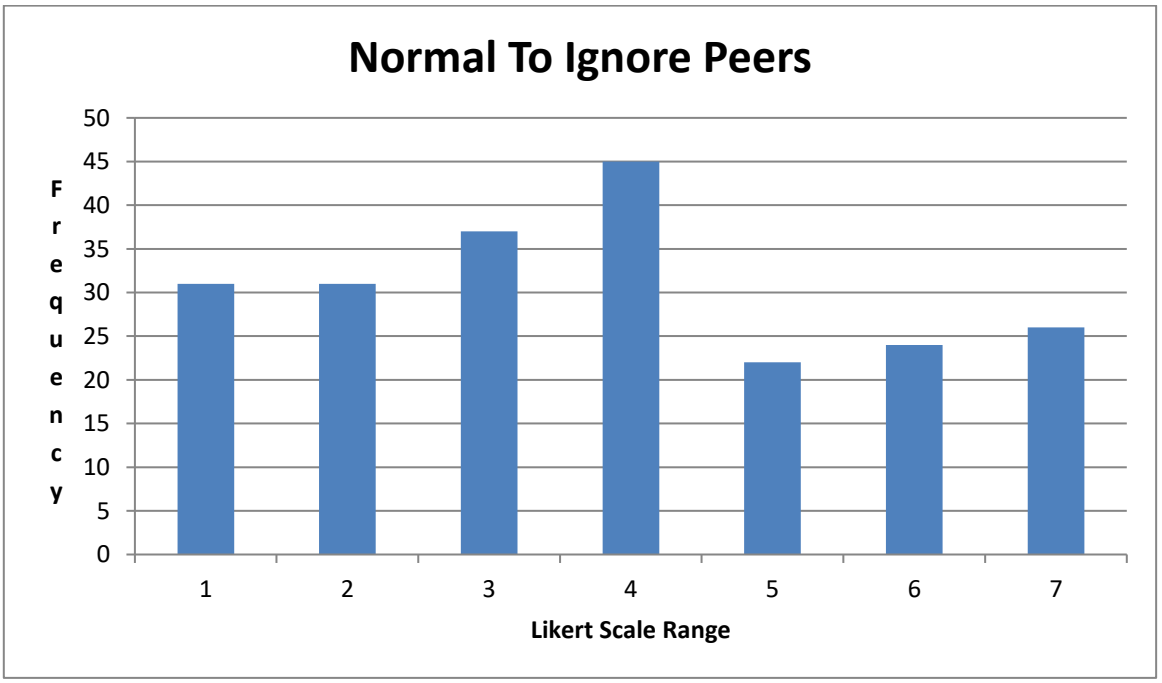


In summary, the majority tend to disagree that they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes (88.0%) and a small minority tend to agree (9.3%) respectively.

Table 4.2.42 Question15: It is normal practice to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	31	14.4
2	Two	31	14.4
3	Three	37	17.1
4	Four	45	20.8
5	Five	22	10.2
6	Six	24	11.1
7	Seven	26	12.0
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.18 Question15: It is normal practice to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

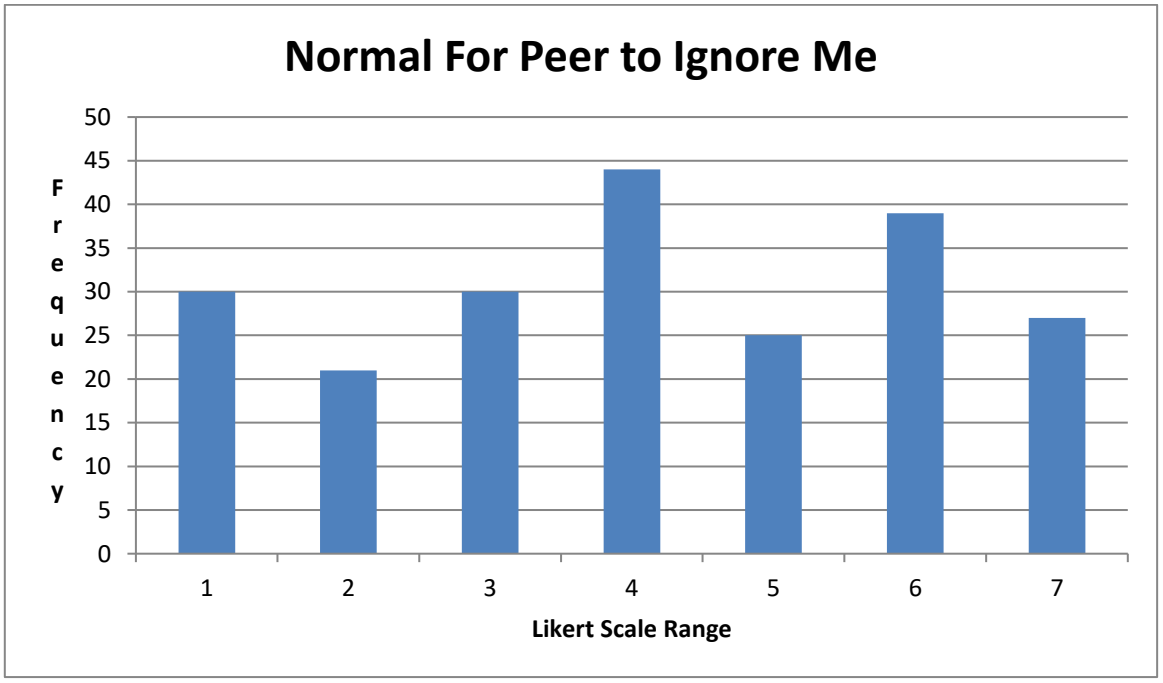


In summary, the majority tend to disagree that it is normal practice to ignore peers' errors (45.9%) and minority tend to agree (33.3%) respectively.

Table 4.2.43 Question 16 It is normal practice for my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	30	13.9
2	Two	21	9.7
3	Three	30	13.9
4	Four	44	20.4
5	Five	25	11.6
6	Six	39	18.1
7	Seven	27	12.5
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.19 Question 16 It is normal practice for my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.



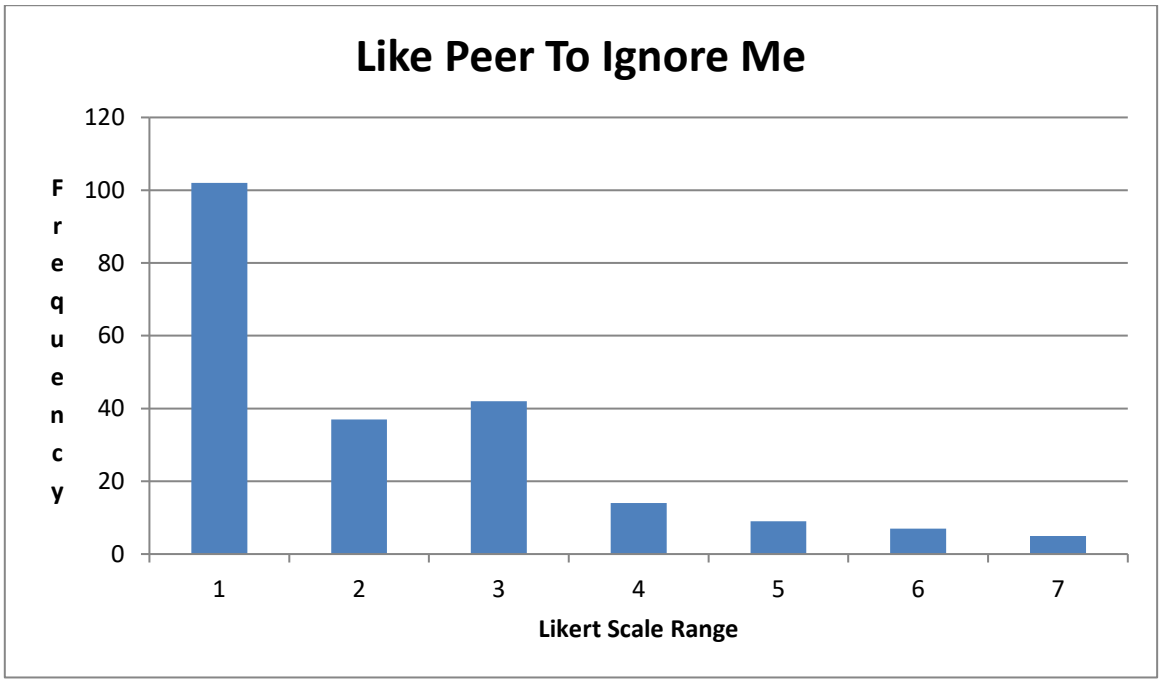
In summary, the majority tend to agree that it is normal practice for peers to ignore their errors (42.2%) and minority tend to agree (37.5%) respectively.

In Table 4.2.44 the spread is over seven points. Respondents (5; 2.3%) agree that they would like peers to ignore their errors, and (14; 6.5%) neither agree nor disagree, whereas (102; 47.2%) disagree.

Table 4.2.44 Question 19: I would like my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	102	47.2
2	Two	37	17.1
3	Three	42	19.4
4	Four	14	6.5
5	Five	9	4.2
6	Six	7	3.2
7	Seven	5	2.3
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.20 Question 19: I would like my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.



In summary, the majority tend to disagree that they would like peers to ignore their errors (83.7%) and minority tend to agree (9.7%) respectively. Respondents who selected 4 and

neither agree nor disagree may prove to be the least affected whatever the occurrence, whereas all others who agree/disagree may be affected if they do not get their preference.

Question 10 respondents show that the majority 190 (88.0%) disagree that they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes (Table 4.2.6). Students who agree (20; 9.3%) are in the minority, but still represent almost one student in ten who would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes.

Surprisingly Questions 15 & 16 show it is normal practice to ignore peers' errors (33.3%) and for peers to ignore (42.2%) reciprocally, which appears high despite (45.9%) and 37.5%) who tend to disagree respectively (Table 4.2.45). Fewer respondents appear to ignore peers' errors (33.3%), but indicate peers appear to ignore their errors more (42.2%).

Table 4.2.45 Peer Interaction.

Question	Disagree	(1+2+3)	(4)	(5+6+7)	Agree	PeerInteraction
15.	31(14.4%)	99(45.9%)	45(20.8%)	72(33.3%)	26(12%)	*NTIPE
16.	30(13.9%)	81(37.5%)	44(20.4%)	91(42.2%)	27(12.5%)	*NTIME
17.	4(1.9%)	21(9.7%)	18(8.3%)	177(82%)	88(40.7%)	*LPTCM
18.	7(3.2%)	41(18.9%)	37(17.1%)	138(63.9%)	57(26.4%)	*HTCP
19.	102(47.2%)	181(83.7%	14(6.5%)	21(9.7%)	5(2.3%)	*LPTIM
20.	66(30.6%)	136(63%)	36(16.7%)	44(20.4%)	20(9.3%)	*HTIP

*See Acronyms, Abbreviations and Terms

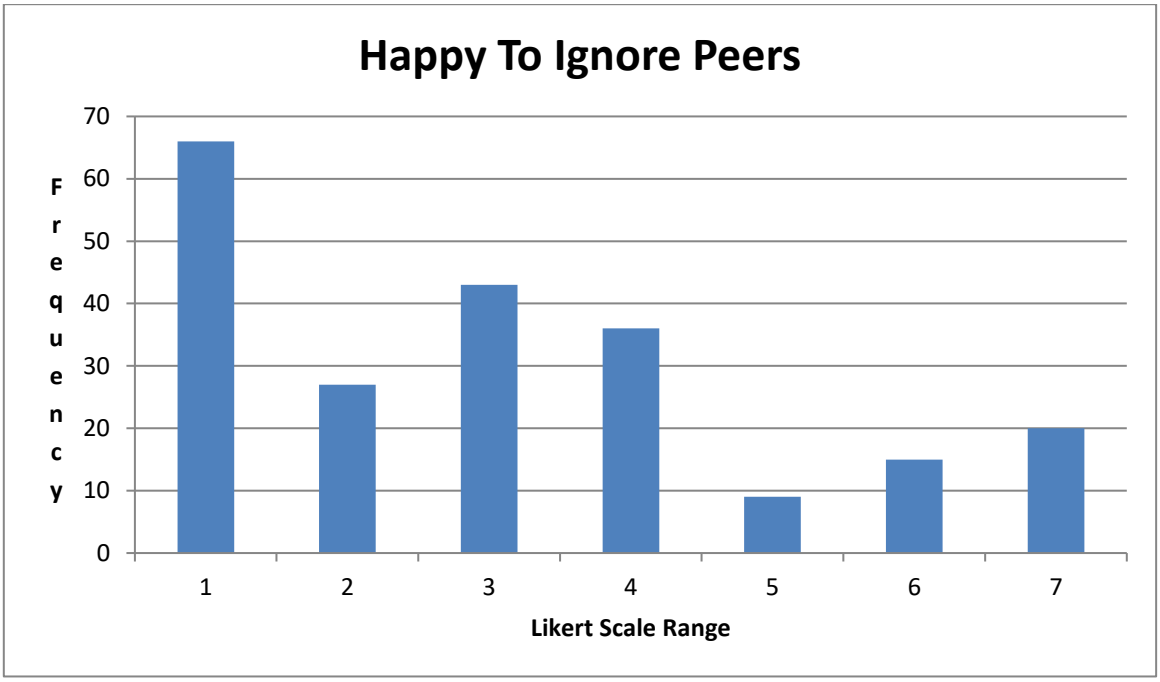
Interestingly a mismatch appears to exist between Questions 17 & 18, where a strong majority of respondents would like peers to correct them (82%) and the students, although happy to correct peers (63.9%), are less inclined to do so by comparison. The tendency experienced in Questions 15 & 16 is followed in Questions 19 & 20 where a minority (9.7%) would like peers to ignore their errors, and (20.4%) are happy to ignore peers' errors respectively. Question 10 indicates 88% of respondents disagree that they would like the teacher to ignore their errors, and 9.3% agree they would. So, 88% would not like errors to be ignored by the teacher. Similarly, Questions 15, 17, &19 show 45.9% agree it is not normal

practice to ignore peer errors, 82% would like peer error correction, & 83.7% would not like peers to ignore their errors. Interestingly, Question 10 shows 9.3% would like the teacher to ignore their errors. Similarly, Questions 15, 17, & 19 show 33.3% agree it is normal practice to ignore peer errors, 9.7% would not like peer error correction, and 9.7% would like peers to ignore their errors. Question 16, 18, & 20 responses show it is not normal practice for peers to ignore my errors (45.9%), happy to correct peers' errors (63.9%), not happy to ignore peers' errors (63%). However, it appears normal practice for peers to ignore my errors (42.2%), not happy to correct peers' errors (18.9%), and happy to ignore peers' errors (20.4%).

Table 4.2.46 Question 20: I am happy to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	66	30.6
2	Two	27	12.5
3	Three	43	19.9
4	Four	36	16.7
5	Five	9	4.2
6	Six	15	6.9
7	Seven	20	9.3
	Total	216	100.0

Chart 4.2.21 Question 20: I am happy to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.



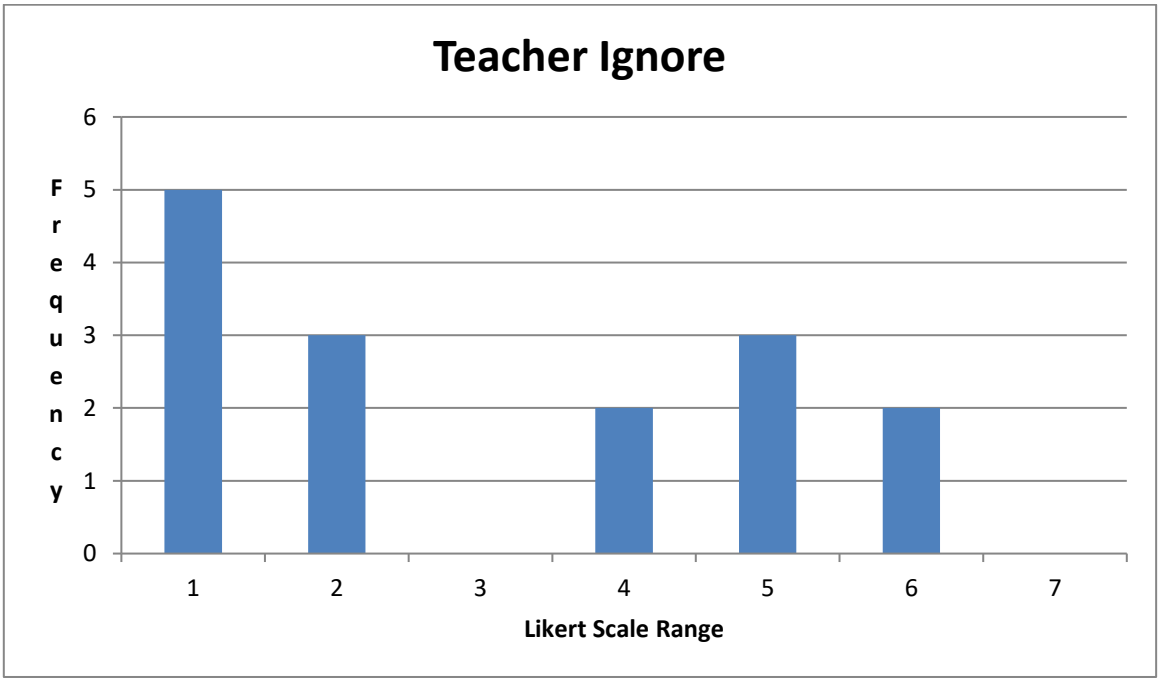
In summary, the majority tend to disagree that they are happy to ignore their peers' errors (63%) and minority tend to agree (20.4%).

Responses from 15 teachers show the spread is over five points of the seven available points (Table 4.2.47).

Table 4.2 47 I often ignore students' mistakes.

Likert Scale	Scale Number	Frequency	%
1	One	5	33.3
2	Two	3	20.0
3	Three	0	0.0
4	Four	2	13.3
5	Five	3	20.0
6	Six	2	13.3
7	Seven	0	0.0
	Total	15	100.0

Chart 4.2.22 I often ignore students' mistakes.



In summary, the majority tend to disagree that they often ignore their students' errors (8; 53.3%) and minority tend to agree (5; 33.3%) respectively. Respondents who selected 4 and neither agree nor disagree may prove to be the least affected whatever the occurrence, whereas all others who agree/disagree may be affected if they do not get their preference!

Interview responses:

Question 11. How often are errors ignored during peer interaction? All three interviewees report that the method is common, and the Chinese male considers the practice very, very common. The Italian male confirms that the errors are noticed, but ignored out of politeness. He further admits peer correction is limited even if the teacher instructs the students to do so.

The Chinese male tends to follow the teacher's line of fluency over accuracy as well as being due to time consideration. Both the Chinese male and Arabic female note it is also common for errors to be ignored during classroom interaction.

Question 12. Do you think peer correction has any impact on the motivation of peers during peer interaction? All three interviewees concur peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction, but remain happy to be corrected by others. The Chinese male feels uncomfortable for a short time, hesitant and unwilling to peer correct and concurs with the Italian male that it remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice. The Arabic female says peer correction should be helpful, which infers that it is negative or avoided in practice, but would be good if the practice was accepted and reinforced.

Perception of Ignoring during PI

Many occasions exist where errors or corrections are simply missed, but may also be noticed and ignored on purpose as a matter of principal or to satisfy strategies such as adherence to fluency rather than accuracy requirements at a particular stage of language learning. The Chinese interviewee accepts the teacher's line of fluency over accuracy and time limitations, which support reasons for ignoring. Table 4.2.47 indicates the majority of 15 teachers do not often ignore their students' errors (8; 53.3%) and a minority do (5; 33.3%) respectively, which highlights the fact that all teachers ignore student errors, but at different frequencies up to a minority who do it often.

Other research established ignoring errors and corrections does occur depending on the situation for any number of reasons such as during a lesson mid-flow, time-restriction, and relevance, but traditionally from a teaching perspective. One view is that correction of some or all errors would be too time-consuming, distracting, and affect the overall lesson plan, but also opportunities to revisit problems at an appropriate time may occur.

Classroom observation research shows students failed to respond to situations where correction was possible and met with silence or failed to respond correctly post-correction by others, which was evidently unsuccessful (Table 4.2.40). The occurrence of Ignore corrections from all ten classes was a surprisingly large 1034 (81.8%) out of a total of 1264 corrections, which when sub-divided into PI and TI, the results were 662 (64.0%) and 372 (36.0%) respectively. Ignoring corrections occurred at a surprisingly large 81.8% of which almost double the rate occurred during PI compared to TI, and as established earlier the majority of teachers do not ignore student error often. The large majority of questionnaire respondents would not like the teacher to ignore their mistakes, which is supported by those who would like explicit more than implicit forms of correction conducted by their teachers respectively (Table 4.2.6). So, during TI, errors and corrections are ignored by teachers, but not often in the majority, which is considered an appropriate and established practice, while most students prefer teacher correction because they do not want to be ignored. Interviewee opinion is such that the method of ignoring during both TI and PI is common, where errors may be noticed, but ignored out of politeness or some form of strategy, or peer correction is limited or avoided despite teacher instruction to the contrary.

In terms of PI students appear to follow the trend of a majority preference for being corrected over correcting others and being happy about it, but not ignoring others established during traditional TI practice mentioned above (Table 4.2.45).

Similarly, the majority indicated that they would not like peers to ignore their errors and that it is not normal practice to ignore peers' errors either, which is offset by a slight majority feeling that it is normal practice for peers to ignore their errors (Table 4.2.45).

Although in the minority, some respondents agreed that they would like the teacher or peers to ignore their mistakes and it is normal practice for peers to do just that, and vice versa

(Table 4.2.45). Furthermore, some students are happy to ignore and not correct peers' errors, and would not like peers to correct them either (Table 4.2.45).

Interviewee opinions indicate that peer correction has a negative impact on motivation during peer interaction because of transfer of responsibility issues and although happy to be corrected by others as in a teacher-student scenario, they have difficulty with the notion of correcting others. This leads to peer correction being seen as negative and avoided in practice instead of being accepted and reinforced as in teacher correction. As mentioned in the literature review ignoring can occur when one or more factors are missing from the correction process which depends on identification, focus on, and priority of errors (Hockett, 1948; Miller, 1966; Boomer & Laver, 1968; Corder, 1981; Edge, 1989; Harmer, 2007).

Ignoring errors or situations where errors remain unnoticed or untreated suggests parameters exist for allowing error. It appears that errors are overlooked or missed as long as interpretation remains unaffected (Boomer & Laver, 1968), adverse effects are not experienced, or delays in getting to the conclusion are not experienced (Rost, 2013). More specifically, ignoring form and linguistic error is deemed appropriate teacher behaviour during error treatment according to research carried out in the Bangalore Project (Alderson & Berretta, 1992; Chaudron, 1977). Harmer (2007) mentions ignoring developmental errors as a correction method set aside from overt or covert correction. In terms of corrective feedback errors made outside lesson objectives and errors conforming to views of initial instruction are ignored (De Luque & Sommer, 2000).

In connected speech many forms fail to be identified or recognised in part or entirely due to a lack of or reduction of prominence compared to other forms that suffer in favour of meaning-bearing content words. Numerous weak forms are caused by vowel quality, phoneme loss, lack of stress, short duration, and regional variation, which facilitate reduction in prominence

where they can be missed or ignored, and despite being common, should be taught as the rule rather than incorrectly as the exception (Gimson, 1994). Field's (2008) research shows learners have greater difficulty identifying function words accurately than content words regardless of L1 phonology they are used to and suggests learning can only be achieved by systematic and targeted practice in recognising examples in speech.

From a cognitive psychology perspective value exists through ongoing repetition and restructuring information and ideas (Wittrock, 1974). Evidence gleaned from groups of primary maths students shows greater success from asking and receiving assistance and explanations from groupmates than was the case when requests were ignored and responses given devoid of explanation (Webb, 1989). Both receivers and presenters benefited from explanations suggesting the level playing field notion of similar levels of understanding and appreciation of the work at hand shared by like-minds works better than with an all-knowing teacher (Webb & Farivar, 1994).

