EFFECTS OF PEER FEEDBACK ON TAIWANESE ADOLESCENTS' ENGLISH SPEAKING PRACTICES AND DEVELOPMENT

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY OF SUBMITTED WORK

In conformance to University regulations, I hereby declare that:

1. this thesis has been composed solely by me;
2. this thesis is entirely my own work, and
3. this thesis has not been submitted in part or whole for any other degree or professional qualification.

Signed……………………………………………………………….

Date……………………………………………………………….

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACT   Adaptive Control of Thought
BERA   British Educational Research Association
EFL   English as a Foreign Language
FL   Foreign Language
GEPT   General English Proficiency Test
IL   Interlanguage
MOE   Ministry of Education (in Taiwan)
MT   Mother Tongue
SL   Second Language
SLA   Second Language Acquisition
TESOL Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
UG   Universal Grammar
YLE   Young Learners English
ZPD   Zone of Proximal Development

ABSTRACT

This thesis explores the impact of peer feedback on two secondary level classrooms studying English as a foreign language in Taiwan. The effectiveness of teacher-led feedback has consistently been the focus of the relevant literature but relatively fewer studies have experimentally investigated the impact of peer-led feedback on learning. This research is based on the belief that the investigation of the process of peer-led feedback, as well as the effectiveness of peer-led correction, will enhance our understanding of learners' communicative interactions. These data will allow us the opportunity to provide suggestions for successful second/foreign language learning.

This study was conducted following a mixed-methods quasi-experimental design involving a variety of data collection and analysis techniques. Observations of peer-peer dialogues taken from a Year 7 and a Year 8 class were analysed using content analysis, in order to classify the types of peer feedback provided by the Year 7 and Year 8 learners. Pre-and post-measures, including English speaking tests, questionnaires, and checklists, were examined with non-parametric statistical tests used to explore any changes in relation to the learners' speaking development after the quasi-experiment. Key findings included frequency and distribution of seven types of peer feedback, as used by the Year 7 and Year 8 learners, and the statistical results that revealed the differences between the pre-and post-measures. Among the seven types of peer feedback (translation, confirmation, completion, explicit indication, explicit correction, explanation and recasts), explicit correction and translation were the two techniques used most frequently by the learners. Post-test results indicated an improvement in the learners' speaking performance. The results of pre- and post-questionnaires and pre- and post-checklists showed different levels of change in the learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English, as well as their attitudes towards corrective feedback.

These results allow us to gain insight into the nature of peer interaction in communicative speaking activities as well as learners' motives behind their feedback

behaviours. Additionally, the results shed light on learners' opinions towards corrective feedback that they received or provided in peer interaction. Further, the results yield a deepened understanding of impacts of peer feedback on L2 development by examining changes in learners' speaking performance, self-confidence in speaking English and self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment. In conclusion, the study suggests that adolescent learners are willing and able to provide each other with feedback in peer interaction. The feedback that they delivered successfully helps their peers to attend to form and has positive impacts on their peers' English- speaking performance. Moreover, the study provides explanations for learners' preference for certain types of feedback techniques, which hopefully helps to tackle the mismatch between teachers' intentions and learners' expectations of corrective feedback in the L2 classrooms.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the thesis. It starts with an introduction to the English teaching and learning context in Taiwan, and this is followed by the rationale for this research. Then the chapter presents the research questions and a brief introduction to each chapter of the thesis.

1.1 The English Teaching and Learning Context in Taiwan

Communicative EFL[1] language teaching has been widely encouraged by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Taiwan (Chang, 2006). In 2004, the MOE enacted *General Guidelines for Grades 1- 9 Curriculum of Elementary and Junior High School Education* for English Language with the primary aim of "fostering learners' communicative competence in real-life situations" (Ministry of Education in Taiwan, 2004, p. 1). To achieve this, the MOE has proclaimed general principles in English teaching, for example, "to promote interaction between teachers and learners and among learners in English classrooms" and "to focus on practical use of English in daily-life communication with an equal emphasis on four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing" (ibid). Moreover, the MOE has brought forward the age at which English education is introduced from Year 5 to Year 3 students (down from age 11 to age 9) in primary schools since 2005 (Ministry of Education in Taiwan, 2008). All these policies were influenced by and aligned with Taiwan's internationalization policy as it is stated clearly in the general guidelines that "in order to follow Taiwan's internationalisation policy of aiming for promoting Taiwan's international competitiveness, the new English curriculum starts its implementation for students from Year 3 onwards" (Ministry of Education in Taiwan, 2008, p. 1). The then-new policy implies that mastering effective English communication not only results in success in language learning, but is also a