Other research identifies teacher correction as the ultimate model, which is preferred by most students as supported by interviewee opinion in that transfer of knowledge, experience and authority necessary for the role that makes it a teacher's duty and responsibility to succeed may not be achieved by peers. Despite passing over authority to peer interact and correct the situation is met with uncertainty, silence, and an unwillingness to emulate the teacher in correcting, which may be seen as ignoring, however being the recipient of correction is easier to accept, and is preferred. Ignoring during PI is seen as more common than TI and supported by the majority 662 (64%) of observed ignore corrections committed during PI. Students feel more peers ignore their errors than they ignore peer errors, although the majority do not want peers to ignore their errors and fewer do not want to ignore peer errors.

4.4 Part 3 Progress

Question 3.a

How do errors and corrections relate to progress in language learning?

There were 59 students in total who were observed in a classroom environment, completed a questionnaire with start grades provided in the personal information block, and whose exit grades were made available.

Students are permitted to start pre-sessional courses with a minimum IELTS 5.5 grade. For guidance purposes only, each 4-week course is equivalent to an IELTS 0.5 grade improvement, but is no guarantee of success. The successful completion of pre-sessional courses requires a B grade or higher, which meets the minimum university requirement of IELTS 6.5, with no part under IELTS 6.0.

Taking a B grade as an IELTS 6.5 equivalent grade a range of IELTS equivalent exit grades between 4.5 and 7.5 has been estimated (Table 4.3.1).

Table 4.3.1 Pre-Sessional Course IELTS Entry and Equivalent Exit Grades.

Item	Course Grade	IELTS Entry Grade	IELTS Equivalent Exit Grade
1	A	7.5	7.5
2	A-		7.25
3	B++	7.0	7.0
4	B+		6.75
5	B	6.5	6.5
6	B-		6.25
7	C+		5.75
8	C	5.5	5.5
9	D	4.5	4.5

The IELTS entry grades were compared to the IELTS equivalent exit grades and initially allocated to three Progress categories: Positive, Same, and Negative. Table 4.3.2 shows students' progress as Positive (5, 8.5%); Same (10, 17.0%); and Negative (44, 74.6%) out of a total number of students (59). According to these results 58 (98.3%) students were able to

enrol in their respective university programmes based on initial IELTS grades despite poor results attained by the Negative Progress category students (44, 74.6%) in the pre-sessional course. Only Student 25 (1.7%) in Group 2 failed to achieve the minimum university entrance requirement with an IELTS 6.0 grade on entry to the pre-sessional course and an equivalent completion grade of the same (6.0).

The number of students belonging to Positive (5), Same (10), and Negative (44) Progress categories did not meet cell requirements and may have affected the statistical power of statistical testing (Table 4.3.2).

Table 4.3.2 Pre-Sessional Course Progress.

Progress	Number of Students	(%)
Positive	5	8.5
Same	10	16.9
Negative	44	74.6
Total	59	100.0

In order to simplify categorical data and comply with the Chi square test assumptions, the three Progress categories were reduced to two Progress categories and identified simply as Improved/Same (I/S) and Worse (W), which attracted 15 (25.4%) and 44 (74.6%) students respectively.

Progress and Factors Analysis.

A X^2 Test between L1 Cat, Level Cat, Years Cat, Age Cat, Sex Cat, and two Progress Categories (Improved and Same; and Worse) was carried out, which identified one variable of significance out of a total of five variables.

A total of 59 students were observed in six pre-sessional classes who were identified individually for making errors.

The data represented in Tables 4.3.3 and 4.3.4 below summarise significance levels, but do not show where the differences lie, or how strong the relationship between variables is.

Table 4.3.3 Significant Values of Factors and Progress Categories.

Factor Type	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	p
L1 Cat	6.237	2	.072
Level Cat	39.222	1	.000**
Years Cat	.004	1	1.000
Age Cat	3.796	1	.064
Sex Cat	.001	1	1.000

** p<.01 * p<.05

Only one of the Factor types (Level Cat) is significantly different.

Table 4.3.4 presents the cross-tabulation data of attainment levels 6.0-6.5 and 7.0-7.5, and progress categories Improved/Same and Worse.

Table 4.3.4 Level Cat and Progress Categories Cross-tabulation.

Factor Type	Frequency	Progress Categories				Total	%
		I/S	%	W	%		
Level Cat	6.0-6.5	15	100.0	5	11.4	20	33.9
	7.0-7.5	0	0.0	39	88.6	39	66.1
Total		15		44		59	

The table showed that 6.0-6.5 Level students were more likely to experience Improved/Same progress than 7.0-7.5 students. Conversely 7.0-7.5 Level students were more likely to experience Worse progress than 6.0-6.5 Level students.

The I/S/7.0-7.5 cell has 0 cases, but the W/7.0-7.5 group has 39 total cases. We would expect 66.1% to be in the cell, which is 9.9. This is more than 5.

Language Learning Errors, Corrections and Progress

Errors have been identified as areas of incorrectness, which are considered by some researchers as an indication of acquisition, learning, and progress, and are often dealt with through a process of correction and consolidated within feedback in terms of progress (Ellis; Bley-Vroman, 1983). Progress refers to any increase in intake or learned input whether good or bad at any level in the learning process, however it is the refined product that is sought through a process of more formal testing and reflected in subsequent grades over time. Unfortunately, the process of learning and subsequent testing has resulted in course and test-induced errors making the process a paradoxical cycle.

A good predictor of language learning success was identified in terms of language aptitude as a concept related to ability or intelligence where L2 and L1 learners individual-difference variation in school performance were noticeably different from eachother by as much as 25% (Sternberg, 2002; Dörnyei, 2006; Carroll & Sapon, 1959; Ellis, 2001; Robinson, 2003; Pimsleur, 1966; Carroll, 1981; Parry & Stansfield, 1990; Carroll, 1990; Dörnyei, 2005; Skehan, 2002; Sparks & Ganschow, 2001; Spolsky, 1995). Major research conducted by Hattie (1999) into effective post-task feedback and achievement, and student's prior cognitive ability identified effect sizes of 0.79 and 0.71 respectively.

However, progress needs to be expressed as some form of production, which can be spoken and/or written to function as communication (Meisel et al, 1981; Mackay, 1990). In the classroom environment identified errors during production and formative assessment may be corrected accordingly in terms of feedback highlighting progress (Harrison, 1983). Harmer (2007) pointed out that secure test production and management was vital if acceptable

standards were to be met and to establish the acceptable level of progress such as in summative assessment (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Douglas, 2001; White, Spada, Lightbown & Ranta, 1991; Lyster, 2004; Doughty, 2003; Black & Wiliam, 1996; Ellis, 2008; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Doughty & Varela, 1998). Despite one view that all testing is the teacher's responsibility, or should be, independent summative assessment satisfies the required high standards. IELTS provided the benchmark testing system selected for this research based on globally recognised and acceptable standards and levels of progress in line with learning and teaching and the opportunity for useful feedback subject to enrolment in further courses.

Grades are firmly ensconced as expected minimal post-test feedback that do reflect merit in terms of what is answered correctly against errors committed at the time. Ultimately the reduction or eradication of errors will most certainly be reflected in ever higher production performance or test grades, the improved results of which indicate improvement and progress. The negative effects of grades emphasise product with a focus on comparing and ranking learners, and reflect ability and self-worth in society at the expense of learning according to Dörnyei (2001).

In this study a limited total of 59 students were observed in a classroom environment, subsequently provided start grades, and exit grades post course assessment. The start grades were IELTS or related by equivalence (Table 4.3.1). The exit grades were also expressed in terms of IELTS equivalence.

The difference between level and progress categories was very significant and showed that 6.0-6.5 level students were much more likely to experience improved progress or maintain the same level than 7.0-7.5 level students.

Similarly, Fuchs (1997) found that improved Formative Assessment and feedback promoted better achievement and learning particularly among low achievers and disabled students, but

it should be pointed out that higher levels or achievers also achieved success, just less so overall. A likely hypothesis is that progress is a potential constant, however the higher the level, the more relative success will diminish and result in ever smaller gains.
Black & Wiliam (1998) showed that gains in learning were generally strengthening Formative Assessment and Hattie (1999) identified effective post-task feedback and achievement resulted in a much higher than average effect size.

According to Ashford & Cummings (1983) students were comfortable with feedback and pointed out that error correction in the classroom was most effective when confidence was high and more effort and study was required to resolve the problem, and lead to learning, but not necessarily affecting performance.

The combination of challenges, including tests with subsequent extensive feedback led to improved learner engagement and achievement, which supports factors such as high confidence, effort, and incidence in study is necessary to progress (Black & Wiliam, 1998).

More particularly, both immediate and delayed feedback are beneficial, the former being more expedient at process level during accuracy (Kulik & Kulik, 1988; Schroth & Lund, 1993; Swindell & Walls, 1993; Clariana, Wagner & Murphy, 2000).

Research reviews of 574 publications involving classroom assessment suggests proficiency as score adequacy reflects a practice in rote learning and recall of random and superficial information (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Crooks, 1988). Effectiveness necessitates feedback to be clear, purposeful, meaningful, aligned with prior knowledge, make logical connections, aimed at the appropriate level, and allow for learning from mistakes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Hattie (1999) identified effective post-task feedback and achievement resulted in a higher-than-average effect size and highlighted direct instruction as even higher still. In other research conducted by Deci & Ryan (1985) the most effective forms of feedback included media-assisted instruction. Feedback, teaching, learning, and assessment are often viewed by students as the teacher's responsibility. Errors and disconfirmation are most useful when perceived to lead to further learning and include processing and regulation in a positive classroom environment, and peer climate. Kluger & DeNisi (1996) identified feedback was also found to be more effective tackling correct rather than incorrect responses in a positive direction. In other research conducted by Deci & Ryan (1985) the most effective forms of feedback included cues and reinforcement to learners.

According to Howie, Sy, Ford, & Vicente (2000) poor presentation or lack of information value in feedback contributed to learners failing to benefit, which is supported by research conducted by Bond (2000), who reported the frequency of classroom feedback among 65 teachers as low, and mostly praise. Deci & Ryan (1985) identified extrinsic rewards appeared to negatively correlate to performance and achievement, which is also supported by Bond's research.

In other research conducted by Deci & Ryan (1985) the most effective forms of feedback included goal-related items, which was taken further by Kluger & DeNisi (1996) who concur that feedback appeared more effective in terms of tackling specific and challenging goals, but more specifically involving those of low task complexity, and a lesser perceived low-level threat to self-esteem.

Many researchers agree that learning gains are not necessarily made as a result of improved test performance or grades (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Crooks, 1988; Page, 1958; Butler, 1988). Generally, feedback at its most effective can lead to learning, but without necessarily

affecting performance (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). The research suggests there is not necessarily a link between performance, test scores, feedback, and learning, whereby the gap in the process of development and learning may be highlighted by the need to raise standards through classroom assessment (Black and Wiliam, 1998).

However, much research evidence shows how difficult it is to introduce effective formative assessment into classroom practice (Andrews 1987, 1988; Torrance 1991; Pole 1993; Fairbrother 1995; Black & Wiliam, 1996).

Problems exist where assessments are required to serve both Formative and Summative functions particularly where teachers are restricted to formative function activities and external agencies undertaking Summative Assessment (Hatch & Brown, 1995). Any alternatives equate to possible, but heavy work and would ultimately encourage backwash (Black & Wiliam, 1996).

Errors have been identified in terms of progress or development as advancement in a language area, where before there was none, and more importantly as an indication of learning. Resulting improvement from the subsequent correction of errors is also progress and further evidence of learning. Feedback research identified all feedback as beneficial, immediate more so in terms of process and classroom activity level, and delayed in a limited post-task and test scenario, and when dealing with fluency correction respectively. Assessment is made in terms of classroom formative and external summative testing, the former accepted as the teachers' domain and based on the teachers' knowledge and useable feedback, and the latter the somewhat more detached external agency-controlled examination process focused on statistical data and grade descriptions. Summative assessment fails to support the role of feedback, which potentially creates stress for all concerned, although students are treated equally with the same opportunity to succeed and display success in

terms of standardised and accepted grades regardless of how different or detached the process is. The errors made may be increased due to the summative process, and are marked, but not corrected.

Grades are sometimes viewed negatively because they determine and affect ability and self-worth by emphasising product, comparing and ranking learners. Ultimately fewer errors will result in better performance or test grades, the improved results of which will reflect improvement and progress in both events.

The difference between level and progress categories was very significant and showed that 6.0-6.5 level students were more likely to experience improved progress or maintain the same level than 7.0-7.5 level students, and all but one were successful. Similarly, Fuchs (1997) identified improved Formative Assessment and feedback promoted better achievement and learning particularly among low achievers and disabled students. It appears likely that the higher the level, the more difficult it will become to make relative gains.

Progress in terms of language learning success has been identified through the relationship between effective feedback, whether immediate or delayed, and achievement, but with varying forms of success dependent upon certain individual differences. Effectiveness necessitates feedback to satisfy certain conditions, achieve objectives of low complexity and unthreatening to self-esteem, and allow for learning from mistakes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Limitations exist where learning gains are not necessarily made as a result of corrections, improved test performance, or grades. Immediate feedback during fluency identified acquisition and process were affected negatively. Proficiency linked to score adequacy reflects a practice in rote learning and recall of random and superficial information, which could be exacerbated by teachers and backwash effect (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Crooks, 1988).

Formative assessment allows for errors to be identified and corrected by a teacher with a view to improve learning in an ongoing capacity. In terms of summative assessment negative effects such as detachment from the process exist to disassociate teachers from backwash effect, maintain acceptable standards, and signal the end of the course of learning without the expectation of feedback.

Students at lower levels may know more than reflected in test performance, and students at higher levels may have been lucky in former assessment, but unable to deal with new material and increased difficulty at the same rate.

Question 3.b

To what extent do errors and corrections in the classroom affect second language learning outcomes?

In Table 4.2.1 and Chart 4.2.1 the student responses from survey Question 11 identify their comfort level when corrected by the teacher, which is spread over seven points. In summary, the majority tend to agree that they are comfortable when the teacher corrects them (64.3%) and minority tend to disagree (20.9%) respectively.

Table 4.2.2 and Chart 4.2.2 present data from Question 12, which identify how many students feel they must try harder when the teacher corrects them. The spread is over seven points. In summary, the clear majority tend to agree that they feel they must try harder when the teacher corrects them (77.3%) and minority tend to disagree (11.6%). Respondents who selected 4 and neither agree nor disagree may prove to be the least affected whatever the occurrence, whereas all others who agree/disagree may be affected if they do not get their preference.

Table 4.2.3 and Chart 4.2.3 show the responses for Question 13 and identify the frequency of students that feel comfortable when corrected by a peer. In summary, the majority tend to agree that they feel comfortable when peers correct them (67.6%) and minority tend to disagree (17.1%) respectively.

The responses for Question 14 in Table 4.2.4 and Chart 4.2.4 identify the number of students who feel they must try harder when corrected by a peer. The spread is over seven points. In summary, the majority tend to agree that they feel they must try harder when their peer corrects them (74%) and minority tend to disagree (17.1%).

Questions 12 and 14, and 13 and 11 cover self-concept issues and represent respondents who tend to feel they must try harder when their teacher (77.3%) and peer (74.0%) correct them, and feel comfortable when their peer (67.6%) and teacher (64.3%) correct them respectively (Table 4.2.5).

The state of being comfortable during the correction process in terms of teacher or peers may be the result of positive or negative motivation and a reflection of self-concept level in a given situation. Both tallies indicate a lower percentage of respondents who think they are comfortable compared to those who think they try harder as a result of correction. The motivation to try harder appears to be stronger regardless of feelings of comfort.

Teachers' data shows lower percentages for questions 11 to 14 compared to the student responses with regard to themselves, but indicate the majority of students in each case agree and follow the same trend. According to teachers the majority of students appear to feel comfortable and must try harder whenever they are being corrected. There is an increase in percentages during peer interaction with trying harder being more important in both cases than feeling comfortable.

Table 4.2.10 and Chart 4.2.7 show teacher responses for Question 11 and identify the frequency of students that they think feel comfortable when corrected. In summary, the majority of teachers tend to agree that students appear to feel comfortable whenever they are being corrected (40%) and a minority tend to disagree (13.4%).

Table 4.2.11 and Chart 4.2.8 show teacher responses for Question 12 and identify the number of students who appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected. In summary, the majority tend to agree that students appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected (46.7%) and a minority tend to disagree (26.7%) respectively

Table 4.2.12 and Chart 4.2.9 show teacher responses for Question 13 and identify the number of students who appear to feel comfortable whenever they correct one another. In summary, the majority of teachers tend to agree that pair-work partners appear to feel comfortable whenever they correct one another (53.3%) and a minority tend to disagree (13.3%).

Table 4.2.13 and Chart 4.2.10 show teacher responses for Question 14 and identify the number of students who appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected by one another. In summary, the majority tend to agree that pair-work partners appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected by one another (60.0%) and a minority tend to disagree (13.4%) respectively.

Questions 8, 9 & 10 represent respondent's responses where they tend to think they would like explicit (69.9%), implicit (52.3%), and ignore (9.3%) as forms of correction conducted by their teachers respectively (Table 4.2.6).

Question 10 attracted 88% of respondents who tend to disagree that they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes. Respondents appear to want explicit teacher correction significantly more than implicit teacher correction, which is also high, but do not appear to

want the teacher to ignore their errors. Question 10 identifies 9.3% respondents who agree they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes, whereas Question 11 shows 20.9% of respondents disagree they feel comfortable when corrected by the teacher.

Interview Question 3: Is there any one correction method which you consider most beneficial to improving actual learning in the long term?

All three interviewees agree Direct (explicit) correction is considered the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term.

Question 12: Do you think peer correction has any impact on the motivation of peers during peer interaction?

All three interviewees concur that peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction, but they remain happy to be corrected by others. The Chinese male feels uncomfortable for a short time, hesitant and unwilling to peer correct and concurs with the Italian male that it remains the teacher's domain and accepted practice. The Arabic female says peer correction should be helpful, which infers that it is negative or avoided in practice, but would be good if the practice was accepted and reinforced.

Errors, Corrections and Learning Outcomes

Now that we have established how errors and corrections relate to progress in learning (5.4.1), it is time to identify to what extent they affect second language learning outcomes. Questionnaire data provided this study with insight into motivational and self-concept issues in terms of being corrected by teachers and peers in a classroom environment and to what extent they affect second language learning outcomes. Enquiries were made into whether students feel PI and TI correction makes them comfortable and try harder as a result. Other questions identified student and teacher's opinion on correction preferences between explicit,

implicit and ignore forms of correction. Similar questions were also answered by teachers with regard to their opinion about the same. Classroom observation was also conducted in order to confirm both student and teacher responses. Finally interview data was gleaned from students to further confirm and triangulate data in terms of common practice, which correction type is considered the most beneficial to improving learning in the long term, and which has a negative impact on learning.

Responses to four questions identified a majority of respondents who tend to feel they must try harder when their teacher (167; 77.3%) and peer (160; 74%) correct them, and feel comfortable when their peer (146; 67.6%) and teacher (139; 64.3%) correct them respectively (Table 4.2.5). The majority of students responded that they feel comfortable being corrected by both teachers and peers, and a slightly higher proportion of students admitted they feel they must try harder whenever they are corrected by both teachers and peers, which suggests a desire to succeed and increase or maintain self-concept overrides feeling comfortable although all figures are relatively high.

The state of being comfortable during the correction process may be the result of positive or negative motivation and a reflection of self-concept level in a given situation. Both indicate a lower percentage of respondents who think they are comfortable compared to increased figures who think they try harder as a result of correction. The motivation to try harder appears to be strong regardless of feeling comfortable or not. The need to succeed is fostered by or fosters self-concept and motivation. The perception of correction highlights a high level of acceptance, and despite feelings in respect of being comfortable or not albeit reflecting the level of acceptance, the desired effect is to try harder. The research showed that students were comfortable being corrected overall, but slightly more comfortable being corrected by a peer (67.6%) than the teacher (64.3%). However, at an increased level students try harder when

corrected overall, but slightly more students feel they must try harder when corrected by a teacher (77.3%) than a peer (74%).

Interview research revealed that peer correction has a negative impact during peer interaction because correction is the reserve of teacher's responsibility and more formally expected path to success. To reiterate students are more likely to be corrected than to correct others because it goes against the known and expected process. However, observation data identified students were outwardly engaged, focused, and actively participating in tasks during both PI and TI throughout.

This research supported earlier findings by Ashford & Cummings (1983) who found that students were comfortable with feedback, and error correction in the classroom was most effective when confidence was high, and students tried harder, and did more work to succeed. Additionally, Black & Wiliam (1998) pointed out challenges such as tests with subsequent extensive feedback led to improved learner engagement and achievement. Improved learner engagement covers many positive factors which include interest, understanding, enjoyment, motivation, ability, acceptance, but it also reflects trying harder.

Teachers' data showed lower percentages for similar questions compared to the student responses with regard to themselves, but indicate that the majority of students in each case agreed and followed the same trend. According to teachers the majority of students appear to feel comfortable and must try harder whenever they are being corrected, which showed an increase in percentages during peer interaction with trying harder being more important in both cases than feeling comfortable. The teachers' data also appears to corroborate findings by Ashford & Cummings (1983).

To summarise the results respondents tend to feel comfortable when their teacher and peer correct them respectively, a trend which is supported by relatively lower Teacher data percentages represented by teacher and peer correction respectively. Both teacher and student

data highlight the fact that students feel more comfortable being corrected by peers than teachers.

Students feel they must try harder when their teacher corrects them slightly more than when peers do the correcting, a trend which is reversed in teacher's opinion about students. However, both student and teacher data highlighted students try harder as a result of peer correction.

The effect of feedback as a result of research from 54 studies reflects beneficial outcomes both immediate at process level involving classroom activities (0.28), and delayed at task level involving testing (0.36) (Kulik & Kulik, 1988; Schroth & Lund, 1993; Swindell & Walls, 1993; Clariana, Wagner & Murphy, 2000). Effectiveness necessitates feedback to satisfy conditions such as being aimed at the appropriate level, and allowing for learning from mistakes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Feedback, teaching, learning, and assessment are often viewed by students and in this study as the teacher's responsibility. Hattie (1999) indicated direct instruction provides the catalyst for effective post-task feedback and achievement, whereas Deci & Ryan (1985) identified media-assisted instruction as one of the most effective forms of feedback. Errors and disconfirmation are most useful when perceived to lead to further learning and include processing and regulation in a positive classroom environment and peer climate. Kluger & DeNisi (1996) identified feedback as more effective when dealing with correct responses and Deci & Ryan (1985) identified cues and reinforcement as the most effective forms, which supports the generally accepted teaching methodology for the majority of work that is correct in learning. The least effective scenario for learning practices has been researched where scores or grades equate to proficiency (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Crooks, 1988).

Questionnaire data identified respondents have a clear preference for explicit correction, which according to interviewees is considered the most beneficial to improving learning in

the long term. Far more students indicated they do not want to be ignored and want some form of correction; explicit is preferred slightly more than implicit correction.

Despite this a surprising number of respondents agreed they would like the teacher to ignore their mistakes and do not feel comfortable when corrected by the teacher. Similarly, this observation extends to a number of respondents who do not feel comfortable and do not try harder when corrected by peers.

Much research has determined feedback whether immediate or delayed during classroom or test activities is beneficial to learning, but remains subject to satisfying certain conditions, particularly allowing for learning from mistakes (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). A different form of learning takes place where in classroom assessment proficiency is a sign of achievement based on scores, but results from rote learning, memorisation, and backwash. Feedback, teaching, learning, and assessment are often viewed by students as the teacher's responsibility with direct and media-assisted instruction as most effective (Hattie, 1999; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Furthermore, errors and disconfirmation are most useful when perceived to lead to further learning and goal-oriented.

Question 3.b.i

What is the relationship between type and frequency of speaking errors during adult student/teacher interaction and test/grade gains?

Errors/Progress Analysis

A X^2 Test between twelve Teacher Interaction Errors and twelve Peer Interaction Errors, and two Progress Categories (Improved and Same; and Worse) was carried out, which identified three variables of significance out of a total of 24 variables.

A total of 59 students were observed in six pre-sessional classes who were identified individually for making errors.

The data represented in Tables 4.3.5 and 4.3.6 below summarise significance levels, but do not show where the differences lie, or how strong the relationship between variables is.

Table 4.3.5 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Errors and Progress Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	FET (p)
Pronunciation	Teacher	442	.612	1	.593
Wrong Word	Teacher	219	2.277	1	.322
Tense	Teacher	177	.003	1	1.000
Addition	Teacher	971	.000	1	1.000
Omission	Teacher	278	.057	1	1.000
Grammar	Teacher	117	2.477	1	.192
Word Order	Teacher	34	.200	1	.745
Hesitation	Teacher	172	1.372	1	.342
Unfinished	Teacher	21	11.470	1	.002**
Vernacular	Teacher	3	2.836	1	.156
Native/L1	Teacher	17	3.779	1	.073
Meaning	Teacher	36	.393	1	.522

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.3.6 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Errors and Progress Categories.

Error Type	Interaction	Number of Errors	X^2	df	FET (p)
Pronunciation	Peer	185	7.424	1	.012*
Wrong Word	Peer	48	3.889	1	.089
Tense	Peer	110	3.779	1	.073
Addition	Peer	352	1.269	1	.371
Omission	Peer	121	.007	1	1.000
Grammar	Peer	59	6.116	1	.025*
Word Order	Peer	44	1.927	1	.207
Hesitation	Peer	56	2.477	1	.192
Unfinished	Peer	12	6.710	1	.020
Vernacular	Peer	2	.659	1	.447
Native/L1	Peer	120	.270	1	.762
Meaning	Peer	30	5.847	1	.031

** p<.01 * p<.05

Only one Teacher/Student Interaction error type (Unfinished) and two of the Peer Interaction error types (Pronunciation and Grammar) are significantly different out of a total of twelve Teacher/Student Interaction error types and twelve Peer Interaction error types respectively.

Although Peer interaction Unfinished and Peer Interaction Meaning error types are significantly different where p<.05 the cell data fails to conform to requirements for the test and cannot be used as a result (Table 4.3.16).

Significant results from Cross-tabulation of Teacher Interaction/Peer Interaction Errors and Progress Categories are as follows:

1. Table 4.3.7 shows 21 (35.6%) out of a total 59 students made Unfinished errors during Teacher Interaction.

In the Improved/Same (I/S) category 9 (60%) students out of 15 made Unfinished errors during Teacher Interaction.

In the Worse (W) category12 (27.3%) students out of 44 made Unfinished errors during Teacher Interaction.

Table 4.3.7 Teacher Interaction Unfinished Errors and Progress Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Progress Categories				Total	%
		I/S	%	W	%		
Unfinished	0	6	40.0	32	72.7	38	64.4
	1	9	60.0	12	27.3	21	35.6
Total		15		44		59	

A difference was shown between Teacher Interaction Unfinished Errors and Progress Categories, which is significant. (Pearson $X^2 = 11.470$, df = 1, p = .002). It shows that I/S students were more likely to make Teacher Interaction Unfinished Errors than W students.

2. Table 4.3.8 shows 22 (37.3%) out of a total 59 students made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Improved/Same (I/S) category 10 (66.7%) students out of 15 made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Worse (W) category 12 (27.3%) students out of 44 made Pronunciation errors during Peer Interaction.

Students may get better by focussing on trying more rather than by avoiding making errors.

Table 4.3.8 Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors and Progress Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Progress Categories				Total	%
		I/S	%	W	%		
Pronunciation	0	5	33.3	32	72.7	37	62.7
	1	10	66.7	12	27.3	22	37.3
Total		15		44		59	

A difference was shown between Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors and Progress Categories, which is significant. (Pearson $X^2 = 7.424$, df = 1, p = .012). This was a significant result ($p<.05$) and showed that I/S students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors than W students.

3. Table 4.3.9 shows 20 (33.9%) out of a total 59 students made Grammar errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Improved/Same (I/S) category 9 (60.0%) students out of 15 made Grammar errors during Peer Interaction.

In the Worse (W) category 11 (25.0%) students out of 44 made Grammar errors during Peer Interaction.

Students may get better by focussing on trying more rather than by avoiding making errors.

Table 4.3.9 Peer Interaction Grammar Errors and Progress Categories Cross-tabulation.

Error Type	Frequency	Progress Categories				Total	%
		I/S	%	W	%		
Grammar	0	6	40.0	33	75.0	39	66.1
	1	9	60.0	11	25.0	20	33.9
Total		15		44		59	

A difference was shown between Peer Interaction Grammar Errors and Progress Categories, which is significant. (Pearson $X^2 = 6.116$, df = 1, p = .025). This was a significant result ($p<.05$) and showed that I/S students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Grammar Errors than W students.

PI/TI Error Type, Frequency and Test/Grade Gains

A total of 59 students were observed in order to identify the relationship between type and frequency of speaking errors during adult/teacher interaction and test/grade gains.

A X^2 Test between Teacher/Peer Interaction Errors and two Progress Categories (Improved and Same; and Worse) was carried out, which identified three variables of significance; one Teacher/Student Interaction error type (Unfinished), and two of the Peer Interaction error types (Pronunciation and Grammar).

Teacher Interaction Unfinished Errors and Progress

A difference was shown between Teacher Interaction Unfinished Errors and Progress Categories, which was very significant and showed that Improved/Same students were more likely to make Teacher Interaction Unfinished Errors than Worse students.

Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors and Progress

A difference was shown between Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors and Progress Categories, which was significant and showed that Improved/Same students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors than Worse students.

Peer Interaction Grammar Errors and Progress

A difference was shown between Peer Interaction Grammar Errors and Progress Categories, which was significant and showed that Improved/Same students were more likely to make Peer Interaction Grammar Errors than Worse students. Students may get better by focussing on trying more rather than being distracted by avoiding or making errors.

In summary a difference was shown between Teacher Interaction Unfinished Errors and Progress Categories, which was very significant. And differences between Peer Interaction Pronunciation Errors, and Peer Interaction Grammar Errors, and Progress Categories, respectively were all significant. In all three cases the students in the Improved or Same category were more likely to make respective interaction errors than students in the Worse

category. Students who make significant and very significant errors may have made more, but it could be seen that the persistent practice in trying to get language right although erroneous reflects confidence in attempted learning and use, which did in fact pay off in terms of improved or same progress in the end compared to other students in the Worse category who failed to achieve significantly.

Question 3.b.ii

What is the relationship between type and frequency of corrections during adult student/teacher interaction and test/grade gains?

Corrections/Progress Analysis.

A X^2 Test between twelve Teacher Interaction (TI) Corrections and twelve Peer Interaction (PI) Corrections and two Progress Categories (Improved and Same; and Worse) was carried out, which identified one variable of significance out of a total of 24 variables.
A total of 59 students were observed in six pre-sessional classes who were identified individually for making errors.

The data represented in Tables 4.3.10 and 4.3.11 below summarise significance levels, but do not show where the differences lie, or how strong the relationship between variables is.

Table 4.3.10 Significant Values of Teacher Interaction Corrections and Progress Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Teacher	58	.050	1	1.000
Explicit	Teacher	40	5.227	1	.031*
Recast	Teacher	4	1.367	1	.265
Clarify	Teacher	2	.347	1	1.000
Repeat	Teacher	1	2.984	1	.254
Elicit	Teacher	0	0		
Meta-language	Teacher	0	0		
Gesture	Teacher	0	0		
Self-correct	Teacher	0	0		
Hint/prompt	Teacher	0	0		

** p<.01 * p<.05

Table 4.3.11 Significant Values of Peer Interaction Corrections and Progress Categories.

Correction Type	Interaction	Number of Corrections	Chi-square (X^2) Test	df	Fisher Exact Test (p)
Ignore	Peer	260	.270	1	.762
Explicit	Peer	25	2.942	1	.156
Recast	Peer	3	.104	1	1.000
Clarify	Peer	1	2.984	1	.254
Repeat	Peer	3	2.836	1	.156
Elicit	Peer	0	0		
Meta-language	Peer	0	0		
Gesture	Peer	1	2.984	1	.254
Self-correct	Peer	0	0		
Hint/prompt	Peer	0	0		

** p<.01 * p<.05

Just one of the Teacher/Student Interaction correction types (Explicit) and none of the Peer Interaction correction types are significantly different out of a total of twelve Peer Interaction correction types and twelve Teacher/Student Interaction correction types respectively.

Significant results from Cross-tabulation of Teacher Interaction/Peer Interaction Corrections and Progress Categories are as follows:

1. Table 4.3.12 shows 21 (35.6%) out of a total 59 students made Explicit Corrections during Teacher Interaction.

In the I/S category 9 (60.0%) students out of 15 made Explicit Corrections during Teacher Interaction.

In the W category 12 (27.3%) students out of 44 made Explicit Corrections during Teacher Interaction.

Table 4.3.12 Teacher Interaction Explicit Correction and Progress Categories Cross-tabulation.

Correction Type	Frequency	Progress Categories				Total	%
		I/S	%	W	%		
Explicit	0	6	40.0	32	72.7	38	64.4
	1	9	60.0	12	27.3	21	35.6
Total		15		44		59	

A difference was shown between Teacher Interaction Explicit Correction and Progress Categories, which is significant. (Pearson $X^2 = 5.227$, df = 1, Fisher Exact Test, p = .031). This was a significant result ($p<.05$) and showed that I/S students were more likely to make Teacher Interaction Explicit Corrections than the W students.

PI/TI Correction Type, Frequency and Test/Grade Gains

The same 59 students were observed to identify the relationship between type and frequency of corrections during adult student/teacher interaction and test/grade gains.

A X^2 Test between Teacher/Peer Interaction Corrections and two Progress Categories (Improved and Same; and Worse) was carried out, which identified one variable of significance; one teacher/student interaction correction type (explicit).

Teacher Interaction Explicit Corrections and Progress

A difference was shown between Teacher Interaction Explicit Correction and Progress Categories, which was significant and showed that Improved/Same students were more likely to receive Teacher Interaction Explicit Corrections than the Worse students.

In this case the students in the Improved or Same category were more likely to receive Teacher Interaction Explicit Corrections than students in the Worse category. Students who received significant corrections may have received more, but it could be seen that the persistent practice in trying to get language right although erroneous reflects confidence in attempted learning and use, which did in fact pay off in terms of improved or same progress in the end compared to other students in the worse category who failed to achieve significantly. This research supports existing research and student responses in that explicit correction particularly during teacher interaction is both beneficial and leads to success in learning. The more engaged in activities in the students' comfort zone and in the preferred dynamic increases motivation, participation, production albeit incorrect, opportunities for immediate and direct correction, and leads to progress.

4.5 Limitations

The sample sizes were limited to what was available from a convenience point of view at the time of research. Limitations extended to where the students were being taught, and where they came from. All of the data from observation and questionnaire research limited the possibilities for causal interference. The more robust data came from reduced samples based

on respective limiting criteria in order to improve reliability. The teacher sample was reduced in terms of proportional representation compared to student numbers. Interviewee sample size was minimal due to the number of students who agreed to participate further. Independent testing was abandoned as a result of nil volunteers. Responses even when answered honestly may be affected by respondents being unaware why or the reasons for their own actions.

Unfortunately, the process of learning and subsequent testing has resulted in course and test-induced errors making the process a paradoxical cycle.

Chapter 5 Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter interprets and discusses the findings of the study in light of existing theories and empirical work in second language acquisition (SLA). The discussion focuses on the twelve identified categories of speaking error, their frequency and distribution, and their relationship to interactional context, learner variables, and cultural background. The results confirm that spoken errors are an inevitable component of interlanguage development, representing both cognitive limitation and linguistic growth. They also demonstrate how perceptions of error significance differ between teachers and learners, influencing classroom practices and learning outcomes.

5.2 Error Patterns and the Nature of Incorrectness

The study identified a total of 5,540 speaking errors, classified into twelve distinct categories. The prevalence of incorrectness in various forms confirms that spoken errors are both natural and integral to second language learning. While the presence of errors was expected, their frequency, order, and perceived importance revealed several unexpected patterns. Some deviant forms appeared to have become normalised, which is an indicator of fossilisation, while others reflected specific task orientations or instructional emphases.

The relatively small proportion of errors compared to correct utterances suggests that learners' productive competence is high, but constrained by cognitive load, fatigue, and time pressure. These findings reinforce the role of processing limitations and working memory (Skehan, 1998) in shaping language output. Consistent adherence to linguistic rules, coupled with explicit awareness of sequential structure and phonetic similarity, can mitigate some of these challenges. However, variability arising from age, L1 interference, and situational context

ensures that error remains an unavoidable developmental phenomenon rather than a marker of failure.

5.3 Differences in Occurrence and Perceived Importance

A notable finding was the disparity between the occurrence of certain error types and their perceived importance by both teachers and learners. Teachers tended to emphasise accuracy and visible deviations from linguistic norms, whereas learners prioritised communicative success and fluency. This mismatch echoes Lyster and Ranta's (1997) observations that teacher and learner priorities frequently diverge, shaping the focus and efficacy of corrective feedback.

The distinction between Addition (31.12%) and Pronunciation (26.5%) errors exemplifies this misalignment. Although addition errors occurred most frequently, pronunciation errors were more salient and regarded as more serious by both groups. This discrepancy may be due to pronunciation's direct impact on intelligibility and perceived proficiency, as well as its visibility in classroom discourse. By contrast, addition errors, which are often linked to L1 interference, fluency strategies, or lexical expansion, tend to be tolerated as markers of communicative effort rather than deficiency.

5.4 Theoretical Implications of Addition, Omission, and Pronunciation Errors

From an SLA theoretical perspective, addition and omission errors align with form-based classification in interlanguage development (Selinker, 1972). These errors reveal learners' evolving hypotheses about language structure and rule application. The prominence of addition errors suggests overgeneralisation, while omission errors reflect incomplete grammatical mapping and limited morphosyntactic awareness. Despite their high frequency,

these error types were perceived as less problematic than pronunciation errors, highlighting a pedagogical bias toward surface-level, phonological correctness.

Pronunciation difficulties, by contrast, are deeply rooted in L1 transfer and influenced by factors such as exposure, dialectal variation, and fossilisation. As Derwing and Munro (2015) note, pronunciation is one of the most persistent challenges for adult L2 learners due to entrenched articulatory habits and limited perceptual recalibration. The findings therefore underscore the importance of integrating focused pronunciation work and auditory discrimination training alongside structural accuracy instruction.

5.5 Interactional Context in Teacher-Peer Dynamics

Error frequency was notably higher during Teacher Interaction (TI) than Peer Interaction (PI), a predictable outcome given the teacher-led nature of instruction and the extended time allocated to such exchanges. However, certain error types, particularly those linked to L1 transfer and informal register, e.g., Native/L1, Word Order, and Vernacular, occurred more frequently in peer settings. This suggests that learners adopt different linguistic strategies in peer-only contexts, possibly due to reduced affective pressure and greater willingness to take risks.

Peer interactions appeared to emulate teacher-led exchanges through imitation of drill-based patterns, yet also offered opportunities for collaboration and mutual scaffolding. These findings support sociocultural perspectives on learning (Vygotsky, 1978), where interaction among learners within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) fosters experimentation and co-construction of knowledge. The difference in error distribution across TI and PI may therefore reflect both social alignment and cognitive readiness, moderated by shared goals and mutual understanding.

5.6 Learner Variables: Age, Experience, and Years of Study

The analysis revealed that error type and frequency varied significantly by age, prior learning experience, and years of study, but not by sex or self-concept related to achievement. Older learners (23–51 years) exhibited distinct patterns, with higher incidence of addition and pronunciation errors during TI and increased word order and grammar errors during PI. These patterns may reflect age-related differences in cognitive processing speed, memory recall, and learning strategies. Older learners often demonstrate stronger intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and persistence, yet face challenges in auditory discrimination and articulatory adaptation.

The significant presence of pronunciation and lexical errors among learners with fewer than ten years of English study aligns with interlanguage theory, suggesting incomplete automatization and susceptibility to fossilisation. The persistence of certain errors across proficiency levels further indicates that some linguistic features remain resistant to instruction—a phenomenon supported by Han and Odlin (2006). Thus, while experience correlates with overall accuracy, it does not necessarily guarantee the elimination of entrenched patterns.

5.7 Motivation, Self-Concept, and Affective Factors

Motivation and self-concept emerged as influential yet complex factors. Higher motivation was associated with broader strategy use and greater success, but its effectiveness depended on balance and alignment with learner attitudes and experiences. Older learners tended to exhibit intrinsic motivation and self-regulated learning, whereas younger learners were more extrinsically oriented. Negative affective experiences such as test anxiety or poor listening outcomes were found to undermine self-concept and impede progress, particularly among those with limited prior study.

Listening-related stress and diminished confidence appeared to exacerbate error frequency and hinder the development of fluency. These findings resonate with Dörnyei's (2009) emphasis on the interplay between affective variables and task engagement. Addressing these emotional dimensions is therefore essential to sustaining learner motivation and fostering a more resilient orientation toward error as a natural part of learning.

5.8 Cultural and Linguistic Influence

Cultural and linguistic background played a decisive role in shaping both the frequency and perception of errors. Chinese L1 learners were significantly more likely to produce pronunciation errors during teacher interaction compared with their European counterparts. This pattern may be linked to the tonal and syllable-timed nature of Mandarin, which contrasts with the stress-timed rhythm of English, leading to predictable segmental and suprasegmental transfer errors.

Culturally, Chinese learners demonstrated a preference for teacher-led correction and a lower tolerance for peer feedback, reflecting collectivist values and high power-distance educational traditions (Hofstede, 2001). The deference to authority figures and concern for face-saving often inhibited spontaneous correction or open negotiation of meaning. These tendencies, while culturally consistent, can restrict opportunities for authentic communicative practice and peer-mediated learning. Encouraging balanced participation between TI and PI may thus enhance both linguistic accuracy and learner autonomy.

5.9 Omission and Commission: Prioritisation in Correction

The overwhelming proportion of commission errors (88.7%) relative to omission errors indicates a systemic prioritisation of visible, tangible mistakes over those that are absent or less salient. Teachers appeared to focus on overt errors such as mispronunciations and

additions while omissions, despite their linguistic importance, often went unnoticed or uncorrected. This imbalance reflects both pedagogical practicality and perceptual bias: tangible deviations are easier to identify, discuss, and remediate than silent absences.

However, omission errors, though fewer (7.2% during TI and 4.1% during PI), represent critical gaps in linguistic representation. Their neglect may inadvertently contribute to fossilisation, particularly when omissions are accepted as communicatively sufficient. The shared perception between teachers and learners that omissions are minor reinforces this trend. As Ellis (2009) argues, prioritising meaning over form can sustain fluency at the expense of accuracy if not carefully balanced.

5.10 Listening, Perception, and Communication Breakdown

Listening-related errors, though only 6.25% of the total, revealed deep interconnections between perception, production, and comprehension. Most listening-related difficulties manifested as pronunciation and lexical errors, often traceable to L1 interference or processing limitations. Chinese learners, in particular, displayed recurrent phonemic confusion (e.g., medial vowel substitutions, th/s alternations), suggesting limited exposure to authentic auditory input and insufficient phonological recalibration.

These findings highlight the cyclical relationship between listening and speaking: ineffective auditory processing hinders pronunciation accuracy, while unclear production reinforces perceptual inaccuracy. Students' non-responsiveness or delayed replies in listening contexts often reflected cognitive overload, hesitation, or reliance on survival strategies rather than comprehension. Allowing more processing time and integrating structured listening–speaking feedback loops can therefore strengthen both recognition and production skills.

5.11 Errors and Correction

This discussion has explored the main quantitative and qualitative findings concerning the nature, frequency, and distribution of speaking errors. It has examined how interaction type, learner characteristics, and cultural background shape error production and perception. The findings collectively affirm that incorrectness is not a deviation from learning but its very substance: an evolving manifestation of interlanguage development mediated by cognitive, affective, and sociocultural factors.

5.12 Error Correction and Feedback

This section discusses the study's findings on error correction and feedback, examining the interplay between teacher and peer correction, implicit and explicit strategies, and the influence of cultural, affective, and contextual factors on corrective practices. It also explores the phenomenon of ignoring errors, which have been identified as the most frequent correction behaviour, and its implications for learning, motivation, and classroom interaction.

Overall, the results reveal that correction, while universally valued, is negotiated differently between teachers and learners, and between teacher-led and peer interaction contexts. Correction is perceived as both a pedagogical necessity and a socially delicate act, governed by notions of authority, politeness, and cultural expectation.

5.13 Correction as a Teacher-Dominated Domain

Correction is firmly established and widely accepted as the teacher's responsibility. Both quantitative and interview data demonstrate a strong learner preference for teacher-led correction and a corresponding reluctance to assume corrective roles during peer interaction. The majority of respondents indicated that they would not like teachers to ignore their

mistakes, showing a clear preference for explicit teacher correction over implicit forms, although both were valued.

The perception that correction is the teacher's domain aligns with traditional hierarchies within classroom discourse (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Chaudron, 1988). In many contexts, especially among Chinese and other Asian learners, teachers are seen as authoritative figures whose feedback is definitive and legitimising. Learners equate explicit teacher correction with rigour and professional guidance, associating it with academic progress and long-term improvement.

By contrast, peer correction, while acceptable, lacks the same authority and carries potential emotional risks. Many learners regard it as intrusive or embarrassing, particularly in collectivist cultures where maintaining harmony and face is paramount (Hofstede, 2001). This results in a paradoxical dynamic: learners want correction and view it as essential for learning, yet prefer it to be administered by those with institutional authority.

5.14 Peer Correction and Cultural Mediation

Although peer correction was accepted in principle, it was perceived as less legitimate and more socially risky. The data showed that students preferred to be corrected by peers more than they preferred correcting others, reflecting a cultural asymmetry of roles. This finding supports earlier research highlighting the reluctance of East Asian learners to assume corrective authority due to power distance and face-saving concerns (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).

Interview data indicated that peer correction was often accompanied by discomfort or

avoidance, as learners sought to preserve interpersonal harmony. However, peer feedback was also described as less intimidating and more collegial, offering kinship and reduced

pressure compared to teacher correction. This aligns with sociocultural theories (Vygotsky, 1978; Donato, 1994) that view peer interaction as a potential site for collaborative meaning-making, albeit constrained by cultural expectations.

The study suggests that while peer correction fosters opportunities for communicative experimentation and metalinguistic reflection, its effectiveness is limited by social dynamics and perceptions of status. For Chinese learners, in particular, face-saving strategies led to avoidance of overt correction, favouring silence, indirectness, or implicit feedback when possible.

5.15 Implicit and Explicit Correction Preferences

Both teachers and students recognised the importance of balancing implicit and explicit feedback. Implicit correction, particularly recasts, was widely regarded as less disruptive and more conducive to maintaining conversational flow. Teachers reported using implicit correction frequently, especially during ongoing tasks, consistent with prior findings (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis, 2009).

However, despite these preferences, explicit correction emerged as the most common and effective method observed. It was valued for its clarity, immediacy, and perceived connection to tangible learning gains. Explicit correction allows learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage (Schmidt, 1990), prompting conscious reflection and uptake. The majority of teachers and students in this study agreed that explicit correction was ultimately the most beneficial for long-term improvement, even though it carried risks of embarrassment or affective discomfort.

Interestingly, while implicit feedback was theoretically preferred, its observed frequency was unexpectedly low. This discrepancy suggests that time constraints, classroom management

needs, and communicative breakdowns push teachers and students alike toward explicit, overt correction forms. In peer interaction, the transfer of explicit strategies from teacher-led contexts further reinforces this pattern, though often without the same pedagogical authority.

5.16 The Role of Ignoring in Corrective Practices

One of the most striking findings of the study is the dominance of "Ignore" as a correction type. Across ten observed classes, ignoring accounted for 81.8% of all correction instances (1,034 of 1,264), with a notably higher rate during peer interaction (64%) than teacher interaction. This prevalence highlights a critical tension between learners' stated desire for correction and their behavioural tendencies toward avoidance.

Ignoring appears to serve both pedagogical and social functions. From a pragmatic perspective, teachers and students may choose to ignore minor errors to preserve fluency, maintain lesson flow, or prioritise content over form (Harmer, 2007). In peer interaction, however, ignoring is often motivated by cultural politeness norms and the desire to avoid confrontation or loss of face. This mirrors findings from Corder (1981) and Boomer & Laver (1968), who note that selective inattention to error can be strategic, reflecting tacit judgments about communicative adequacy rather than indifference.