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[1] EFL stands for English as a Foreign Language. Foreign language learning such as English learning in Japan takes place in the context where the language is primarily learnt in the classroom and not commonly used in the community (Ellis, 1994, pp. 11-12).

predictor of future achievement. It has thus played a key role in contributing to the English-learning 'craze' in Taiwan and further turned English learning into a "national activity" (Chang, 2006, p. 131).

However, the policies do not seem sufficiently effective to satisfy learners' needs, thus seeking additional English education within cram schools[2] has become standard practice (Chan, 2004). It is common to see learners studying English at a very young age (Li, 2003), enduring their parents' expectations, being told: "Do not lose at the very beginning!" (Chang, 2006, p. 132). It is also common to see these learners continue their private lessons when they get to the age of formal English education in primary schools (ibid). This phenomenon has caused huge disparities amongst students within a single class, not to mention across classes, schools, districts, cities, and regions (Ministry of Education in Taiwan, 2002). Teachers in primary and secondary schools are consequently facing difficulties in taking care of students with varying levels of English proficiency, eventually having no choice but to focus on the contents of textbooks which are too easy for students who have had extra tuition outside the classroom. Another reason for teachers limiting their teaching to textbooks comes from the pressure to prepare students for tests (Chang, 2006), such as the basic achievement test for junior high school students. According to Su (2001), this phenomenon is particularly familiar to secondary schools teachers, who often apply grammar-translation, rote-memorisation and drills with a high frequency of error correction in teaching. By doing this, teachers expect to succeed in appropriately equipping students for exams that often employ a large proportion of discrete-point multiple choice items related to grammatical knowledge (Chang, 2006). As a consequence, students increasingly have little confidence or interest in learning English (Chang, 2006) and struggle with face-to-face communication, as there is a lack of practice and an overemphasis on accuracy (Su, 2001). One solution to this perceived problem may be to create opportunities for learners to interact with each other in communicative activities, with less one-directional teacher input.

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[2] Cram schools are private, educational institutes providing additional after-school courses (Nishino & Larson, 2003).

1.2 Rationale for this Research

This research was inspired by two concepts. First, the study arose in response to the 40-year debate regarding the impact of corrective feedback on learners' interlanguage development in the second/foreign language (SL/FL) classroom (see Ellis, 2009; Hendrickson, 1978). If current second language acquisition (SLA) theories such as the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), focus on form (Long & Robinson, 1998) and mediation (Lantolf, 2000b) are infallible, corrective feedback may then contribute to SL/FL learning (see Doughty, 2001; Lantolf 2000a, 2000b). It is suggested that corrective feedback which learners receive during communicative interaction, triggers learners to notice inappropriate utterances and that this may push them further to produce modified output. This 'noticing' has been suggested by Schmidt (1990) to be a requisite for learning and argued by Swain (1995) to be helpful for learners' SL/FL development. Additionally, the help from experts (e.g. teachers or students) for novices (e.g. less proficient students) not only pushes learners forwards in the spectrum of their zone of proximal development (ZPD), but also creates more ZPDs (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). In this regard, corrective feedback may play an important role in the cycle of interactive practice involving language comprehension, production, scaffolding, uptake, and reproduction. To put it simply, corrective feedback appears to help to enhance learners' language proficiency.