Nevertheless, the pedagogical implications are significant. High rates of ignoring suggest missed opportunities for corrective feedback and potential reinforcement of fossilised forms. The link between ignoring and omission errors, as confirmed by the significant correlation in the Chi-square analysis ($\chi^2 = 39.514$, $p < .01$), indicates that learners who omit linguistic items are also more likely to ignore errors, perpetuating cycles of absence in both production and correction.

Interview data reinforce this connection: omissions and ignoring are often not recognised as problematic. Some learners, particularly Chinese participants, did not consider omission an error at all, citing politeness or irrelevance to meaning as justification for non-correction. This points to a broader cultural conception of communicative efficiency, where accuracy may be subordinated to social harmony and expedience.

5.17 Interactional and Individual Differences

Age emerged as a significant variable influencing correction behaviour. Older learners (24–51 years) were more likely to engage in explicit peer correction than younger learners (16–23 years), suggesting increased confidence, linguistic maturity, and self-regulatory capacity. This developmental trend supports Dörnyei's (2009) assertion that experience and self-concept strengthen learners' tolerance for corrective confrontation and enhance motivation to refine language use.

Other factors such as sex, level, and years of study did not yield statistically significant effects, though qualitative data indicated nuanced differences in perception. More experienced and intrinsically motivated learners demonstrated greater acceptance of feedback and viewed correction as constructive rather than punitive. These findings suggest a gradual internalisation of correction as a normalised, self-directed learning strategy over time.

5.18 Pedagogical Implications

The findings collectively point to the need for a nuanced, context-sensitive approach to feedback in second language classrooms. While teacher correction remains central, overreliance on explicit methods can reinforce dependency and limit learner autonomy. Conversely, the underuse of implicit correction and the high incidence of ignoring errors

suggest that opportunities for subtle, interactional feedback are being underexploited. Pedagogically, this calls for:

Balancing explicit and implicit feedback: ensuring clarity without overexposure.

Encouraging reflective peer correction: fostering trust and sensitivity to face issues.

Raising awareness of strategic ignoring: distinguishing between purposeful fluency maintenance and missed corrective potential.

Cultural mediation in feedback training: helping learners reinterpret correction not as criticism, but as collaboration.

Empowering learners to view peer correction as legitimate and non-threatening could mitigate hierarchical barriers, particularly in collectivist contexts. Structured peer feedback tasks, explicit modelling of corrective language, and teacher scaffolding can facilitate this shift.

5.19 The Multifaceted Nature of Correction

This discussion has examined the multifaceted nature of correction and feedback across teacher and peer interaction contexts. The evidence reveals that correction remains a teacher-dominated process, shaped by cultural norms, affective sensitivities, and pedagogical pragmatism. Implicit feedback, though valued in principle, is overshadowed in practice by explicit and ignoring behaviours.

The prevalence of ignoring, especially during peer interaction, signals both a cultural adaptation and a potential pedagogical gap. When combined with omission patterns, it underscores the complex relationship between attention, awareness, and interlanguage development.

Ultimately, effective correction in second language classrooms requires an equilibrium between authority and empathy, accuracy and fluency, and cultural respect and pedagogical rigor. These findings reaffirm that correction is not merely a linguistic act but a social negotiation embedded within the fabric of classroom interaction.

5.20 Error Correction and Contradictions

This section focuses on the relationship between errors, feedback, assessment, and progress in second language learning. It explores how errors function as indicators of development, the impact of formative and summative assessment on learning outcomes, and the psychological and motivational dimensions of correction. The findings demonstrate that while error correction and feedback contribute to measurable progress, they also expose systemic contradictions within testing, grading, and classroom practice.

5.21 Errors as Indicators of Learning and Progress

Errors represent linguistic forms that deviate from the target language norm, yet they simultaneously mark stages of development and acquisition. Within the learning continuum, each error denotes progress and evidence that learners are actively processing input and testing hypotheses about language use. Progress occurs when learners reduce or refine these errors over time, reflecting successful internalisation and restructuring of linguistic knowledge.

The current study found that improvement and stability in learner performance were significantly related to error management and corrective feedback. The difference between level and progress categories was highly significant (Pearson $\chi^2 = 39.222$, df = 1, $p = .000$, $p < .01$), indicating that students at the 6.0–6.5 proficiency range were more likely to demonstrate improved or stable progress than those at 7.0–7.5. This finding supports the

hypothesis that progress may be a constant potential, but that relative success diminishes at higher proficiency levels as gains become increasingly incremental.

Errors therefore serve not only as markers of deficiency but also as indicators of learning in progress where their presence is an inevitable and necessary part of language development (Corder, 1981). The process of making and correcting errors reflects both the learner's attempt to construct meaning and the teacher's intervention to guide that construction toward accuracy.

5.22 Assessment, Feedback, and the Paradox of Progress

The analysis revealed a paradoxical cycle within language learning assessment: while feedback and testing aim to promote progress, they can also induce errors through course and test design. Formal testing often emphasises product over process, measuring proficiency through grades rather than developmental learning. As a result, course-induced and test-induced errors emerge, reinforcing rote learning and recall rather than authentic competence.

Research by Bond (2000) supports this, indicating that extrinsic rewards and grades may negatively correlate with intrinsic motivation and performance. Similarly, the current findings highlight that performance, test scores, and feedback are not always directly aligned with genuine learning gains. The challenge, therefore, lies in introducing effective formative assessment into classroom practice that bridges the gap between testing outcomes and developmental progress (Black & Wiliam, 1998).

Formative assessment, when effectively implemented, promotes learning through feedback, providing learners with actionable insights for improvement. Summative assessment, by contrast, serves evaluative purposes, often detached from the teaching–learning process. Although summative grades represent standardised measures of achievement, they rarely

allow space for feedback or further learning. Consequently, while summative assessment validates attainment, it can inadvertently stifle ongoing learning by emphasising finality and ranking.

5.23 The Role and Timing of Feedback

The study found that both immediate and delayed feedback are beneficial, though they serve different functions. Immediate feedback operates at the process level, providing in-situ guidance during fluency activities and enabling real-time correction. Delayed feedback functions at the task level, often after completion or testing, encouraging reflection and self-regulation. Quantitative analysis confirmed positive outcomes for both (process-level $r = 0.28$; task-level $r = 0.36$).

However, excessive correction during fluent speech can negatively affect fluency and confidence, suggesting that timing and appropriateness of feedback are critical. The findings align with Hattie and Timperley (2007), who emphasise that feedback must be clear, purposeful, and appropriately aligned with learners' prior knowledge and goals to be effective. Corrections perceived as linked to learning, especially specific, goal-oriented, and low-threat feedback, proved most beneficial to motivation and achievement.

Direct and media-assisted instruction were also viewed as effective, though responsibility for their implementation was seen as resting with the teacher. Learners acknowledged that correction and feedback facilitate learning but stressed the need for positive reinforcement to sustain motivation, particularly among low-achieving students.

5.24 Formative and Summative Feedback Dynamics

Within classroom contexts, formative feedback remains central to improvement. Teachers identify and correct errors with the aim of guiding learners toward mastery, making this

process inherently developmental. Summative assessment, however, is detached and its purpose is to evaluate learning outcomes rather than promote further learning. The summative process introduces stress and finality, with grades functioning as indicators of ability, yet often at the expense of feedback opportunities.

Summative grading may also negatively influence self-concept, as learners compare themselves through ranked performance rather than individual progress. Errors are often marked but not corrected, reinforcing anxiety rather than reflection. Despite this, grades continue to serve as a universally accepted measure of achievement and social worth, reinforcing the paradox of learning through judgement.

Nevertheless, formative assessment research (Fuchs, 1997) and current data both demonstrate that low achievers benefit disproportionately from targeted formative feedback, which fosters confidence and measurable gains. As learners advance in proficiency, the magnitude of improvement decreases, consistent with the principle of diminishing returns in high-level attainment.

5.25 Individual Differences and Learning Outcomes

Language learning success depends on a complex interplay of cognitive, affective, and contextual variables. Individual differences such as aptitude, intelligence, prior knowledge, motivation, and confidence significantly influence how learners perceive and respond to correction. Learners who reported high confidence and comfort with feedback demonstrated greater persistence, effort, and improvement. Conversely, anxiety or discomfort during correction, especially public correction, was linked to avoidance behaviours and reduced uptake.

Quantitative and qualitative data showed that students were generally comfortable with being corrected (teacher: 64.3%; peer: 67.6%), and that correction often prompted stronger motivation to try harder (teacher: 77.3%; peer: 74%). Despite this, many students also expressed discomfort when corrected, highlighting a tension between affective response and motivational drive. The act of correction thus simultaneously challenges and reinforces self-concept, depending on how it is delivered.

Teacher and student perceptions diverged slightly: while teachers believed that peer correction encouraged greater student effort (60%), students themselves felt they tried harder following teacher correction (77.3%). This reinforces earlier findings that teacher correction remains more authoritative and motivating, while peer correction, though accepted, carries social risks and emotional ambivalence.

5.26 Statistical Associations between Correction Type and Progress

Observation data involving 59 students across six pre-sessional classes confirmed significant relationships between correction types and learning outcomes.

Students who improved or maintained progress were significantly more likely to make unfinished errors during Teacher Interaction than those in the Worse category.

During Peer Interaction, those who improved or maintained progress made more pronunciation and grammar errors, suggesting that active engagement and risk-taking correlate with learning gains.

Crucially, a significant association was found between Explicit Correction during Teacher Interaction and student progress ($p = .031$, $p < .05$). Students who received higher frequencies of explicit correction were more likely to improve or maintain progress than those who performed worse. These results indicate that explicit teacher correction remains the most

effective intervention for consolidating language development, particularly when combined with active learner engagement.

Persistent practice and repeated attempts, even when erroneous, reflect learners' willingness to experiment, signalling cognitive engagement and self-efficacy. In contrast, avoidance behaviours and silence correlated with stagnation or decline, underscoring the value of productive struggle in language learning.

5.27 Broader Implications and Limitations

The data also revealed discrepancies between actual classroom events, perceived experiences, and reported beliefs. Teachers and students often differed in their interpretations of correction frequency, effectiveness, and comfort. Repeated errors despite correction, strategic ignoring due to time constraints, and negative affective responses among a minority of learners highlight areas for further investigation.

At a broader level, the findings underscore the nonlinear nature of progress. Learning advances through cycles of trial, error, correction, and consolidation, not in uniform increments. While correction and feedback are essential catalysts, they must be understood within the emotional, cultural, and institutional contexts that shape learner behaviour.

Despite the observed variability, self-concept remained largely positive, engagement high, and overall learning outcomes successful. The evidence suggests that when correction is constructive, consistent, and empathetically delivered, it fosters both linguistic competence and learner resilience.

5.28 Errors, Corrections, and Feedback

This study has examined the intricate relationship between errors, feedback, assessment, and progress in second language learning. Errors were shown to represent developmental stages rather than deficiencies, and progress was statistically and pedagogically linked to the nature and frequency of feedback—especially explicit teacher correction.

Formative assessment and targeted feedback were shown to enhance learning, particularly among lower-level students, while summative testing risked undermining feedback opportunities and learner motivation. Individual differences further shaped how learners experienced correction, balancing comfort, confidence, and motivation.

Ultimately, this study reaffirms that correction and feedback are both cognitive and affective processes, which not only refine language but also construct learner identity. Effective pedagogy lies in recognising this dual role, ensuring that feedback functions not as judgment, but as a shared pursuit of progress.

5.29 Integrative Summary and Synthesis

This study has provided an extensive examination of spoken language errors, interactional dynamics, and feedback mechanisms within the second language (L2) classroom, framed through both linguistic and pedagogical lenses. The cumulative evidence from quantitative and qualitative data demonstrates that errors are more than deficiencies and remain critical indicators of learning in progress, shaped by multiple variables including age, L1 background, interaction type, feedback form, and motivational factors.

Across the discussion, three dominant themes emerged:

The persistence and classification of errors as both linguistic and psychological phenomena reflecting developmental stages.

The differential impact of interactional context from Teacher Interaction versus Peer Interaction on the type and frequency of errors, and their perception by students and teachers.

The mediating role of feedback and assessment in transforming error from a marker of incorrectness into a tool for learning, while simultaneously revealing tensions within formal assessment systems.

Collectively, these themes illuminate the complex relationship between incorrectness, progress, and pedagogy. Errors occur not in isolation but as part of an evolving interlanguage system that reflects learners' hypotheses about English and their attempts to operationalise knowledge under communicative pressure. The interplay between feedback, learner self-concept, and assessment contexts defines how effectively these errors are recognised, corrected, and ultimately internalised.

5.30 The Nature of Error and Interlanguage Development

The cumulative classification of twelve types of speaking error, from a total of 5540 observed, confirmed that errors are inevitable and recurrent throughout the language learning process. Their persistence, even after instruction and correction, reflects the dynamic and non-linear character of interlanguage development.

While linguistic categorisation identified Addition and Pronunciation as the most frequent error types, the significance attached to each by teachers and students varied according to perceived difficulty, communicative importance, and correction priority. This discrepancy highlights a pedagogical gap between error occurrence and awareness, suggesting that some forms of error become normalised through repetition, fossilisation, or selective attention.

From a theoretical perspective, these findings align with Corder's (1967) view of errors as evidence of learning, and with Selinker's (1972) concept of interlanguage, which is a

transitional system reflecting the learner's current state of linguistic competence. The persistence of certain error types supports the notion that language development is shaped by ongoing internal restructuring rather than linear accumulation.

5.31 Interactional Contexts and Learning Dynamics

The comparison between Teacher Interaction (TI) and Peer Interaction (PI) revealed that context significantly affects both the frequency and type of errors. More errors occurred during TI, reflecting its dominance in classroom time and the greater linguistic demands placed upon students by teacher-led discourse. However, some error categories, particularly Native/L1 interference, Word Order, and Vernacular, have appeared more frequently during PI, suggesting that learners adopt informal or strategic forms of speech among peers.

This observation confirms that interactional context mediates performance, with TI emphasising form and accuracy, and PI promoting fluency, experimentation, and risk-taking. These findings resonate with Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), in which learners operate beyond their current competence when supported by a more capable interlocutor, and Krashen's Input Hypothesis (i+1), where progress occurs when input slightly exceeds the learner's existing level.

In both contexts, affective variables such as confidence, anxiety, and motivation influenced learner behaviour. Older students, for instance, exhibited higher rates of certain error types, notably pronunciation and grammar, but also demonstrated greater persistence and risk-taking, suggesting that confidence and self-concept mediate participation more than age itself.

5.32 Feedback, Correction, and Learning Outcomes

Feedback was found to be a key determinant of progress, though its effectiveness depended on its type, timing, and delivery. Explicit teacher correction, especially during TI, showed a

significant correlation with improved progress ($p = .031$, $p < .05$), confirming that clear, direct feedback remains the most effective method for adult learners.

Peer correction, although beneficial for collaborative engagement, was received ambivalently due to cultural and interpersonal factors. In particular, Chinese learners exhibited greater preference for teacher correction, aligning with collectivist cultural expectations of hierarchical learning relationships and face-saving strategies.

Students generally valued correction where 88% preferred not to have their errors ignored and perceived explicit correction as more beneficial (69.9%) than implicit correction (52.3%). This reinforces the pedagogical principle that feedback must balance clarity with sensitivity, fostering motivation without threatening self-esteem.

However, the data also exposed a paradox: the very mechanisms designed to promote accuracy in testing, grading, correction can inadvertently generate anxiety, inhibit fluency, or induce further errors. The tension between fluency and accuracy, formative and summative goals, and teacher authority versus learner autonomy remains a central challenge in L2 pedagogy.

5.33 Motivation, Self-Concept, and Individual Differences

The psychological dimension of error correction emerged as a powerful determinant of progress. Motivation and self-concept influenced how learners perceived and responded to feedback, with positive self-belief and high effort correlating strongly with achievement. Students who viewed correction as supportive rather than punitive demonstrated greater engagement and willingness to take linguistic risks, reinforcing Bandura's (1997) theory of self-efficacy.

Cultural and linguistic backgrounds also affected response to correction. Chinese L1 learners displayed tendencies toward reticence and anxiety, reflecting culturally ingrained respect for authority and avoidance of public error. In contrast, European learners demonstrated more open engagement during PI, though still faced challenges linked to L1 transfer in pronunciation and word order. These differences underscore the need for contextually and culturally responsive feedback strategies that recognise learners' diverse affective profiles.

5.34 The Assessment Paradox: Product, Process, and Progress

One of the most striking outcomes of this study lies in the misalignment between assessment and learning. While formative assessment and teacher feedback demonstrably fostered improvement, especially among lower-level students, summative assessment tended to interrupt this cycle. Grades, though socially necessary as indicators of achievement, often undermined motivation and shifted focus from learning to performance.

The backwash effect, where teaching and learning are shaped by testing requirements, was evident, leading to rote learning and superficial recall rather than deep acquisition. Learners' progress, therefore, may not always be accurately reflected in grades, and conversely, high grades may not equate to sustained competence. This disjunction suggests that progress is best measured developmentally, through continuous formative feedback rather than isolated summative outcomes.

5.35 Integration of Findings

The study's findings collectively indicate that learning success is the product of interplay between cognitive, linguistic, and affective factors, each influenced by context and feedback.

Errors serve as diagnostic evidence of interlanguage development.

Feedback, particularly explicit teacher correction, facilitates restructuring and consolidation.

Motivation and self-concept sustain engagement despite challenges.

Formative assessment provides the necessary bridge between instruction and measurable progress.

This integrated model aligns with constructivist and interactionist theories of learning, where knowledge is co-constructed through interaction, feedback, and reflection. The results contribute to ongoing debates within SLA research concerning the balance between form-focused instruction and communicative competence, offering empirical support for pedagogical frameworks that view error correction as an essential, not incidental, component of language learning.

5.36 Conclusion

In conclusion, this study reaffirms that error is an indispensable part of the learning process, embodying both the struggle and success of second language acquisition. The evidence demonstrates that correction, particularly explicit, timely, and empathetically delivered, transforms incorrectness into opportunity, supporting learners cognitively, linguistically, and emotionally.

However, persistent mismatches between assessment practices and learning realities continue to obscure genuine progress. The challenge for educators and institutions lies in reconciling the evaluative and developmental functions of assessment while sustaining learner motivation and self-concept.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter consolidates the principal findings, interpretations, and implications of the study into the nature, perception, and pedagogical impact of errors and corrections in adult second language classrooms. Drawing upon the analysis of 5,540 speaking errors across twelve categories, it examined how error types and frequencies varied by interactional context, learner variables, and cultural influence. The findings were interpreted through key theoretical frameworks in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) including Interlanguage Theory (Selinker, 1972), Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978), and the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985) to situate the data within established understandings of learning as both a cognitive and socially mediated process.

The evidence demonstrates that errors are not simply deficiencies in performance but developmental milestones reflecting interlanguage progression. Correction, particularly when explicit, timely, and affectively sensitive, emerges as the principal pedagogical mechanism through which linguistic instability is transformed into structured competence. This chapter concludes with a synthesis of theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical implications, as well as limitations and directions for future research.

6.2 Summary of Major Findings

6.2.1 The Nature and Distribution of Errors

Spoken errors were confirmed as inevitable and productive elements of interlanguage development. Twelve distinct error types were identified, with Addition and Pronunciation errors accounting for over half of all instances. Their prevalence suggests that learners often prioritise fluency over precision during real-time communication. Error distribution was

influenced by cognitive factors such as working memory limits and planning load, as well as contextual variables including task type, interlocutor role, and communicative intent (Skehan, 1998).

The relatively low overall error rate indicates that adult learners possess structurally stable linguistic systems, though fossilised forms persisted, especially in pronunciation and syntax. These findings support the notion that automatised, yet incorrect forms, can resist modification without explicit, targeted intervention (Han & Odlin, 2006).

6.2.2 Divergent Perceptions of Error Significance

Teachers and learners exhibited distinct perceptions of error gravity. Teachers prioritised formal accuracy and overt grammatical correctness, while learners valued communicative success and fluency. This divergence aligns with prior research highlighting perceptual gaps in feedback priorities (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and underscores the importance of shared understanding and negotiated correction goals. Without alignment, form-focused correction risks being undervalued by learners, while meaning-oriented errors may remain unaddressed by instructors.

6.2.3 Predominant Error Types and Developmental Stages

Addition and pronunciation errors dominated the dataset, each reflecting a different stage of linguistic hypothesis testing. Additions often signified rule overgeneralisation, whereas pronunciation errors revealed deep-seated L1 transfer. Both phenomena exemplify interlanguage dynamism, where learners refine internal rules through feedback and experimentation. Patterns suggest a progression from approximation to restructuring, supporting the iterative and developmental nature of language learning.

6.2.4 Interactional Context and Social Mediation

Error frequency and type were strongly shaped by interactional setting. More errors occurred during Teacher Interaction (TI) than Peer Interaction (PI), reflecting higher linguistic demands and cognitive load. However, errors in PI tended to be exploratory, signalling risk-taking and creative language use. Learners were more willing to experiment with emerging hypotheses in peer contexts where affective pressure was lower.

This pattern corroborates sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), which views learning as socially mediated through collaborative dialogue and scaffolding. While TI provides expert modelling and corrective precision, PI fosters autonomy, self-regulation, and negotiated meaning. Balanced exposure to both contexts appears pedagogically advantageous.

6.2.5 Age, Experience, and Years of Study

Age and experience significantly influenced both error frequency and type. Older learners produced more addition and syntactic errors, reflecting greater cognitive caution and memory constraints but also higher motivation and communicative persistence. Less experienced learners, with under ten years of English study, exhibited higher rates of pronunciation and lexical errors, suggesting limited exposure and automatisation. These distinctions affirm the need for differentiated correction strategies calibrated to proficiency and developmental stage.

6.2.6 Cultural and L1 Influence

Cultural and linguistic background emerged as decisive factors in shaping both error patterns and feedback preferences. Chinese L1 learners displayed distinct pronunciation difficulties and a marked preference for teacher-led correction due to behaviours rooted in phonological transfer and collectivist cultural values that emphasise authority and face-saving. European learners, by contrast, demonstrated more tolerance for peer correction and different phonemic

substitution patterns.

These variations highlight that correctional practices are culturally situated. In collectivist contexts, explicit correction may be perceived as threatening, whereas in individualist contexts, it may be welcomed as evidence of engagement. Culturally responsive pedagogy is therefore essential in multilingual classrooms.

6.2.7 Omission versus Commission

Although commission errors comprised 88.7% of all instances, omission errors held significant diagnostic value. Teachers tended to overlook omissions, e.g., dropped articles or auxiliaries, revealing an instructional bias toward observable deviation. Yet omissions often signal incomplete grammatical mapping and conceptual gaps. Addressing these subtler absences through targeted intervention can yield important gains in structural accuracy.

6.2.1 Listening and Comprehension-Related Errors

Listening errors, while representing only 6.25% of total errors, were found to be critical in understanding the interplay between perception and production. Phonological misperception and rapid speech were primary contributors, impeding learners' ability to self-correct. This highlights the reciprocal relationship between listening and pronunciation: improvement in only one fosters competence in the other (Field, 2008). Integrating auditory discrimination training within communicative pedagogy thus holds considerable promise.

6.3 Correction Practices and Feedback Perception

6.3.1 Correction as Pedagogical Mediation

Correction functions not merely as linguistic adjustment but as pedagogical mediation—

bridging performance and competence. Teacher-led correction was viewed as authoritative and caring, reinforcing trust and motivation, while peer correction, though valuable, was often socially delicate. This hierarchy of corrective preference reveals how feedback operates within affective and relational dimensions of classroom life. When managed sensitively, correction enhances self-concept and engagement rather than threatening face (Dörnyei, 2009).

6.3.2 Implicit and Explicit Feedback

Implicit feedback, such as recasts, maintains conversational flow and encourages noticing without disrupting fluency but risks ambiguity if unrecognised. Explicit correction, though more direct, was consistently associated with awareness, retention, and perceived progress. Effective teachers employed both forms flexibly, adapting to task complexity, learner readiness, and affective climate. This supports Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis, where negotiated meaning drives linguistic restructuring.

6.3.3 The Paradox of Ignoring Errors

A major discovery was the frequency of ignored errors at over 80% of corrective opportunities. Often, errors were overlooked deliberately to sustain communication or avoid embarrassment. This reveals a pedagogical paradox: both teachers and learners value correction but frequently suppress it for social or pragmatic reasons. Such avoidance, while preserving fluency, risks fossilisation. The association between omission errors and ignoring behaviour suggests that silence may both reflect and reinforce cognitive gaps, warranting teacher training in feedback management and affective mediation.