However, although there seems to be some agreement as to the merit of corrective feedback and pushed output (Swain, 1985, 1995) in the theoretical literature (Tsang, 2004), researchers including Loewen and Philp (2006) and Nassaji (2011) have reminded us of the uncertainty of corrective feedback in language learning. Also, despite empirical research (e.g. Ellis, Loewen & Basturkmen, 2006) suggesting that there are positive effects from corrective feedback on writing and speaking performance, the evidence shows neither statistically significant results (e.g. Dasse-Askildson, 2008) nor persistent long-term effects of corrective feedback (e.g. Muranoi, 2000). Yoshida's (2008) investigation of Japanese learners' views regarding teacher feedback has even found incongruence between teachers' corrective behaviours and learners' expectations. From a socio-cultural perspective,

Ohta (2001) observed corrective interaction amongst learners and concluded that they seem to understand each other better than teachers do. She also found that peer feedback successfully prompted immediate learner repair and effectively maintained learners' motivation for learning (Ohta, 2001). Her findings (ibid) have suggested a solution to the concerns raised by Truscott (1999) about the negative effects of teacher feedback on learners' self-esteem and willingness to learn. More recently, Lynch (2007) further demonstrated that peer feedback worked better than teacher feedback during a repeated oral task. Overall, the uncertainty regarding the value of corrective feedback derives from at least four controversial debates: (1) its exact areas of effectiveness (see Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000); (2) its long-term effectiveness (see Lyster, 2004); (3) its possible side effects (see Truscott, 1999); and, (4) the impact of peer feedback as a supplement to teacher feedback (see Swain, Brooks & Tocalli-Beller, 2002).

The second trigger for conducting this research was my personal experience as a non-native teacher as well as a learner of English. In both roles, I have always had a question in mind: how to turn my students and myself into fluent speakers. That is, how to effectively produce an accurate, smooth flow of speech, according to Luoma's (2004) definition of fluency. As a teacher, my instinct tells me to correct students' errors with the expectation that they will eradicate their ill-formed utterances and become confident English speakers one day. By contrast, as a learner, I do not particularly appreciate teachers' intrusive feedback, especially when it relates to my mistakes and not to errors (see Chapter 2, Section 2.3 for the discussion about the difference between errors and mistakes). In other words, the teacher feedback I received was often either poorly timed or did not benefit me. These experiences have made me sceptical about the justifications offered for teachers' corrective behaviours and their capability when providing feedback in accordance with learners' needs. Moreover, they have motivated me to seek alternatives to teacher feedback and explore the nature and value of these alternatives in the SL/FL classroom.

Taken together, the present study was prompted by the four above-mentioned controversies in regards to corrective feedback in the literature and my personal encounter with the provision of error correction. Thus, the purpose of the study was to further explore the nature of peer feedback and evaluate its impact on language learning within my own teaching and learning context.

1.3 Research Questions

To investigate the nature and impact of peer feedback, the following six research questions were posed (More information is given in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.1):

1. What feedback techniques are used by adolescent learners of L2 English in peer-led correction in two Taiwanese classrooms?
2. Do these adolescent learners of L2 English favour particular feedback techniques in peer-led correction, and if so, why?
3. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' speaking performance after a peer-led correction treatment?
4. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' perceptions of their own ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?
   a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English after a peer-led correction treatment?
   b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' own assessments of their ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?
5. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on oral corrective feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?
   a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on peer feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?
   b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on teacher feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?
6. What factors may contribute to any changes in relation to Research Questions 3-5?

1.4 Overview of the Thesis

The research focus and debate about corrective feedback have changed in the last half-century, thanks to developments both in theory and practice. In this thesis, I discuss both kinds of developments. One strand of discussion is focused on the further evaluation of the effects of corrective feedback in the process of SLA, which raises issues of theoretical significance alongside implications for practice. The other strand is focused on the viability of peer feedback as a complement to teacher feedback in the SL/FL classrooms.

Chapter 1 has outlined the English teaching and learning context in Taiwan, including an introduction to English education policies at primary and secondary levels and learning practices in recent years. The chapter presents the rationale for the study, followed by research questions and an overview of chapters.

Chapter 2 discusses the terms used to describe 'errors' and 'corrective feedback' in second language acquisition (SLA) by drawing on, for example, Corder (1971) and Leeman (2007) respectively. As different terms imply different views on the roles of errors and feedback in learners' interlanguage development, the chapter explains why "feedback" is chosen as an umbrella term to refer to any reaction following learners' inappropriate use of the target language. This is followed by an evaluation of feedback as espoused by a variety of SLA theories, from the conflicting viewpoints of behaviourists and generativists (see Leeman, 2007), to consistently positive opinions held by recent theory makers (e.g. Long, 1991; Swain, 1995). Research that focuses on a critical review of relevant studies (e.g. Norris & Ortega, 2000), as well as empirical evidence (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997), is also discussed. The chapter concludes by identifying controversies and gaps in the corrective feedback literature, demonstrating a need for continuing research on the impact of peer feedback in the SL/FL language classroom.