6.4 The Relationship between Error, Correction, and Progress

Quantitative results established a strong positive correlation between the frequency of explicit teacher correction and measurable learner progress in accuracy and confidence. Feedback effectiveness was contingent upon learner perception where constructive feedback enhanced motivation, while punitive correction hindered engagement.

Immediate correction promoted procedural learning and automatization, whereas delayed feedback facilitated reflection and self-regulation. Together, these processes form a cyclical model of learning, where iterative production, feedback, and adaptation underpin sustainable development (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

6.5 Theoretical and Methodological Implications

Theoretically, the study strengthens the conceptualisation of interlanguage as a dynamic, socially co-constructed system. Errors represent transitional stages in the learner's hypothesis-testing process, while correction constitutes the scaffold that enables restructuring and internalisation. Integrating Interlanguage Theory (Selinker, 1972), Sociocultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978), and Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), the findings affirm that cognitive, social, and emotional dimensions of feedback interact continuously in language learning.

Methodologically, the mixed-methods design of linking micro-level discourse analysis with quantitative outcomes provides an empirical bridge between classroom interaction and SLA development. This dual approach offers a replicable model for future research connecting linguistic behaviour with pedagogical efficacy.

6.6 Pedagogical Implications

Reframe errors as diagnostic tools and treat them as indicators of development rather than failure.

Balance explicit and implicit correction by adjusting to learner proficiency, context, and affective needs.

Integrate pronunciation and listening training to address fossilised forms and improve intelligibility.

Develop feedback literacy among teachers and learners to align perceptions and foster collaborative reflection.

Structure peer feedback carefully, ensuring psychological safety while promoting learner autonomy.

Address omission errors explicitly, recognising their cognitive and grammatical significance.

Cultivate supportive learning climates that respect cultural norms and protect learner identity during correction.

6.7 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The study's conclusions are limited by its single institutional context, modest sample size, and short observation duration. While error frequency was systematically recorded, underlying cognitive and affective processes were inferred rather than directly measured. Cultural homogeneity among participants further constrains generalisability.

Future research should pursue longitudinal, multi-site designs to trace sustained feedback effects, and cross-cultural comparative studies to explore how educational traditions mediate feedback perception. Investigating the psychological mechanisms behind ignoring behaviour and exploring feedback literacy interventions could deepen understanding of how correctional practices translate into durable learning.

6.8 Concluding Remarks

This study reaffirms that errors and corrections are not peripheral disruptions but core mechanisms of language learning. Errors illuminate the evolving structure of interlanguage whereas correction transforms instability into knowledge. Effective pedagogy resides not in eradicating error but in harnessing it and turning missteps into stepping stones of progress.

When feedback is delivered with empathy, clarity, and cultural awareness, it strengthens not only linguistic accuracy but also learner confidence, autonomy, and identity. In the dynamic interplay of form, meaning, and feedback, learning thrives as a dialogic process where error is not a failure, but a necessary and productive stage on the path to communicative competence.

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Appendices

Appendix 2.1: Social psychological aspects of second language acquisition (Gardner, 1979).

Integrative orientation	Interest in FL	Attitudes toward L2 community
Integrativeness		Desire to learn the L2
	Motivation	Motivational intensity
Attitudes toward the learning situation		Attitudes toward learning the L2
Evaluation of the L2 teacher	Evaluation of the L2 course	

Appendix 2.2: Motivation and motivating in the L2 classroom (Dörnyei, 1994).

Language level:	Integrative and instrumental motivational subsystem
Learner level:	Need for achievement
	Self-confidence
	Language use anxiety
	Perceived L2 competence
	Causal attributions
	Self-efficacy
Learning situation level:	
Course specific motivational components	Interest
	Relevance
	Expectancy
	Satisfaction
Teacher-specific motivational components	Affiliative motive
	Authority type
	Direct socialisation: modelling; task presentation; feedback
Group-specific motivational components	Goal orientation
	Norm and reward system
	Group cohesiveness
	Classroom goal structure

Appendix 2.3: Psychology for Language Teachers Framework of L2 Motivation (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Internal factors	**External factors**
Intrinsic interest in activity:	**Significant others:**
Arousal of curiosity	Parents
Optimal degree of challenge	Teachers
Perceived value of activity:	Peers
Personal relevance	**The nature of interaction with significant others:**
Anticipated value of outcomes	Mediated learning experiences
Intrinsic value attributed to the activity	**The nature and amount of feedback:**
Sense of agency:	Rewards
Locus of causality	The nature and amount of appropriate praise
Locus of control: process and outcomes	Punishments and sanctions
Ability to set appropriate goals	**The learning environment:**
Mastery:	Comfort
Feelings of competence	Time of Day/Week/Year
Awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area	Size of class and school
Self-efficacy	**The broader context:**
Self-concept:	Wider family networks
Realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required	The local education system
Personal definitions and judgements of success and failure	Conflicting interests
Self-worth concern	Cultural norms
Learned helplessness	Societal expectations and attitudes
Attitudes:	
To language learning in general	
To the target language	
To the target language community and culture	
Other affective states:	
Confidence	
Anxiety, fear	
Developmental age and stage	
Gender	

Appendix 2.4: A process model of learning motivation in the L2 classroom (Dörnyei, 2001).

Preactional	**Actional**	**Postactional**
Choice	Executive	Retrospective
	Motivational functions	
Set goals	Do tasks	Form causal attributions
	Influences	
Values, outcomes and consequences	Quality	Self-concept beliefs
Attitudes	Autonomy	Received feedback, praise and grades
Beliefs and strategies	Teacher influence	Attributional bias
	Reward and goal structure (competitive/cooperative)	

Appendix 3.1: Observation Chart - Errors

Error Types	**Error Frequency**																																
		Window 1										Window 2										Window 3											
	Peer Group	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T	**1**	**T**	**2**	**T**	**3**	**T**	**4**	**T**	**5**	**T**	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T		
	Time (min)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**20**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	30		
	Tense																																
	Subject-verb																																
	Word order																																
	Grammar																																
	Wrong word																																
	Omission																																
	Addition																																
	Pronunciation																																
	Spelling																																
	Meaning																																
	Start time:																																
	Lapses:																																

Appendix 3.2: Observation Chart - Corrections

Type of correction	**Correction Frequency**																															
		Window 1										Window 2										Window 3									
	Peer Group	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T	**1**	**T**	**2**	**T**	**3**	**T**	**4**	**T**	**5**	**T**	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T
	Time (min)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**20**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	30
	Explicit																														
	Clarify																														
	Elicit																														
	Repeat																														
	Recast																														
	Hint/prompt																														
	Gesture																														
	Ignore																														
	Meta-linguistic																														
	Peer																														
	Start time:																														
	Lapses:																														

Appendix 3.3: Observation Chart - Motivational Factors

	Motivational Factor Frequency																															
		Window 1										Window 2										Window 3									
	Peer Group	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T	**1**	**T**	**2**	**T**	**3**	**T**	**4**	**T**	**5**	**T**	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T
	Time (min)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**20**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	30
Teacher discourse	Autonomy																														
	Cooperation																														
	Scaffolding																														
	Interest																														
Task	Pair work																														
	Group work																														
Encouragement	Praise																														
	Self-correction																														
	Peer correction																														
	Feedback																														
Behaviour	Eager volunteering																														
	Participation																														
	Attention																														
	Start time:																														
	Lapses:																														

Adapted from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2007).

Appendix 3.4: Observation Chart - Error, Correction and Self-Concept

Window ___ (___ - ___ Minutes)

Error Type	**Start:**	Error Frequency										Correction Type	Correction Frequency										Encouragement and Behaviour Type	Encouragement and Behaviour Mode Frequency									
	Peer Group	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T			1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T			1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T
	Time (min)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Tense												Explicit												Praise										
	Subject-verb												Clarify												Eager volunteering										
	Word order												Elicit												Hesitant volunteering										
	Grammar												Repeat												Encouraged volunteer										
	Wrong word												Recast												Willing Participation										
	Omission												Hint/prompt												Unwilling Participation										
	Addition												Gesture												Non-participation										
	Pronunciation												Ignore												Focused attention										
	Spelling												Meta-linguistic												Unfocused attention										
	Meaning												Peer												Distraction										

Appendix 3.5: Observation Instrument - Classroom Situation and Dynamics Chart

Classroom Subject: DTG: Teacher:

Peer Group:

1: A - / B - Seating Positions:

2: A - / B -

3: A - / B -

4: A - / B -

5: A - / B -

Appendix 3.6: Observation Chart - Error, Correction and Behavioural Responses

Window ___ (___ - ___ Minutes)

Error Type	**Start:**	Error Frequency										Correction Type	Correction Frequency										Behaviour Type	Behaviour Type Frequency									
	Peer Group	1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T			1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T			1	T	2	T	3	T	4	T	5	T
	Time (min)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Omission: Phonological												Recast												Reactive volunteering										
	Omission: Morphological												Prompt												Unreactive volunteering										
	Omission: Lexical												Ignore												Active Participation										
	Pronunciation												Explicit												Non-participation										
	Tense												Repeat												Focused attention										
	Word order												Meta-linguistic												Unfocused attention										
	Wrong word																																		
	Addition: Phonological																																		
	Addition: Morphological																																		
	Addition: Lexical																																		
	Meaning																																		

Appendix 3.7: Codification Tables

Pilot Coding Grids (Adapted from Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Yucel, 2000; Harmer, 2007)

1. Errors

Error Types	Code	Example	Reason	Tally
Spoken				
Tense	T	I **have seen** him yesterday.		
Concord (Subject-verb)	C	**People is** angry.		
Word order	WO	I **like very much** it.		
Meaning	M?	That is a **very excited photograph**.		
Pronunciation	P	I l**[i:]**ve in Japan.		
Spelling	S	The **polit** flew the plane.		
Omission	ʌ	He told **ʌ** that he was sorry.		
Addition/ Unnecessary	A+	He was not **too** strong enough.		
Wrong word/ choice	WW	I am interested **on** jazz music.		
Grammar	G	I bought some new furniture**s**.		
Wrong phrase	WP	I am as happy **like a bird.**		
Question/Answer disparity	QA	How much time is there left? **£25.00**		

2. Corrective Behaviours (Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Yucel, 2000)

Type of correction	Code	Explanation	Tally
explicit	X	S: 'The dog runs fastly.' T: **'Fastly is not a real word.' 'That's why I said quickly.'** Or ('Oh, you mean quickly?'; 'You should say quickly.').	
clarify	K	Requires repetition or reformulation e.g. T: 'How often do you wash the dishes?' S: 'Fourteen.' T: 'Excuse me? **Fourteen what?'**	
elicit	L	Information solicited from a student by a teacher directly: 1. The teacher elicits completion of their own utterance ('It's a…..') 2. Questions are used to elicit correct forms ('How do we say…….in English?') 3. Reformulation of utterance: S: 'My father cleans the plate.' T: **'He cleans the……..?'** S: 'Plates?'	
repeat	2	To say again exactly. S: 'He's in the bathroom.' T: **'Bathroom?'** S: 'Sorry, he's in the bedroom.'	
recast	R	Errors are repeated in a corrected form, sometimes extended S: 'I want eat.' T: **'What do [you want <u>to</u> eat]?'**	
Meta-linguistic	M	Describes other language e.g. grammatical terms, rules of syntax, and classroom instructional language. T: '**Go** is the present tense. You need the past tense here.'	
ignore	I	Missed or deliberately missed error. S: 'I **goed** to see a film.' T: Really? Which film did you see?	
Gesture/expression	J	Non-verbal facial or body movements conveying meaning (often accompanies verbal communication).	
self	SC	Your own immediate or delayed unsolicited correction (sometimes accompanied by apologetic language: 'Oh, I'm sorry! ....').	
Peer/Forum	PC	A classmates' correction by enquiry, review or feedback. S: 'How can it be? I think it's…'	
Hint/Prompt	H	Corrected by starting the answer and letting me finish it. T: 'Yesterday, I……'	
Echo + emphasis	E	Corrected by saying my answer back to me as a question. T: 'You went to the **films**?'	

3. Interaction (Brown & Rodgers, 2002)

Utterances	Tally	Code	Example
Description		D	'There is a picture of a boat on the wall.'
Operation		O	'What do we have to write?'; 'Is that it?'
Filler/Neutral		F	'Erm….'; 'Perhaps…'; 'So…'
Proposal with reasoning		P	'I think this one is best because…'
Proposal without reasoning		P -	'I think this one is best.'
Supportive		S	'Yes.'; 'It seems okay.'; 'Great!'
Non-supportive		S -	'No.'; 'I don't think so.'
Counter-proposal with reasoning		C	'But you wash up before drying. I think 'B' goes first.'
Counter-proposal without reasoning		C -	'No, I think 'A' is first'

4. Observation Data Table (Brown & Rodgers, 2002)

Participant	Utterance	Code	Question no.	Notes

5. Encouragement and Behaviour Mode Table (Harmer, 2007)

Type	Tally	Code
Praise		P
Eager volunteering		V+
Hesitant volunteering		V
Encouraged volunteer		V-
Willing Participation		P+
Unwilling Participation		P-
Non-participation		NP
Focused Attention		A+
Unfocused Attention		A-
Distraction		D

Appendix 3.8: Information Sheet – Questionnaire Instrument

Dear Colleague,

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

I am conducting doctoral research into the type, frequency and outcomes of conversational errors and subsequent corrections in the 'English as a Second Language' (ESL) classroom, and their effect on learning English as a Second Language.

The research value is to help identify strengths and weaknesses in the use of error correction that could be used to address, or reinforce existing data with regard to, learner motivation, needs analysis and testing issues.

The attached questionnaire forms an important part of this research study and I would appreciate it if you could take the time to read, think carefully about your responses, and complete it as honestly as possible. I am only interested in your own opinions. There are no correct or incorrect answers.

Any data collected will only ever be used in conjunction with Durham University School of Education research guidelines and confidentiality is guaranteed as a result. This research study is approved by Durham University's Ethics Advisory Committee. Anonymity is assured because names and candidate numbers are not required in the finalised thesis and will not be available for any subsequent publication of data. The process of collecting data using questionnaire, interview, observation, and testing instruments will require names, which will be coded, but only for the purposes of data triangulation. Any data collected is stored in a password security-protected computer within the sanctum of the university until completion of the research study in 2014.

Participation in research is voluntary and you are free to stop or leave the programme at any time without reason, and without fear of reprisals as a result. You are completely safe and nothing will happen to you if you change your mind.

If you wish to discuss any aspect of this research study or this questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me. I hope you feel encouraged to get involved and enjoy participating in this research study. Thank you in advance for your vital contribution and cooperation.

If you have any complaints about any aspect of this study please contact: Professor P. Tymms at the School of Education; Tel: 0191 334 8413; Email: Peter.Tymms@cem.dur.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

John David Anderson

Contact details: j.d.anderson@dur.ac.uk

Appendix 3.9: Consent Request Form

CONSENT REQUEST FORM

TITLE OF PROJECT: Peer/Teacher error correction during classroom English second language learning conversation, post-listening and speaking test feedback, and the effect on self-concept and learning.

(The participant should complete the whole of this sheet himself/herself)

	Please cross out as necessary
Have you read the Participant Information Sheet?	YES / NO
Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and to discuss the study?	YES / NO
Have you received satisfactory answers to all of your questions?	YES / NO
Have you received enough information about the study?	YES / NO
Are you aware of, and consent to, making tape and video recordings for research purposes, which will be used until the end of the project?	YES / NO
Who have you spoken to? Dr/Mr/Mrs/Ms/Prof.	
Do you consent to participate in the study?	YES / NO
Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study: * at any time and * without having to give a reason for withdrawing and * without affecting your position in the University?	YES / NO

Signed .....…….... **Date** .....

(NAME IN BLOCK LETTERS) .....…….....

Appendix 3.10: Questionnaire Instrument

Survey Instrument

The purpose of this classroom-based research is to identify the effect error correction during peer interaction has on learning English as a Second Language.

Your anonymity is assured. Please answer all questions.

There are no correct or incorrect answers. Your opinion is all I am interested in.

Name: Date of Birth: Gender: Male/Female

Nationality: First Language:

English Language Level: IELTS __.__ Number of years studying English: _____

I. Self -assessment Errors

Please **circle** the number which most closely represents your feelings:

1. I often make singular/plural errors. Example: I bought some new furniture**s** (furniture).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

2. I often miss words out. Example: **I going** to the shop (I am going to the shop).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

3. I often miss parts of words out. Example: He likes **swim** (swimming).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

4. I often add extra incorrect words. Example: I am going **to** home. (I am going home).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

5. I often make tense errors. Example: I **see** (saw) the teacher yesterday.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

6. I often have a problem with pronunciation.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

7. I often choose the wrong word to use in a sentence.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

II. Teacher Correction Types

8. I would like the teacher to correct me directly.

E.g. Teacher: "No, London is not the capital of France. London is the capital of England."

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

9. I would like the teacher to correct me indirectly.

E.g. Student: "I **goed** to the shop." Teacher: "Oh, you went to the shop, did you?"

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

10. I would like the teacher to ignore my mistakes.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

III. Self-concept

11. When my teacher corrects me I feel comfortable.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

12. When my teacher corrects me I feel I must try harder.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

13. When my pair-work partner corrects me I feel comfortable.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

14. When my pair-work partner corrects me I feel I must try harder.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

IV. Peer Interaction

15. It is normal practice to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

16. It is normal practice for my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

17. I would like my pair-work partner to correct my errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

18. I am happy to correct my pair-work partner's errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

19. I would like my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

20. I am happy to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

Thank you for your co-operation

Appendix 3.11: Questionnaire Instrument (Teacher)

Survey Instrument (Teacher)

The purpose of this classroom-based research is to identify the effect error correction during peer interaction has on learning English as a Second Language from a teacher's perspective.

Your anonymity is assured.

There are no correct or incorrect answers. Your opinion is all I am interested in.

I. Self -assessment Errors

Please **circle** the number which most closely represents your feelings:

1. Students often make singular/plural errors. Example: I bought some new furniture**s** (furniture).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

2. Students often miss words out. Example: **I going** to the shop (I am going to the shop).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

3. Students often miss parts of words out. Example: He likes **swim** (swimming).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

4. Students often add extra incorrect words. Example: I am going **to** home. (I am going home).

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

5. Students often make tense errors. Example: I **see** (saw) the teacher yesterday.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

6. Students often have a problem with pronunciation.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

7. Students often choose the wrong word to use in a sentence.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

II. Teacher Correction Types

8. I often correct students directly.

E.g. Teacher: "No, London is not the capital of France. London is the capital of England."

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

9. I often correct students indirectly.

E.g. Student: "I **goed** to the shop." Teacher: "Oh, you went to the shop, did you?"

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

10. I often ignore students' mistakes.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

III. Self-concept

11. Students appear to feel comfortable whenever they are being corrected.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

12. Students appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

13. Pair-work partners appear to feel comfortable whenever they correct one another.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

14. Pair-work partners appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected by one another.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

IV. Peer Interaction

15. It appears to be normal practice for pair-work partners to ignore one another's errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

16. Students would like their pair-work partners to correct their errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

17. Students are happy to correct their pair-work partner's errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

18. Students would like their pair-work partners to ignore their errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

19. Students are happy to ignore their pair-work partner's errors.

Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Agree

Thank you for your co-operation

Appendix 3.12: Questionnaire Instrument (Chinese)

调查表

这份课堂问卷的目的是为了研究及时纠正错误对于学习者的影响。关于此问卷，没有标准的答案。我所感兴趣的是您的观点。

姓名：　　生日：　　性别：

国籍：　　母语：

英语等级：　　学英语多长时间了：

一：自我评价

请在最能表达您感觉的数字上画圈。

1. 我经常犯时态上的错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

2. 我经常混淆单词的顺序。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

3. 我很难理解正确的句意。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

4. 我经常在发音上犯错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

5. 我经常犯语法错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

6. 我经常在句子里使用错误的单词。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

二：教师纠正错误的方法

7. 我喜欢老师能够通过用正确的形式重复我所说过的句子从而纠正我的错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

8. 我喜欢老师明确的告诉我，我是错的然后再告诉我正确的答案来纠正我的错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7　同意

9. 我喜欢老师能够把答案引出一个开头然后让我完成从而纠正我的错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

10. 我喜欢老师通过使用术语来解释答案。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

11. 我喜欢老师通过让其他同学修改我的答案来纠正我的错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

12. 我喜欢让老师给我多一点的时间以便于我自己纠正错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

三：自我感觉

请在能代表你被纠正错误时的感受的区域打“X”

当我犯的错误被纠正的时候，我感觉……

13. 不高兴 __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ 高兴

14. 更有动力 __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ 缺乏动力

15. 缺乏兴趣 __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ 更有兴趣

16. 我必须更加努力 __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ 我想要放弃

四:同伴所产生的影响。

请在最能表达您需要的数字上画圈。

17. 我喜欢在课堂上做更多两人的互动练习。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

18. 我喜欢我的同伴纠正我的错误。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

19. 我希望我的同伴和我一个性别。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

20. 我的同伴应该比我大。
   不同意　1　2　3　4　5　6　7 同意

多谢您的合作。

Appendix 3.13: Information Sheet – Interview Instrument

Dear Colleague,

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

I am conducting doctoral research into the type, frequency and outcomes of conversational errors and subsequent corrections in the 'English as a Second Language' (ESL) classroom, and their effect on self-concept and learning English as a Second Language.

The research value is to help identify strengths and weaknesses in the use of error correction that could be used to address, or reinforce existing data with regard to, learner motivation, needs analysis and testing issues.

An interview forms an important part of this research study and I would appreciate it if you could take the time to participate, think carefully about your responses, and answer as honestly as possible. I am only interested in your own opinions. There are no correct or incorrect answers.

Any data collected will only ever be used in conjunction with Durham University School of Education research guidelines and confidentiality is guaranteed as a result. This research study is approved by Durham University's Ethics Advisory Committee. Anonymity is assured because names and candidate numbers are not required in the finalised thesis and will not be available for any subsequent publication of data. The process of collecting data using questionnaire, interview, observation, and testing instruments will require names, which will be coded, but only for the purposes of data triangulation. Any data collected is stored in a password security protected computer within the sanctum of the university until completion of the research study in 2014.

Participation in research is voluntary and you are free to stop or leave the programme at any time without reason, and without fear of reprisals as a result. You are completely safe and nothing will happen to you if you change your mind.

If you wish to discuss any aspect of this research study, please do not hesitate to contact me. I hope you feel encouraged to get involved and enjoy participating in this research study. Thank you in advance for your vital contribution and cooperation.

If you have any complaints about any aspect of this study please contact: Professor P. Tymms at the School of Education; Tel: 0191 334 8413; Email: Peter.Tymms@cem.dur.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

John David Anderson

Contact details: j.d.anderson@dur.ac.uk

Appendix 3.14: Interview Instrument

Interview Schedule: Error Correction

The purpose of this classroom-based research is to identify the effect error correction during peer interaction has on learning English as a Second Language.

Your anonymity is assured.

There are no correct or incorrect answers. Your opinion is the only answer I am interested in.

Error Types

1. Which types of speaking errors are common in your classroom?

Correction Types

2. Which method of correction is common in the classroom?

3. Is there any one error correction method which you consider most beneficial to improving actual learning in the long term? If so, please specify.

Motivation/Self-concept

4. Would you say learners' prior learning ability/age/gender/ and self-concept relates to making different errors?

5. Would you say learners' prior learning ability/age/gender/and self-concept relates to making more errors?

6. Would you say learners' prior learning ability/age/gender/and self-concept relates to reacting differently to corrections?

Peer interaction

7. Is there a noticeable difference in the type of errors committed during peer interaction compared to teacher/student interactions?

8. Is there a noticeable difference in the number of errors committed during peer interaction compared to teacher/student interactions?

9. How common is omission during peer interaction?

10. Which types of correction are commonly employed during peer interaction?

11. How often are errors ignored during peer interaction?

12. Do you think peer correction has any impact on the motivation of peers during peer interaction? In what way?

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix 3.15: Testing Instrument - Listening

Listening

Academic Format based on New Headway Pre-intermediate, ESOL (KET/PET) and IELTS common testing characteristics.

Part 1: Listening Comprehension

You have two minutes to read the comprehension questions.

You are now going to hear a passage. Listen carefully, take notes and write your answers.

(Transcript)

Charles Lindbergh was born in Detroit, USA on 4th February 1902. He began flying in 1922. Four years later he worked as an airmail pilot flying between Chicago and Saint Louis.

In 1927 he entered a competition to fly non-stop from New York to Paris. The prize for doing this was $25,000. He left Long Island on 20th May 1927 in his single-engine plane, 'The Spirit of Saint Louis'. Thirtythree and a half hours later he landed at Le Bourget Airport in Paris after flying nearly 6,000 kilometres. He had become the first man to fly solo across the Atlantic Ocean.

When he returned to America he was given an important medal by the President. However, he also had some sadness in his life. In 1932 his two-year-old son was kidnapped and murdered. During World War Two he worked for the American Air Force.

Lindbergh died in Hawaii in 1974 at the age of 72.

Answer the following questions.

1. Where was Charles Lindbergh born?
2. Charles Lindbergh began flying in a) 1902 b) 1922 c) 1927.
3. What job did he do in 1926?
4. How much was the prize for flying across the Atlantic?
5. Write True or False: Lindbergh's plane was called 'The Spirit of Chicago'.
6. When did he set off on his flight across the Atlantic?
7. How long did it take him to fly across the Atlantic?
8. Complete the sentence: On his return to America the _____ gave him an important _____.
9. What happened to his son in 1932?
10. When did Charles Lindbergh die?

You have two minutes to continue writing your answers.

You will now hear the passage again so that you can check what you have written.

One mark for each correct answer. Total: 10 marks.

Part 2: Dictation

You are now going to hear a short passage. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

(Transcript)

Today people are moving from small villages in the country to large cities. They leave the fields and rivers for the noisy city streets. People usually move to find new work. They need houses to live in, schools for their children, hospitals when they are ill and shops to buy things. But what is the future of the cities? Some cities will become smaller as people move back to the country because they cannot find jobs.

Total: 5 marks. One mark deducted for every 5 errors.

Now you will hear the passage again and you must write down what you hear.

Now you will hear the passage again so that you can check what you have written.

Part 3: Spelling

Listen to the words you hear and write them carefully. You will hear each word twice.

(Transcript)

Accommodation environment recommend responsibility resources message emergency investigate passenger technology.

Total: 5 marks. ½ mark for each correct spelling.

Part 4: Information Transfer

Listen to the passage about the Jaguar GR 1A aircraft and complete the table. You will hear the passage twice. You now have one minute to study the table.

Name: Jaguar GR 1A

Wing Span:

Length: 15.5 metres

First flew:

Engines:

Maximum speed: 1,600kph

Weapons: 1) Two 30mm cannons 2) _____ 3) Two Sidewinder missiles

Attack radius: 1,300 kilometres

Number in the Air Force:

One mark for each correct answer. Total: 5 marks.

(Transcript)

The Jaguar GR 1A is an Anglo-French strike aircraft that can also be used as a trainer. It has a length of 15.5 metres and a wing-span of 8.5 metres. Its two Adour turbo-jet engines give it a maximum speed of 1,600 kilometres per hour. Its weapons consist of two 30-millimetre cannons, eight 500-kilogramme bombs and two Sidewinder missiles. It has an attack radius of 1,300 kilometres.

The Jaguar first flew in 1973. The Royal Air Force of Oman has a squadron of 12 Jaguars based at Thumrait.

Listening Paper Total: 25 marks.

Appendix 3.16: Testing Instrument - Speaking and Listening

Speaking and Listening Test Format

Based on Cambridge Listening Tests.

Part 1.

Student A: Ask then answer 5 questions. Card: Name? Date of birth? Where from? Family? Hobbies?

Part 2.

Student B: Answer then ask 5 questions. Card: Name? Age? Nationality? Brothers? Job?

Part 3.

Student A to B: Information exchange. Bookshop/Supermarket; Horse riding/Swimming.

Part 4.

Student B to A: Information exchange. Bookshop/Supermarket; Horse riding/Swimming.

Part 5.

Describe a picture/photograph.

Appendix 3.17: Information Sheet - Testing

Dear Colleague,

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

I am conducting doctoral research into the type, frequency and outcomes of conversational errors and subsequent corrections in the 'English as a Second Language' (ESL) classroom, and their effect on self-concept and learning English as a Second Language.

The research value is to help identify strengths and weaknesses in the use of error correction that could be used to address, or reinforce existing data with regard to, learner motivation, needs analysis and testing issues.

A listening test forms an important part of this research study and I would appreciate it if you could take the time to participate, think carefully about your responses, and answer as correctly as possible.

Any data collected will only ever be used in conjunction with Durham University School of Education research guidelines and confidentiality is guaranteed as a result. This research study is approved by Durham University's Ethics Advisory Committee. Anonymity is assured because names and candidate numbers are not required in the finalised thesis and will not be available for any subsequent publication of data. The process of collecting data using questionnaire, interview, observation, and testing instruments will require names, which will be coded, but only for the purposes of data triangulation. Any data collected is stored in a password security protected computer within the sanctum of the university until completion of the research study in 2014.

Participation in research is voluntary and you are free to stop or leave the programme at any time without reason, and without fear of reprisals as a result. You are completely safe and nothing will happen to you if you change your mind.

If you wish to discuss any aspect of this research study, please do not hesitate to contact me. I hope you feel encouraged to get involved and enjoy participating in this research study. Thank you in advance for your vital contribution and cooperation.

If you have any complaints about any aspect of this study please contact: Professor P. Tymms at the School of Education; Tel: 0191 334 8413; Email: Peter.Tymms@cem.dur.ac.uk

Yours sincerely,

John David Anderson

Contact details: j.d.anderson@dur.ac.uk

Appendix 3.18: Testing Instrument - Listening

Listening Test Paper Name:

Part 1.

You are now going to hear a short passage. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Tony (1) _____ two brothers and a sister. (2) _____ brothers are called James and Jack, and (3) _____ sister is called Sally. Tony is (4) _____oldest and Jack is the youngest. James and Sally (5) _____ twins and they are both fourteen (6) _____old. Jack is younger than his twin sister because he (7) _____ born a few minutes after (8) _____.

Now you will hear the passage again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 8 marks.

Part 2.

You are now going to hear a short passage. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Let's see what they are doing now.

Tony (9) _____ going to the newsagent's (10) _____ buy a newspaper and a computer magazine. Jack is writing on paper because it (11) _____ a long time since he wrote a letter to anyone. James has been (12) _____ for a week, but he feels better because he (13) _____ to bed early last night. Sally is (14) _____ some make-up because she (15) _____ to look beautiful.

Now you will hear the passage again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 7 marks.

Part 3.

You are now going to hear a short conversation. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Peter: "Hello Tony! What are (16) _____doing here?"

Tony: "I (17) _____ waiting for a friend."

Peter: "That girl with the short (18) _____ is one of my friends. She's (19) _____ student."

Tony: "Where (20) _____ she go on Saturdays?"

Peter: "Why (21) _____ you ask her yourself?"

Tony: "(22) _____ rather not."

Peter: "(23) _____ is this bag?"

Tony: "It's (24) _____! Do you like those buildings over there, the ones with the interesting (25) _____?"

Peter: "Yes, I go shopping there every week. I'm going to buy a pair of (26) _____ like (27) _____ later."

Tony: "Oh! By the way, (28) _____ that café like?"

Peter: "It's no (29) _____ to any other! Come on! Let's have (30) _____ large coffee with two (31) _____ of sugar, and a slice of cake?"

Tony: "I would if I could, but I can't. (32) _____ it expensive?"

Peter: "The coffee is (33) _____ expensive (34) _____ the cake. But it's still cheaper than pizza!"

Tony: "Thank you, but I think I'll (35) _____ home."

Now you will hear the conversation again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 20 marks.

Part 4.

You are now going to hear a short conversation. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Lucy: "Oh dear! Sally (36) _____ eat fish."

Sue: "Neither does John. He hardly ever (37) _____ bread or (38) _____ either. He must suffer from some kind of allergy. If I'd (39) _____ about it earlier I would've told you. He was talking about something important, but I (40) _____ hear what he was saying. I (41) _____ never heard him speak clearly."

Lucy: "What (42) _____ does it make? Send him to (43) _____ Take-away to buy some steamed (44) _____, mixed fried rice, or noodles.

Sue: "How long does it take to get there and back?"

Lucy: "Oh, we usually take between 30 to 40 minutes (45) _____ foot, but it takes less than a quarter of (46) _____ hour by car. If he (47) _____ soon, he'll avoid the rush-hour traffic."

Sue: "What time is it now?"

Lucy: "Oh no! It's almost half-past five. It's (48) _____ late!"

Sue: "Forget it! It'll (49) _____ easier to make them (50) _____ egg sandwiches."

Now you will hear the conversation again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 15 marks.

Listening Paper Total: 50 marks.

Appendix 3.19: Testing Instrument – Listening Transcript

Listening Test Paper (Transcript)

Part 1.

You are now going to hear a short passage. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Tony has two brothers and a sister. Tony's brothers are called James and Jack, and his sister is called Sally. Tony is the oldest and Jack is the youngest. James and Sally are twins and they are both fourteen years old. Jack is younger than his twin sister because he was born a few minutes after her.

Now you will hear the passage again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 8 marks.

Part 2.

You are now going to hear a short passage. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Let's see what they are doing now. Tony is going to the newsagent's to buy a newspaper and a computer magazine. Jack is writing on paper because it has been a long time since he wrote a letter to anyone. James has been unwell for a week, but he feels better because he went to bed early last night. Sally is putting on some make-up because she wants to look beautiful.

Now you will hear the passage again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 7 marks.

Part 3.

You are now going to hear a short conversation. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Peter: "Hello Tony! What are you doing?"

Tony: "I am waiting for a friend."

Peter: "That girl with the short hair is one of my friends. She's a student."

Tony: "Where does she go on Saturdays?"

Peter: "Why don't you ask her yourself?"

Tony: "I'd rather not."

Peter: "Whose is this bag?"

Tony: "It's mine! Do you like those buildings over there, the ones with the interesting roofs?"

Peter: "Yes, I go shopping there every week. I'm going to buy a pair of trousers like yours later."

Tony: "Oh! By the way, what's that café like?"

Peter: "It's no different to any other! Come on! Let's have a large coffee with two spoons of sugar and a slice of cake?"

Tony: "I would if I could, but I can't. Isn't it expensive?"

Peter: "The coffee is as expensive as the cake. But it's still cheaper than pizza"

Tony: "Thank you, but I think I'll go home."

Now you will hear the conversation again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 20 marks.

Part 4.

You are now going to hear a short conversation. Listen carefully. Do not write anything now.

Lucy: "Oh dear! Sally doesn't eat fish."

Sue: "Neither does John. He hardly ever eats bread or potatoes either. He must suffer from some kind of allergy. If I'd known about it earlier, I would've told you. He was talking about something important, but I couldn't hear what he was saying. I have never heard him speak clearly."

Lucy: "What difference does it make? Send him to the Take-away to buy some steamed vegetables, mixed fried rice, or noodles.

Sue: "How long does it take to get there and back?"

Lucy: "Oh, we usually take between 30 to 40 minutes on foot, but it takes less than a quarter of an hour by car. If he goes soon, he'll avoid the rush-hour traffic."

Sue: "What time is it now?"

Lucy: "Oh no! It's almost half-past five. It's too late!"

Sue: "Forget it! It'll be easier to make them egg sandwiches."

Now you will hear the conversation again. You must write the missing words in the gaps provided.

Now you have one minute to check what you have written.

One mark for each correctly numbered item. Total: 15 marks.

Listening Paper Total: 50 marks.

Appendix 4.0: Summary Tables of Error Types by PI/TI by Class

Table 4.0.1: Summary of Error Type Tally by PI/TI by Class

Class		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		Total	Total
Interaction		PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI
Error Type	Addition	229	87	4	140	38	84	27	414	35	70	19	177	145	46	5	36	25	50	19	74	546	1178
	Pronunciation	111	56	3	76	33	61	9	144	27	45	2	62	135	107	23	149	159	110	40	116	542	926
	Omission	60	36	5	72	26	48	4	50	12	14	14	58	64	34	3	28	13	24	24	37	225	401
	Wrong word	24	25	6	38	7	20	4	55	6	23	1	58	26	19	3	28	10	37	11	46	98	349
	Tense	93	32	6	43	10	13	0	52	0	0	1	37	28	8	0	0	1	4	3	2	142	191
	L1	5	4	41	9	2	0	23	0	21	1	35	4	13	1	25	5	1	0	2	0	168	24
	Hesitation	25	15	3	33	15	33	2	34	9	15	2	42	11	2	0	2	1	7	0	7	68	190
	Grammar	23	7	4	16	20	15	2	41	8	6	2	32	24	9	3	4	7	6	2	14	95	150
	Word order	17	4	3	11	12	9	1	8	5	0	6	2	13	2	0	3	1	3	2	1	60	43
	Meaning	13	7	0	9	8	9	3	8	5	0	1	3	5	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	36	37
	Unfinished	8	9	0	4	2	0	0	4	2	1	0	3	9	1	0	2	4	2	0	5	25	31
	Vernacular	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	5	0	0	0	1	4	0	0	8	7
Total PI/TI		609	282	75	452	173	292	75	811	131	176	83	478	478	229	62	258	223	247	104	302	2013	3527
Total Class		891		527		465		886		307		561		707		320		470		406			5540

Table 4.0.2: Summary of Error Type Percentages (Column) by PI/TI by Class

Class		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		Total	Total
Interaction		PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI
Error Type	Addition	37.6	30.9	-	31.0	22.0	28.8	36.0	51.1	26.7	39.8	22.9	37.0	30.3	20.1	-	14.0	11.2	20.2	18.3	24.5	27.1	33.4
	Pronunciation	18.2	19.9	-	16.8	19.1	20.9	-	17.8	20.6	25.6	-	13.0	28.2	46.7	37.1	57.8	71.3	44.5	38.5	38.4	26.9	26.3
	Omission	9.9	12.8	-	15.9	15.0	16.4	-	6.2	9.2	8.0	16.9	12.1	13.4	14.9	-	10.9	5.8	9.7	23.1	12.3	11.2	11.4
	Wrong word	0.3	8.9	-	8.4	-	6.9	-	6.8	-	13.1	-	12.1	5.4	8.3	-	10.9	4.5	15.0	10.6	15.2	4.9	9.9
	Tense	15.3	11.3	-	9.5	5.8	4.5	-	6.4	-	-	-	7.7	5.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.1	5.4
	L1	-	-	54.7	-	-	-	30.7	-	16.0	-	42.2	-	2.7	-	40.3	-	-	-	-	-	8.4	0.7
	Hesitation	4.1	5.3	-	7.3	8.7	11.3	-	4.2	-	8.5	-	8.8	2.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.4	5.4
	Grammar	3.8	-	-	3.5	11.6	5.1	-	5.1	-	-	-	6.7	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.7	4.3
	Word order	2.8	-	-	2.4	6.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.0	1.2
	Meaning	2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.8	1.1
	Unfinished	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.2	0.9
	Vernacular	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total PI/TI																							

(-) denotes cells where percentage values relate to tallies of less than ten occurrences.

Table 4.0.3: Summary of Error Type Percentages (Row) by PI/TI by Class

Class		1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		Total	Total
Interaction		PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI	PI	TI
Error Type	Addition	72.5	27.5	-	97.2	31.2	68.9	6.1	93.9	33.3	66.7	9.7	90.3	75.9	24.1	-	87.8	33.3	66.7	20.4	79.6	31.7	68.3
	Pronunciation	66.5	32.9	-	96.2	35.1	64.9	-	94.1	37.5	62.5	3.1	96.9	55.8	44.2	13.4	86.6	59.1	40.9	25.6	74.4	36.9	63.1
	Omission	62.5	37.5	-	93.5	35.1	64.9	-	92.6	46.2	53.9	19.4	80.6	65.3	34.7	-	90.3	35.1	64.9	39.3	60.7	35.9	64.1
	Wrong word	49	51	-	86.4	-	74.1	-	93.2	-	79.3	-	98.3	57.8	42.2	-	90.3	21.3	78.7	19.3	80.7	21.9	78.1
	Tense	74.4	25.6	-	87.8	43.5	56.5	-	100.0	-	-	-	97.4	77.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	42.6	57.4
	L1	-	-	82.0	-	-	-	100.0	-	95.5	-	89.7	-	92.9	-	83.3	-	-	-	-	-	87.5	12.5
	Hesitation	62.5	37.5	-	91.7	31.3	68.8	-	94.4	-	62.5	-	95.5	84.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	26.4	73.6
	Grammar	76.7	-	-	80.0	57.1	42.9	-	95.4	-	-	-	94.1	72.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	38.8	61.2
	Word order	81.0	-	-	78.6	57.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	86.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	58.3	41.8
	Meaning	65.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	49.3	50.7
	Unfinished	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	44.6	55.4
	Vernacular	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total PI/TI		68.4	31.7	14.2	85.8	37.2	62.8	8.5	91.5	42.7	57.3	14.8	85.2	67.6	32.4	19.4	80.6	47.5	52.6	25.6	74.4	36.3	63.7

(-) denotes cells where percentage values relate to tallies of less than ten occurrences.

Appendix 4.1: Tables of Error Tallies and Percentages by Type and Classroom

Table 4.1.3: Addition Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	229	72.5	87	27.5	316
2	4	2.8	140	97.2	144
3	38	31.2	84	68.9	122
4	27	6.1	414	93.9	441
5	35	33.3	70	66.7	105
6	19	9.7	177	90.3	196
7	145	75.9	46	24.1	191
8	5	13.9	36	87.8	41
9	25	33.3	50	66.7	75
10	19	20.4	74	79.6	93
All A Type Only	546	31.7	1178	68.3	1724
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.4: Pronunciation Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	111	66.5	56	32.9	167
2	3	3.8	76	96.2	79
3	33	35.1	61	64.9	94
4	9	5.9	144	94.1	153
5	27	37.5	45	62.5	72
6	2	3.1	62	96.9	64
7	135	55.8	107	44.2	242
8	23	13.4	149	86.6	172
9	159	59.1	110	40.9	269
10	40	25.6	116	74.4	156
All P Type Only	542	36.9	926	63.1	1468
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.5: Omission Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	60	62.5	36	37.5	96
2	5	6.5	72	93.5	77
3	26	35.1	48	64.9	74
4	4	7.4	50	92.6	54
5	12	46.2	14	53.9	26
6	14	19.4	58	80.6	72
7	64	65.3	34	34.7	98
8	3	9.7	28	90.3	31
9	13	35.1	24	64.9	37
10	24	39.3	37	60.7	61
All ^ Type Only	225	35.9	401	64.1	626
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.6: Wrong Word Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	24	49.0	25	51.0	49
2	6	13.6	38	86.4	44
3	7	25.9	20	74.1	27
4	4	6.8	55	93.2	59
5	6	20.7	23	79.3	29
6	1	1.7	58	98.3	59
7	26	57.8	19	42.2	45
8	3	9.7	28	90.3	31
9	10	21.3	37	78.7	47
10	11	19.3	46	80.7	57
All W Type Only	98	21.9	349	78.1	447
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.7: Tense Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	93	74.4	32	25.6	125
2	6	12.2	43	87.8	49
3	10	43.5	13	56.5	23
4	0	0.0	52	100.0	52
5	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
6	1	2.6	37	97.4	38
7	28	77.8	8	22.2	36
8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
9	1	20.0	4	80.0	5
10	3	60.0	2	40.0	5
All T Type Only	142	42.6	191	57.4	333
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.8: L1 Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	5	55.6	4	44.4	9
2	41	82.0	9	18.0	50
3	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
4	23	100.0	0	0.0	23
5	21	95.5	1	4.6	22
6	35	89.7	4	10.3	39
7	13	92.9	1	7.1	14
8	25	83.3	5	16.7	30
9	1	100.0	0	0.0	1
10	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
All L1 Type Only	168	87.5	24	12.5	192
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.9: Hesitation Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	25	62.5	15	37.5	40
2	3	8.3	33	91.7	36
3	15	31.3	33	68.8	48
4	2	5.6	34	94.4	36
5	9	37.5	15	62.5	24
6	2	4.6	42	95.5	44
7	11	84.6	2	15.4	13
8	0	0.0	2	100.0	2
9	1	12.5	7	87.5	8
10	0	0.0	7	100.0	7
All H Type Only	68	26.4	190	73.6	258
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.10: Grammar Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	23	76.7	7	23.3	30
2	4	20.0	16	80.0	20
3	20	57.1	15	42.9	35
4	2	4.7	41	95.4	43
5	8	57.1	6	42.9	14
6	2	5.9	32	94.1	34
7	24	72.7	9	27.3	33
8	3	42.9	4	57.1	7
9	7	53.9	6	46.2	13
10	2	12.5	14	87.5	16
All G Type Only	95	38.8	150	61.2	245
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.11: Word Order Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	17	81.0	4	19.1	21
2	3	21.4	11	78.6	14
3	12	57.1	9	42.9	21
4	1	11.1	8	88.9	9
5	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
6	6	75.0	2	25.0	8
7	13	86.7	2	13.3	15
8	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
9	1	25.0	3	75.0	4
10	2	66.7	1	33.3	3
All O Type Only	60	58.3	43	41.8	103
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.12: Meaning Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	13	65.0	7	35.0	20
2	0	0.0	9	100.0	9
3	8	47.1	9	52.9	17
4	3	27.3	8	72.7	11
5	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
6	1	25.0	3	75.0	4
7	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
8	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
10	1	100.0	0	0.0	1
All M Type Only	36	49.3	37	50.7	73
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.13: Unfinished Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	8	47.1	9	52.9	17
2	0	0.0	4	100.0	4
3	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
4	0	0.0	4	100.0	4
5	2	66.7	1	33.3	3
6	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
7	9	90.0	1	10.0	10
8	0	0.0	2	100.0	2
9	4	66.7	2	33.3	6
10	0	0.0	5	100.0	5
All U Type Only	25	44.6	31	55.4	56
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.14: Vernacular Errors.