Chapter 3 provides an analytic overview of speaking, focusing on three different interpretations, from both the SLA and socio-cultural perspectives. Speaking in the SL/FL language classroom involves different meanings, including hypothesis-testing,

practice and communicative interaction. That is, for learners, speaking is both a way in which to put their linguistic knowledge to the test, a skills practice process and an activity for achieving social purposes. Following this thinking, issues in relation to task design and assessment are discussed. Criteria of validity and reliability that are used to examine the quality of most assessments, are also touched on. The chapter concludes by discussing the characteristics of communicative tasks that are claimed in the literature to be effective for eliciting communicative interaction (e.g. peer feedback, negotiation of form and meaning).

Chapter 4 provides information about the research design and the participants. The chapter commences with a discussion about the appropriateness of a mixed methods approach to the study. Next, demographic information about the participants is given and the data collection and analysis processes of the research are described. Finally, the chapter explores the limitations in relation to validity and reliability of the research findings, as well as ethical issues involved in recruiting the participants.

Chapters 5 to Chapter 7 report on the results. Chapter 6 presents answers to Research Questions 1-2 regarding classification of peer feedback techniques. The preliminary analysis, including inter-observer reliability, is examined before categorising seven types of peer feedback techniques from 105 peer feedback episodes of participants' conversations which occurred in the English speaking lessons. Among the seven techniques, 'explicit correction' and 'translation' appear to be the two techniques used most frequently by the participants from the two different classes (a Year 7 and a Year 8 class) involved in the given quasi-experiment.

Chapter 6 deals with data from pre-and post-measures (English speaking tests, self-assessment checklists, and questionnaires regarding learner attitudes towards corrective feedback) in response to Research Questions 3-5. By using the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, the results show different levels of changes between all of the pre-and post-measures. Although some result figures did not attain statistical significance, they arguably revealed the development in the participants' English-speaking ability and the changes in their views on corrective feedback.

Chapter 7 presents findings generated from the follow-up one-to-one interviews with 28 participants in response to Research Question 6. Using content analysis, 28 transcripts from a total of 14 hours of interviews were coded in an attempt to respond to the research question. The findings suggest that participants' peer feedback experiences in the English speaking lessons, their personality and English proficiency appear to be contributing factors to the results of pre-and post-measures (e.g. pre- and post-English tests).

Chapter 8 discusses the findings of the study. Firstly, the chapter centres on the characteristics of seven types of peer feedback identified from the study and further explores why the learners seemed to favour particular techniques. Secondly, the chapter discusses discrepancies between test results and learners' perceptions of their own progress in speaking English. As we have seen, Taiwan's EFL learning context and learners' personality may play a significant role in explaining contradictory findings. The chapter further discusses potential social and cultural factors that may contribute to these discrepancies. Lastly, the chapter focuses on limitations, ethical concerns, and implications of the study.

Chapter 9 summarises the salient findings from the research and implications for English teaching practice and future research. The chapter highlights how the findings of the study further our understanding of learners' needs and views about interactive feedback. This may help teachers to fine-tune their methods of giving feedback, which is deemed one of the primary goals in the literature (Han, 2002). Additionally, given the high opinion of the English lessons from participants, it is suggested that the workshop design is likely to be successful in other similar EFL learning classrooms. Therefore, the study suggests that teachers should be encouraged to integrate oral practice activities into their teaching routines. Finally, the chapter reiterates the limitations of the study and calls for further investigation into peer to peer interaction in SL/FL language classrooms.

1.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I have discussed the English teaching and learning context in Taiwan and illustrated the need for an investigation of the impact of peer feedback on learners' language development. I have also given a brief overview of each chapter in the study. In the following two chapters, I will review theoretical and empirical evidence in the relevant literature.

CHAPTER 2

THE ROLE OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

This chapter seeks to present different perspectives regarding the role of corrective feedback in the process of SLA. Initially, different theoretical views on the merits of corrective feedback in SLA are reviewed. Secondly, findings from recent empirical studies are highlighted and their implications are evaluated. Next, an emerging research interest in the role of peer feedback in the L2 classroom is identified. Before the review, issues relating to the concept of error are discussed in an attempt to provide appropriate background to the debate over the benefits of corrective feedback in language learning.