Class	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	1	100.0	0	0.0	1
2	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
4	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
5	1	50.0	1	50.0	2
6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
7	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
9	1	20.0	4	80.0	5
10	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
All V Type Only	8	53.3	7	46.7	15
All Sets Errors	2013	36.3	3527	63.7	5540

Table 4.1.15: Class 1.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
1	P	111	66.5	56	33.5	167
1	W	24	49.0	25	51.0	49
1	T	93	74.4	32	25.6	125
1	A	229	72.5	87	27.5	316
1	^	60	62.5	36	37.5	96
1	G	23	76.7	7	23.3	30
1	O	17	81.0	4	19.1	21
1	H	25	62.5	15	37.5	40
1	U	8	47.1	9	52.9	17
1	V	1	100.0	0	0.0	1
1	N	5	55.6	4	44.4	9
1	M	13	65.0	7	35.0	20
Total		609	68.4	282	31.7	891

Table 4.1.16: Class 2.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
2	P	3	3.8	76	96.2	79
2	W	6	13.6	38	86.4	44
2	T	6	12.2	43	87.8	49
2	A	4	2.8	140	97.2	144
2	^	5	6.5	72	93.5	77
2	G	4	20.0	16	80.0	20
2	O	3	21.4	11	78.6	14
2	H	3	8.3	33	91.7	36
2	U	0	0.0	4	100.0	4
2	V	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
2	N	41	82.0	9	18.0	50
2	M	0	0.0	9	100.0	9
Total		75	14.2	452	85.8	527

Table 4.1.17: Class 3.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
3	P	33	35.1	61	64.9	94
3	W	7	25.9	20	74.1	27
3	T	10	43.5	13	56.5	23
3	A	38	31.2	84	68.9	122
3	^	26	35.1	48	64.9	74
3	G	20	57.1	15	42.9	35
3	O	12	57.1	9	42.9	21
3	H	15	31.3	33	68.8	48
3	U	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
3	V	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
3	N	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
3	M	8	47.1	9	52.9	17
Total		173	37.2	292	62.8	465

Table 4.1.18: Class 4.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
4	P	9	5.9	144	94.1	153
4	W	4	6.8	55	93.2	59
4	T	0	0.0	52	100.0	52
4	A	27	6.1	414	93.9	441
4	^	4	7.4	50	92.6	54
4	G	2	4.7	41	95.4	43
4	O	1	11.1	8	88.9	9
4	H	2	5.6	34	94.4	36
4	U	0	0.0	4	100.0	4
4	V	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
4	N	23	100.0	0	0.0	23
4	M	3	27.3	8	72.7	11
Total		75	8.5	811	91.5	886

Table 4.1.19: Class 5.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
5	P	27	37.5	45	62.5	72
5	W	6	20.7	23	79.3	29
5	T	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
5	A	35	33.3	70	66.7	105
5	^	12	46.2	14	53.9	26
5	G	8	57.1	6	42.9	14
5	O	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
5	H	9	37.5	15	62.5	24
5	U	2	66.7	1	33.3	3
5	V	1	50.0	1	50.0	2
5	N	21	95.5	1	4.6	22
5	M	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
Total		131	42.7	176	57.3	307

Table 4.1.20: Class 6.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
6	P	2	3.1	62	96.9	64
6	W	1	1.7	58	98.3	59
6	T	1	2.6	37	97.4	38
6	A	19	9.7	177	90.3	196
6	^	14	19.4	58	80.6	72
6	G	2	5.9	32	94.1	34
6	O	6	75.0	2	25.0	8
6	H	2	4.6	42	95.5	44
6	U	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
6	V	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
6	N	35	89.7	4	10.3	39
6	M	1	25.0	3	75.0	4
Total		83	14.8	478	85.2	561

Table 4.1.21: Class 7.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
7	P	135	55.8	107	44.2	242
7	W	26	57.8	19	42.2	45
7	T	28	77.8	8	22.2	36
7	A	145	75.9	46	24.1	191
7	^	64	65.3	34	34.7	98
7	G	24	72.7	9	27.3	33
7	O	13	86.7	2	13.3	15
7	H	11	84.6	2	15.4	13
7	U	9	90.0	1	10.0	10
7	V	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
7	N	13	92.9	1	7.1	14
7	M	5	100.0	0	0.0	5
Total		478	67.6	229	32.4	707

Table 4.1.22: Class 8.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
8	P	23	13.4	149	57.8	172
8	W	3	9.7	28	90.3	31
8	T	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
8	A	5	12.2	36	87.8	41
8	^	3	9.7	28	90.3	31
8	G	3	42.9	4	57.1	7
8	O	0	0.0	3	100.0	3
8	H	0	0.0	2	100.0	2
8	U	0	0.0	2	100.0	2
8	V	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
8	N	25	83.3	5	16.7	30
8	M	0	0.0	1	100.0	1
Total		62	19.4	258	80.6	320

Table 4.1.23: Class 9.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
9	P	159	59.1	110	40.9	269
9	W	10	21.3	37	78.7	47
9	T	1	20.0	4	80.0	5
9	A	25	33.3	50	66.7	75
9	^	13	35.1	24	64.9	37
9	G	7	53.9	6	46.2	13
9	O	1	25.0	3	75.0	4
9	H	1	12.5	7	87.5	8
9	U	4	66.7	2	33.3	6
9	V	1	20.0	4	80.0	5
9	N	1	100.0	0	0.0	1
9	M	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Total		223	47.5	247	52.6	470

Table 4.1.24: Class 10.

Class	Error	PI	%	TI	%	Total
10	P	40	25.6	116	74.4	156
10	W	11	19.3	46	80.7	57
10	T	3	60.0	2	40.0	5
10	A	19	20.4	74	79.6	93
10	^	24	39.3	37	60.7	61
10	G	2	12.5	14	87.5	16
10	O	2	66.7	1	33.3	3
10	H	0	0.0	7	100.0	7
10	U	0	0.0	5	100.0	5
10	V	0	0.0	0	0.0	0
10	N	2	100.0	0	0.0	2
10	M	1	100.0	0	0.0	1
Total		104	25.6	302	74.4	406

Appendix 4.2: Charts

Chart 4.2.1: When my teacher corrects me, I feel comfortable.

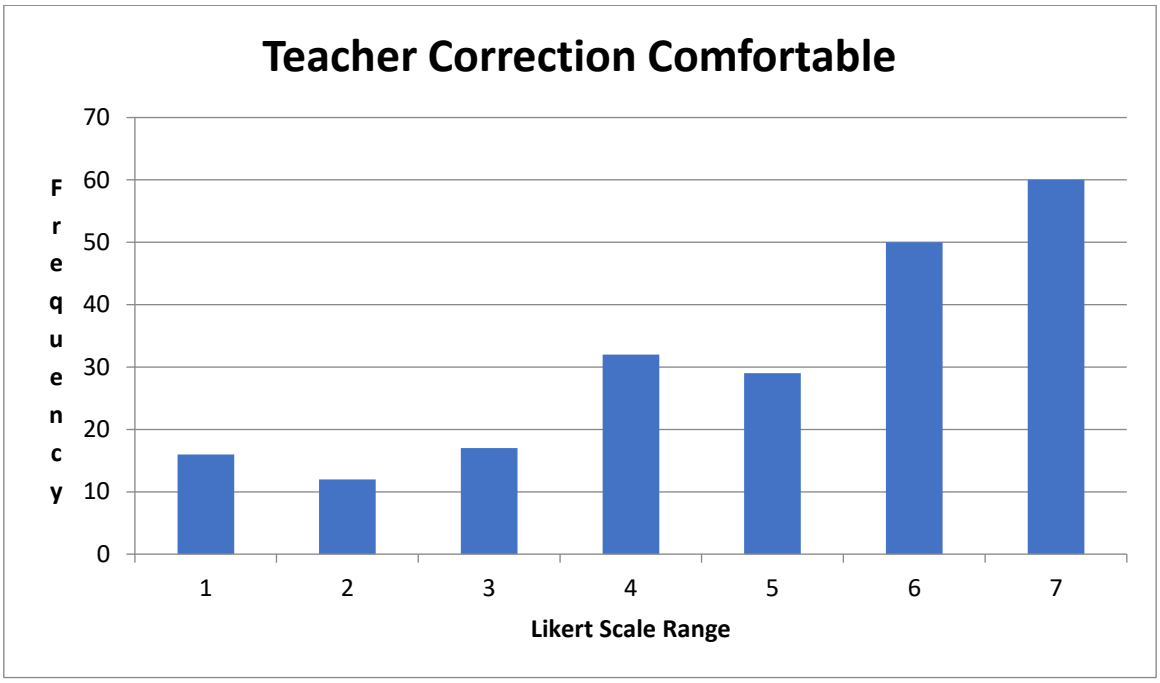

Chart 4.2.2: When my teacher corrects me, I must try harder.

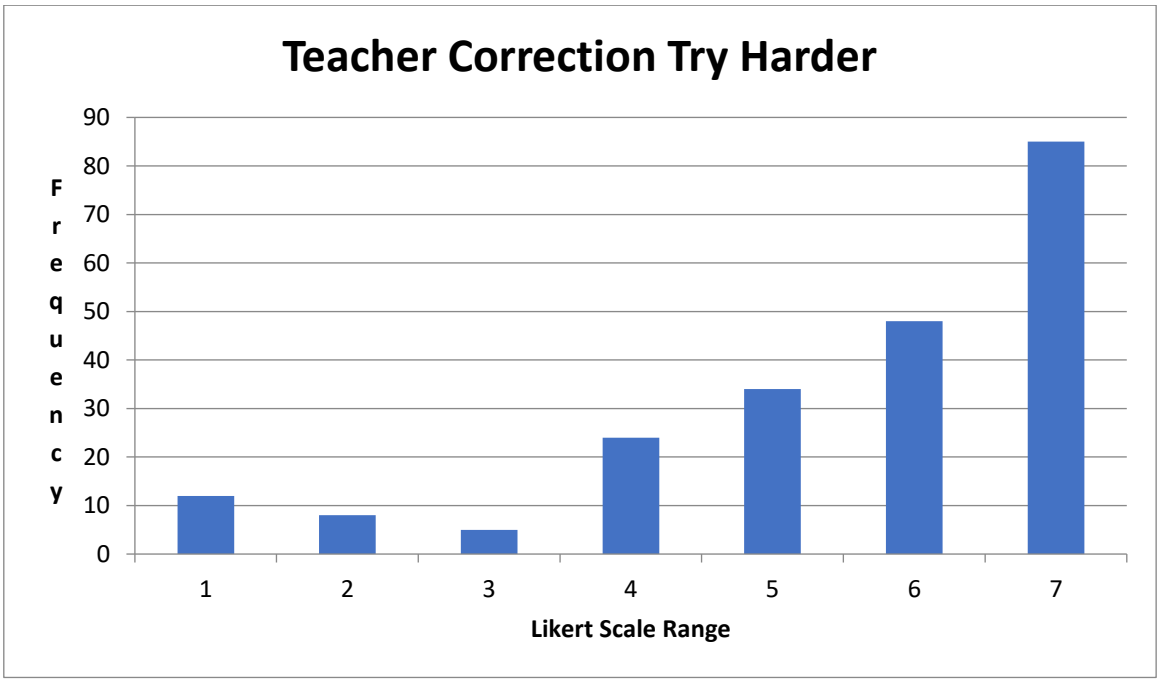

Chart 4.2.3: Question 13: When my pair-work partner corrects me I feel comfortable.

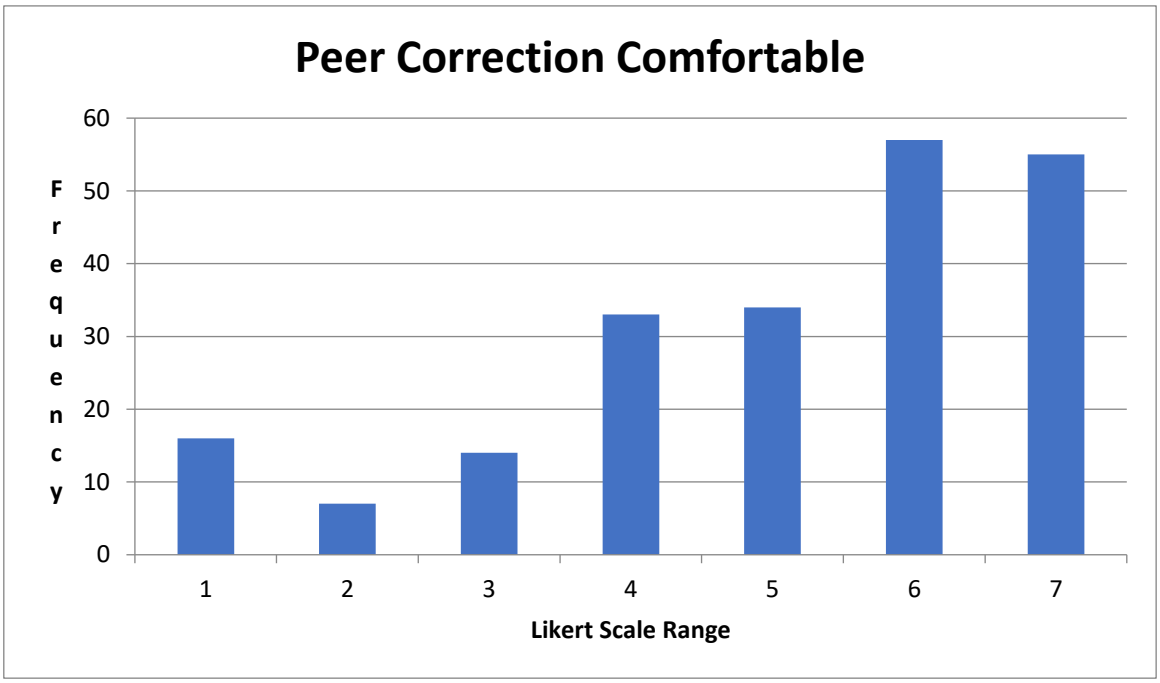

Chart 4.2.4: Question14: When my pair-work partner corrects me, I must try harder.

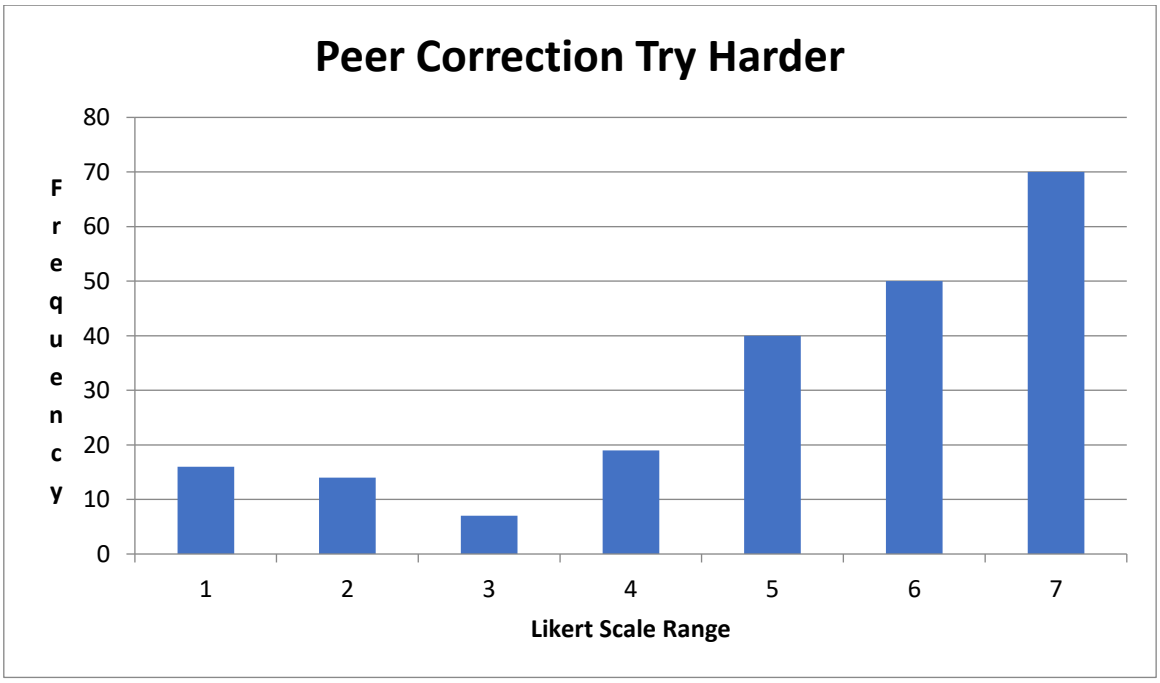

Chart 4.2.5: Question17: I would like my pair-work partner to correct my errors.

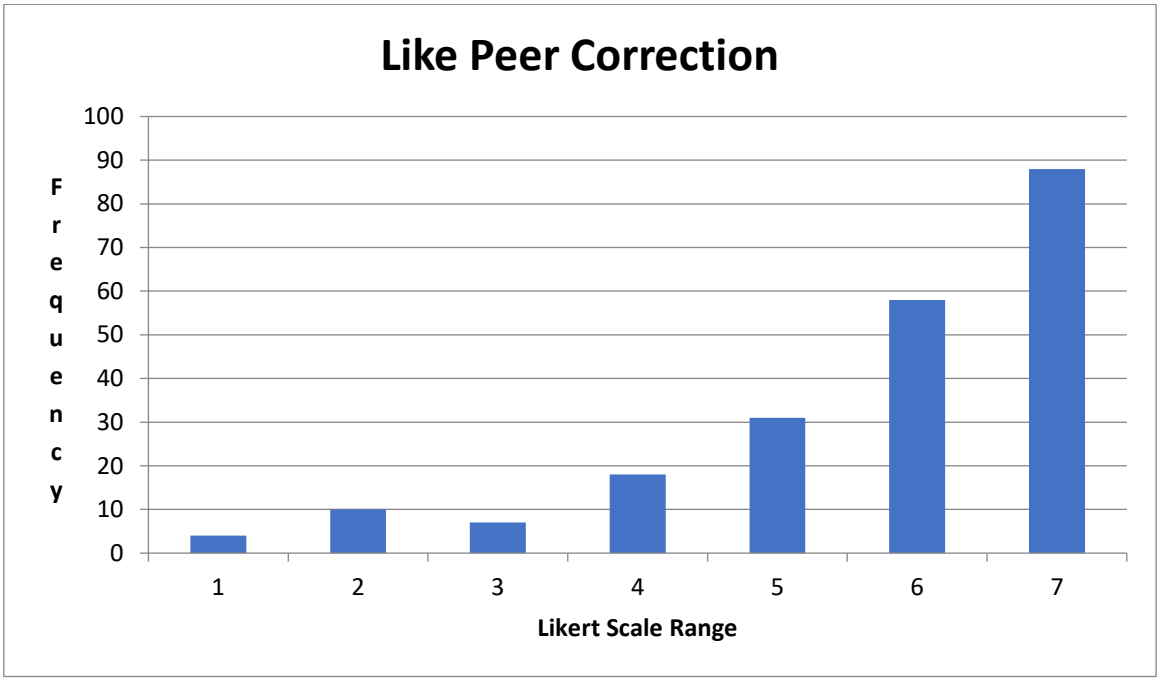

Chart 4.2.6: Question18: I am happy to correct my pair-work partner's errors.

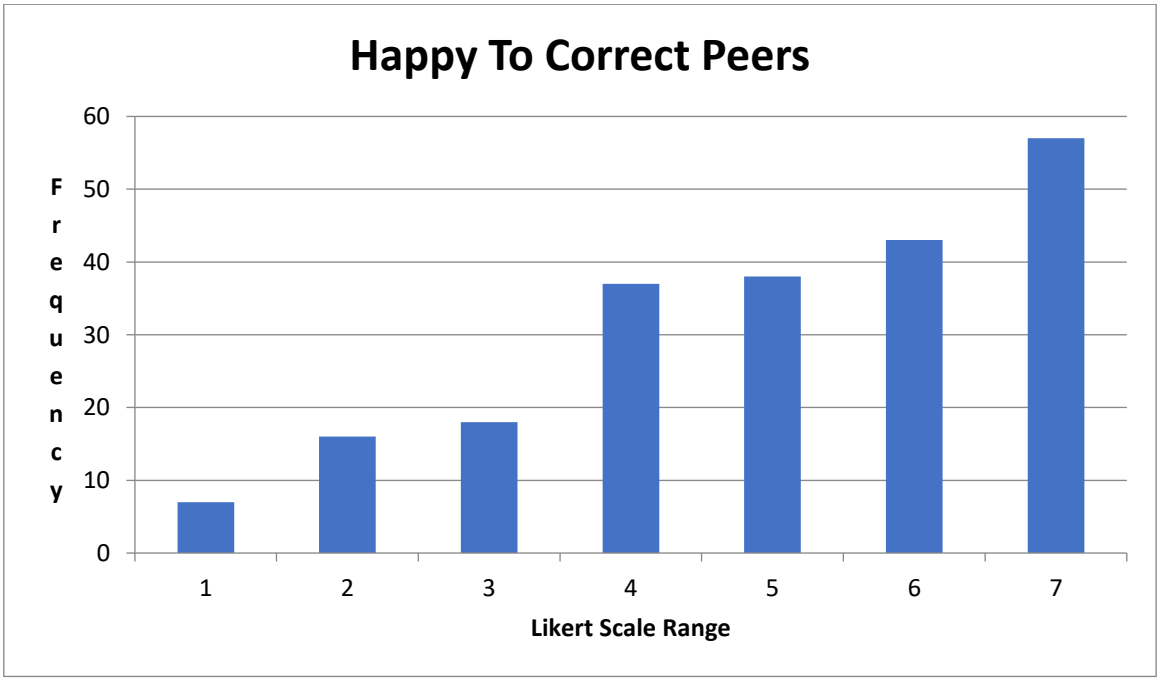

Chart 4.2.7: Students appear to feel comfortable whenever they are being corrected.

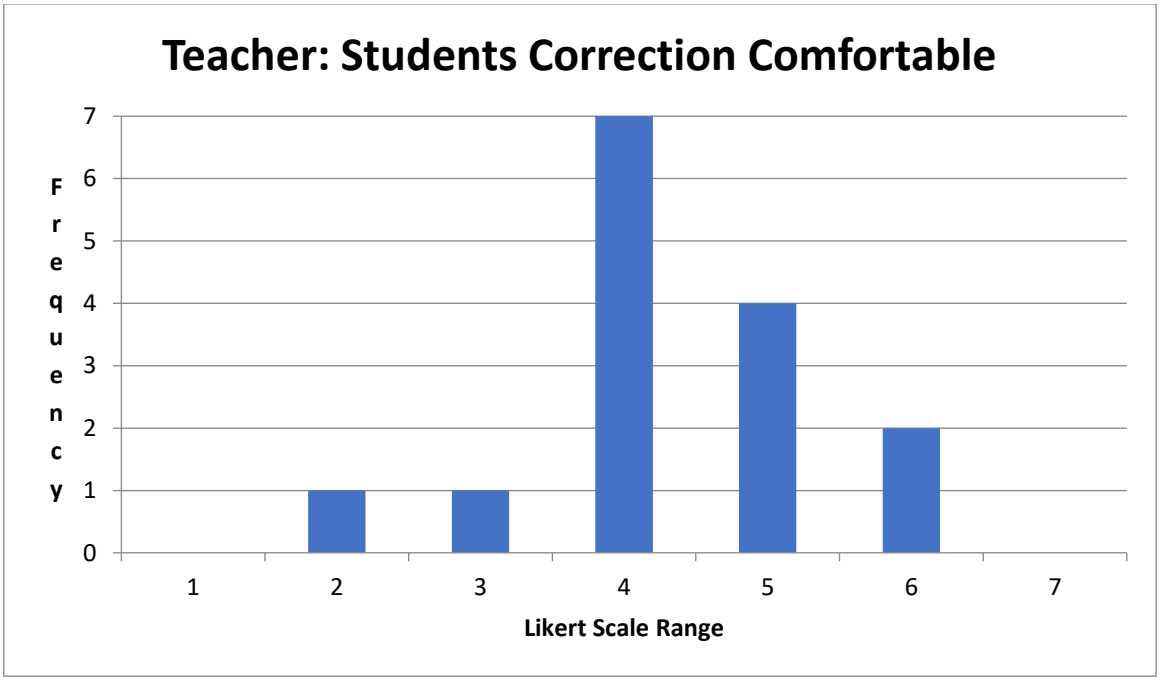

Chart 4.2.8: Students appear to feel they must try harder whenever they are being corrected.

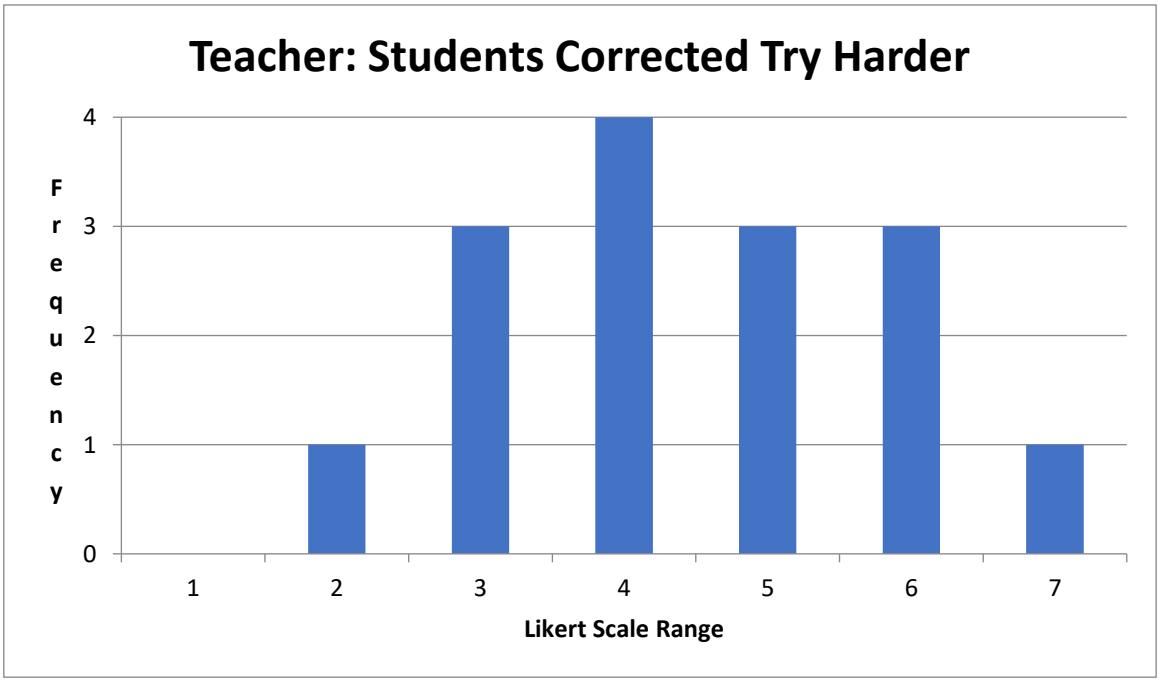

Chart 4.2.9: Pair-work partners appear to feel comfortable whenever they corrected o another.

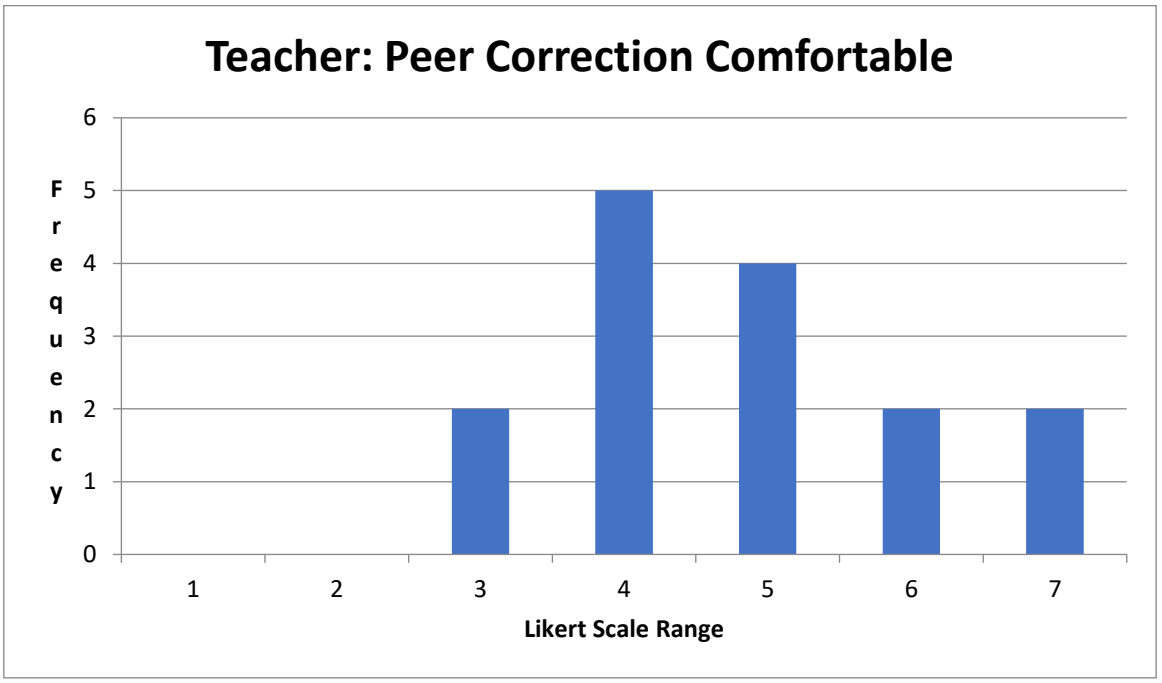

Chart 4.2.11: Students would like their pair-work partners to correct their errors.

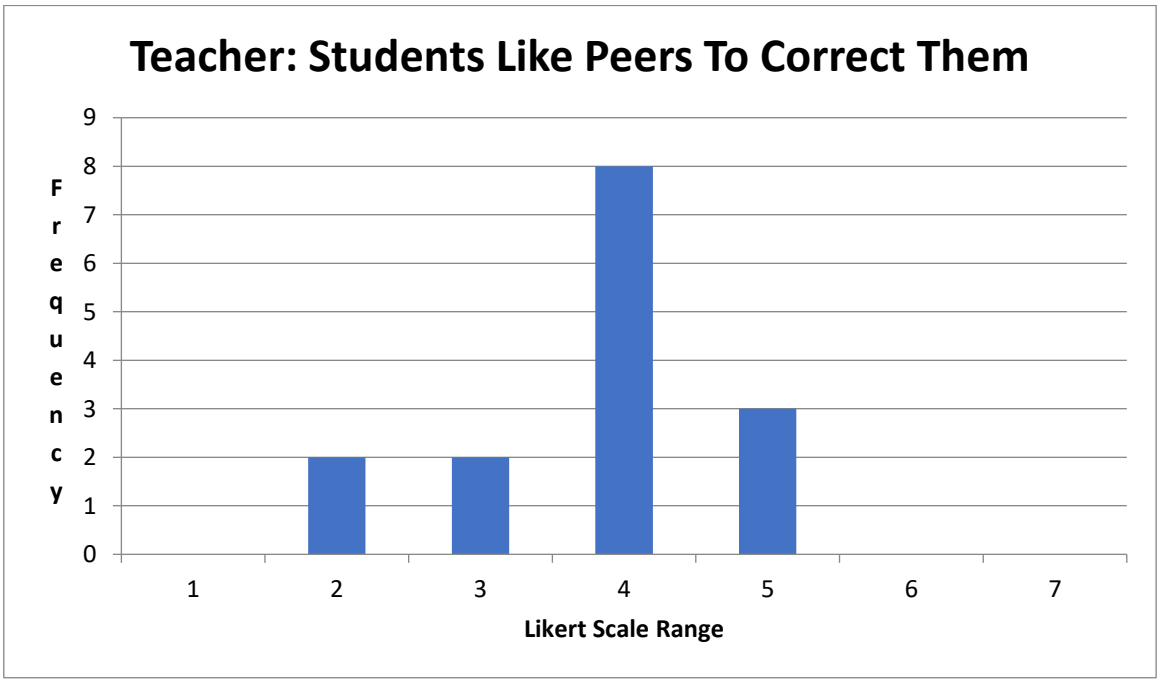

Chart 4.2.13: Question 9: I would like the teacher to correct me indirectly.

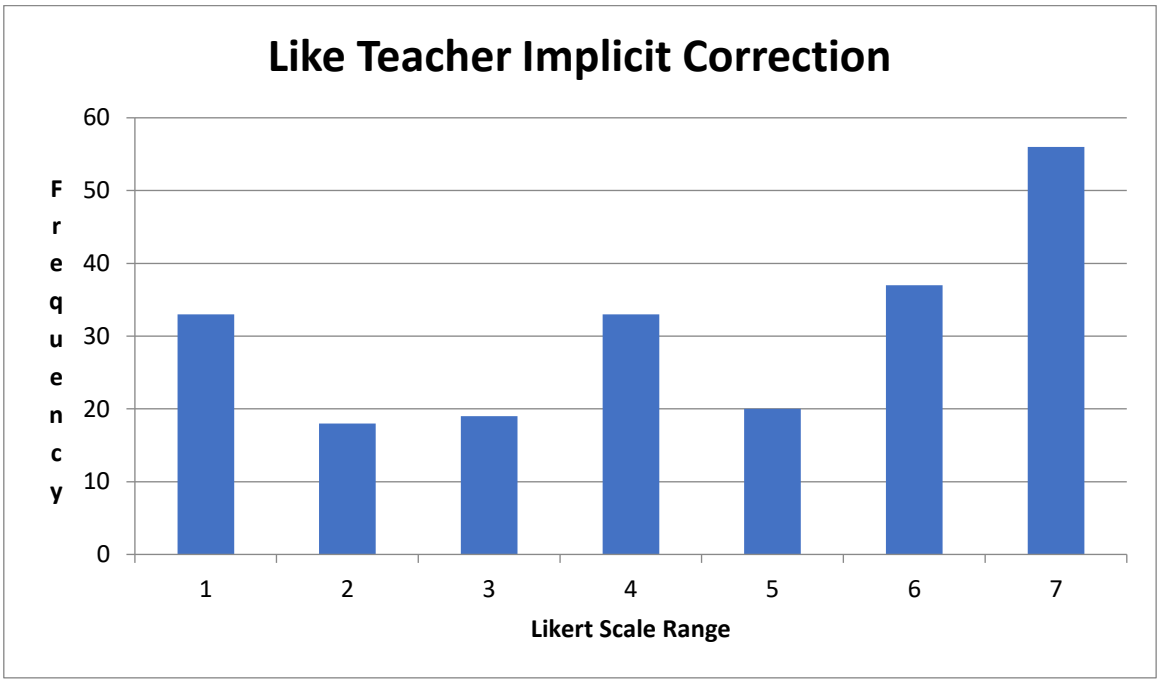

Chart 4.2.14: I often correct students indirectly.

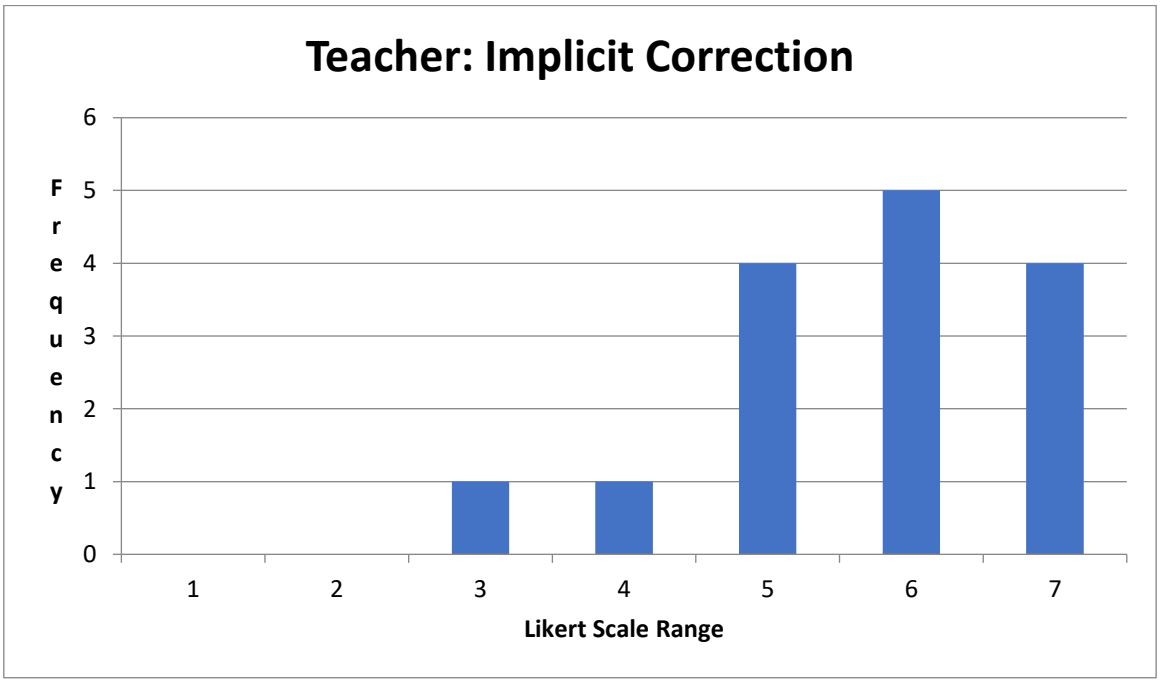

Chart 4.2.15: Question 8: I would like the teacher to correct me directly.

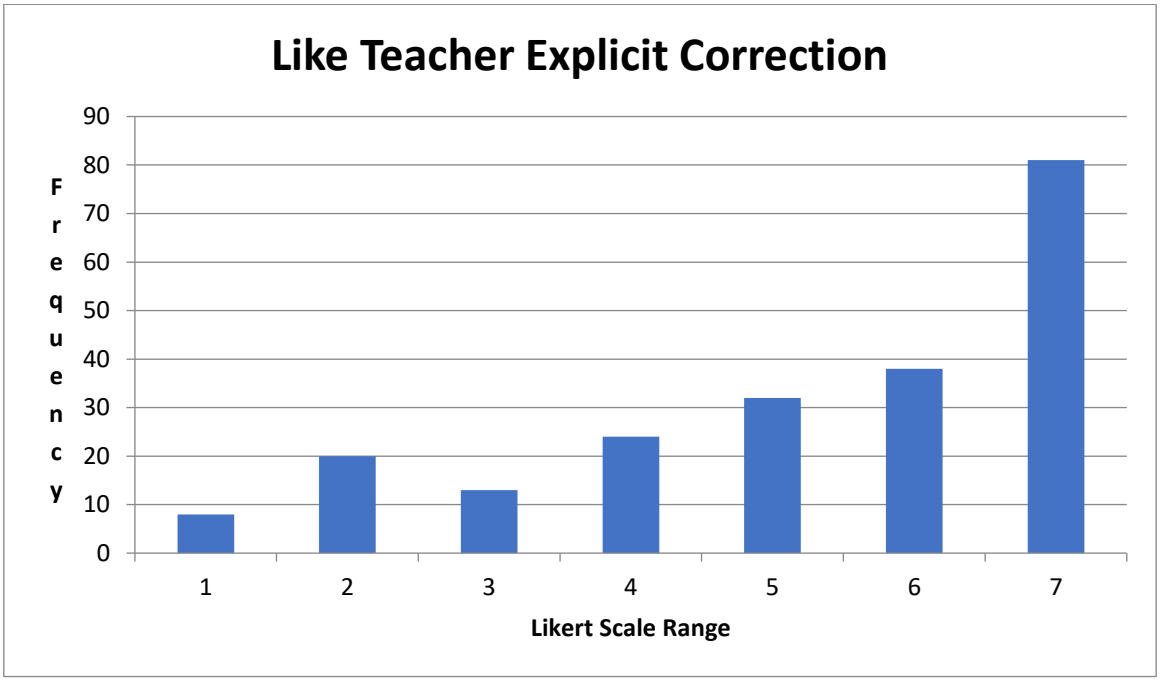

Chart 4.2.16: I often correct students directly.

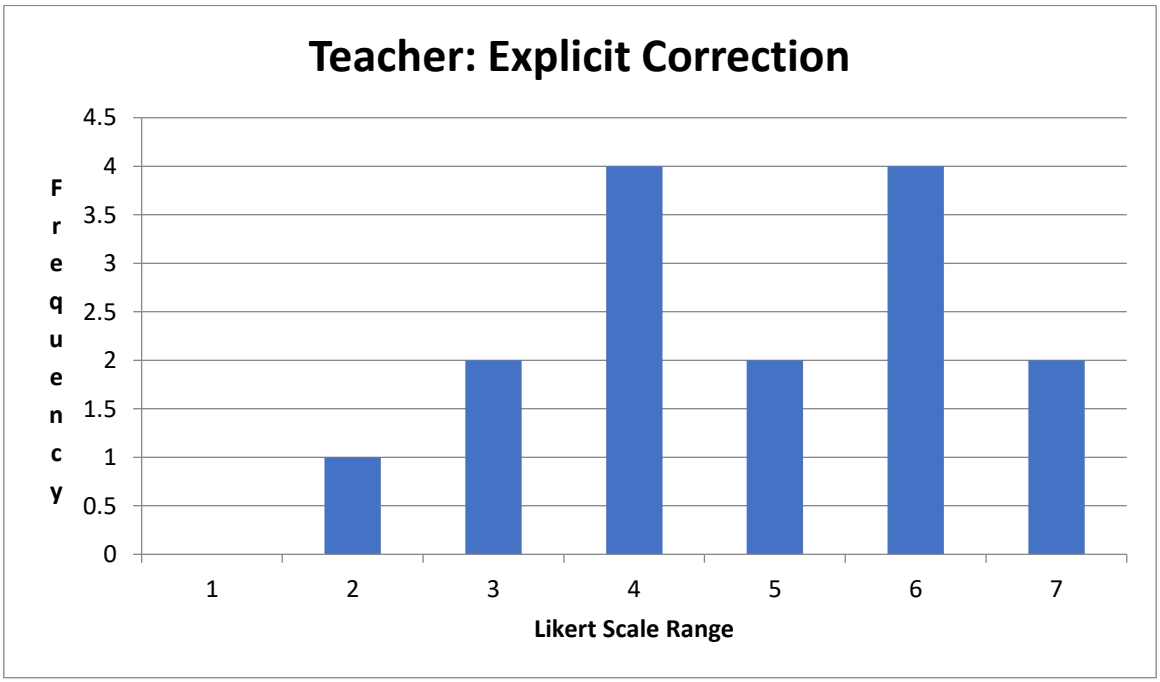

Chart 4.2.7: I would like the teacher to ignore my mistakes.

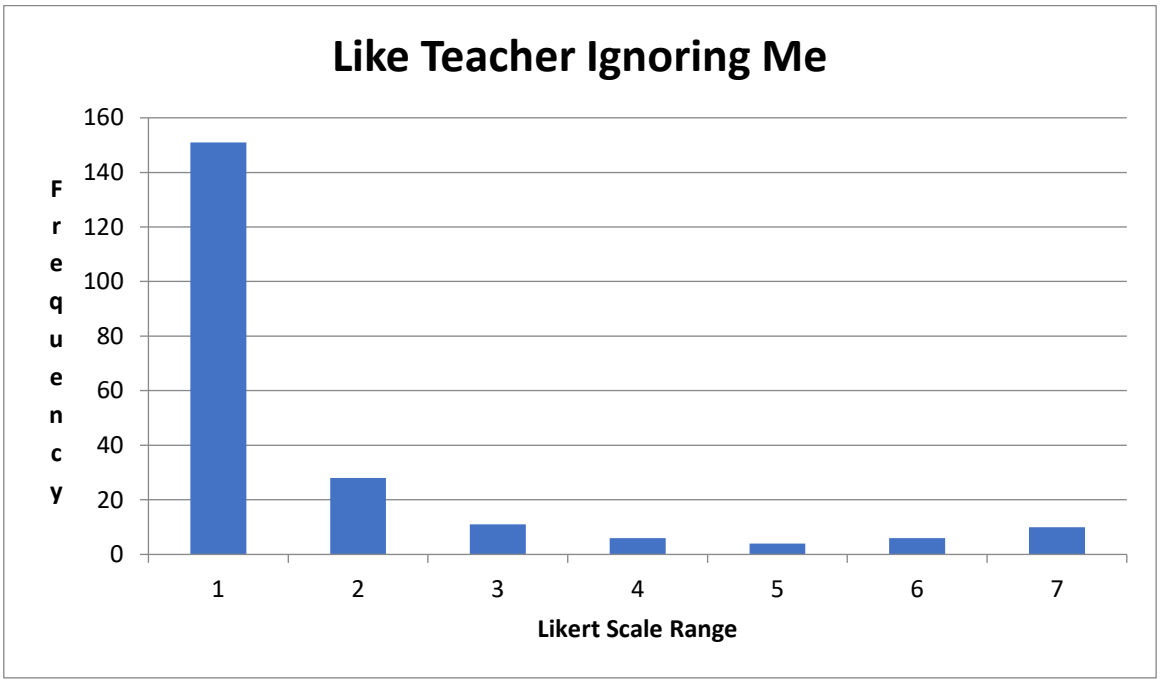

Chart 4.2.18: Question 15: It is normal practice to ignore my pair-work partner's errors.

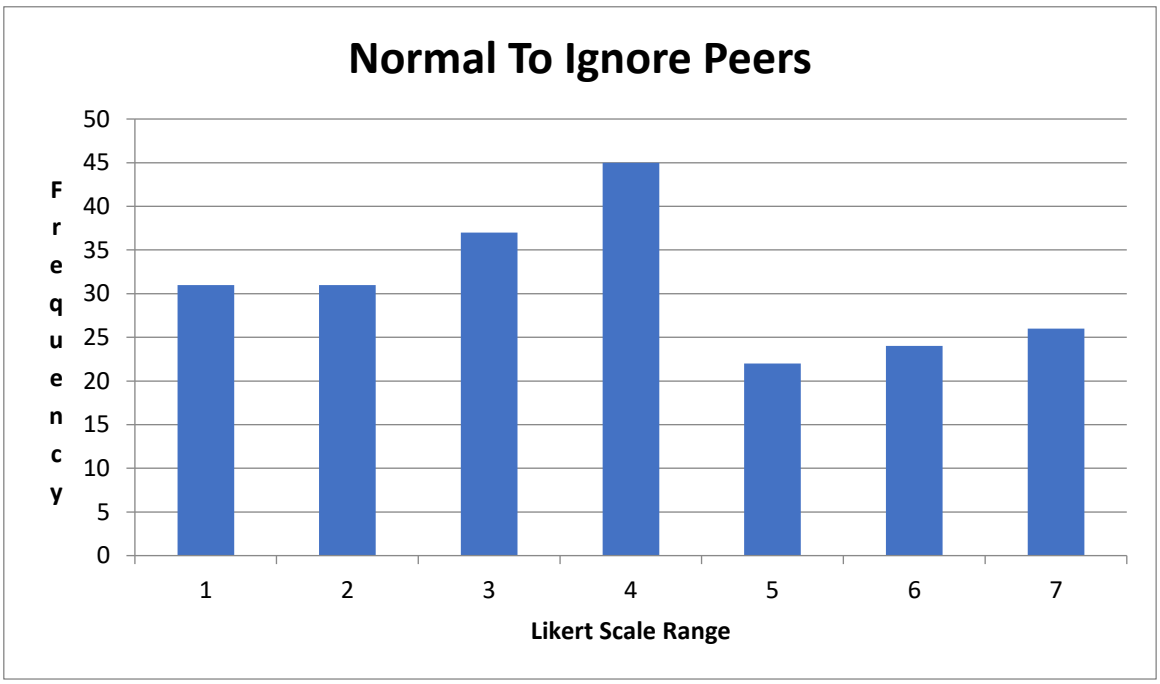

Chart 4.2.19: Question 16: It is normal practice for my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.

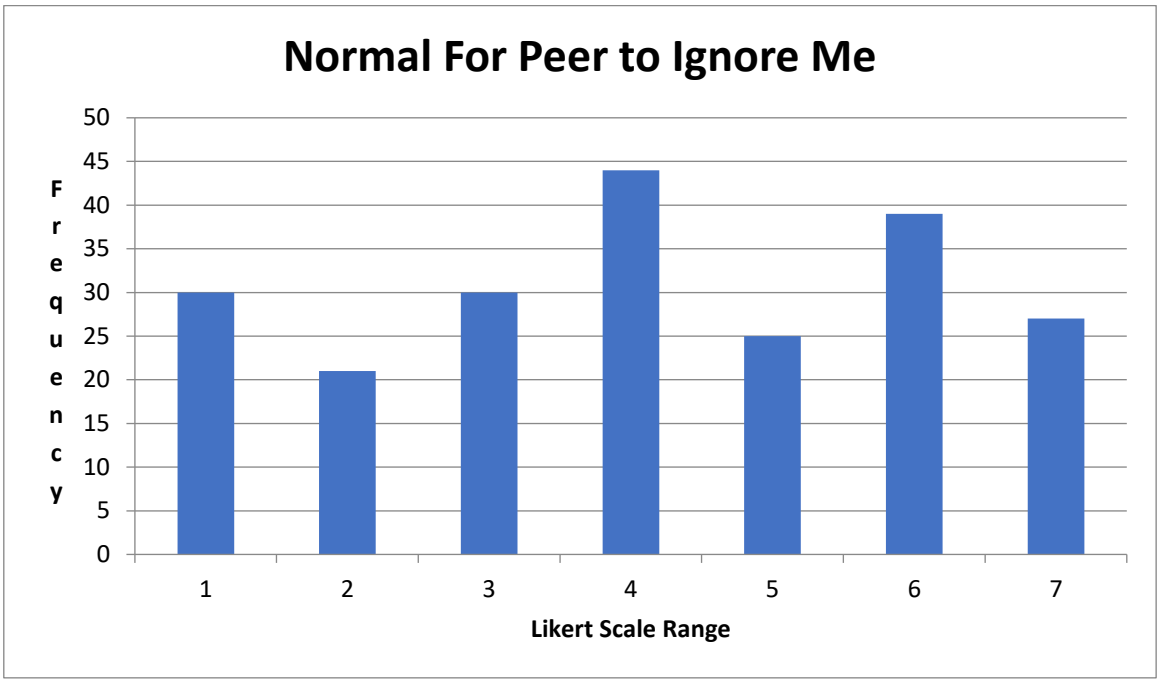

Chart 4.2.20: Question 19: I would like my pair-work partner to ignore my errors.