2.1 Concept of Errors

"The whole concept of error is an intrinsically relational one" (Hawkins, 1987, p. 471). This implies two characteristics of errors. One is that errors can only be recognised through interaction. At intra-level, errors may be perceived by learners themselves in the interaction between their own performance and the linguistic knowledge they consider to be correct. At inter-level, errors may be recognised by learners when they notice the divergence between their own outputs and those of their interlocutors. Errors may also be noticed when the learners receive corrective feedback from their interlocutors. The other characteristic of errors is that they are not a fixed, categorical phenomenon. Errors are changeful and contingent upon, so to speak, the 'index' or 'benchmark' that they refer to. When two learners interact with each other, their knowledge of the target language is the 'index' or 'benchmark' that they can rely on, from which they can judge the correctness of their outputs. In this case, errors may go unnoticed because of the learners' inadequate linguistic knowledge. In sum, the concept of error is a fuzzy and unstable one, which leaves room for interpreters to negotiate the nature of error in different contexts.

In the context of SLA, errors are largely defined as a misuse of a linguistic item due to "faulty or incomplete learning" (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 159). Selinker (1972) calls the misuse 'interlanguage' (IL), a term used to describe linguistically erroneous usages as well as a unique language system formulated by learners who are halfway to the mastery of SL (see Section 2.4 for further discussion on IL). As such, errors show the discrepancy between IL and SL, and reflect learners' current perspectives on SL (James, 1998). In other words, errors are signs that expose the fallacy of learners' "completely well-formed" interlanguage system (Hawkins, 1987, p. 471), and a trigger to help learners to notice the gap in their knowledge, partial knowledge and lack of knowledge of SL.

2.2 Error Indicators

James (1998) suggests five indicators of learners' unsuccessful production of SL: *grammaticality, acceptability, correctness, strangeness and infelicity* (p.64). According to James (ibid), *grammaticality* refers to linguistic 'well-formedness'. Linguistic 'well-formedness' refers to something 'uncorrectable' in terms of syntaxical, semantic and phonological rules (ibid). Among these three rules, the 'uncorrectability' of semantics has been called into question, as it is contingent upon context and the speaker's intention. This is why the second indicator, acceptability is necessary. *Acceptability* considers the context of the larger discourse and takes intentions into account. Thus, a well-formed utterance may still be considered to be unacceptable when it does not fit into the context of the wider linguistic unit or fails to fulfil the speaker's intention (ibid).

Correctness concerns the difference between what a native speaker of SL would say instinctively and how it is supposed to be said according to the normative standards of the language. James (1998) used the example "Who/Whom did you meet at the zoo?" (p.74) to illustrate that the grammatically correct selection of 'whom' in the example can be considered to be inappropriate by native speakers who perhaps have never used 'whom' in this context. They may even consider 'whom' to be erroneous because it violates the acceptability of the usage they have been used to (ibid).

Strangeness comes from tautological, anomalous expressions or linguistic combinations, such as an example "wet water" provided by James (1998). James further highlights that such an expression may be considered strange when made by a native speaker but ungrammatical when produced by a language learner. This provides an interesting perspective on people's recognition of error, which can be influenced by the knowledge of who makes the error. Finally, *infelicity* was interpreted by James (1998), based on Austin's (1962) idea, as being an inappropriate speech act from a sociolinguistic perspective. *Infelicity* refers to the evaluation of whether a piece of speech fits the etiquette in a specific society and culture. If learners do not manage to say something that is expected to be said in a specific context, their speech act is then considered to be inappropriate according to this indicator (James, 1998).

These indicators show different perspectives on the definition of errors. Most importantly, they reveal how complex the definition of error is, and why it is inappropriate to view error as a dichotomous yes/no contrast. In the following section, the types of error will be discussed in an attempt to reveal the further complexity of error and the difficulty in recognising errors in practice.

2.3 Types of Error

A well-known *error-mistake* distinction was introduced by Corder (1967) to describe different ill-formed utterances. The former has been described as being uncorrectable by the learner who makes it unintentionally, while the latter has been described as being correctable by the learner who makes it either intentionally or unintentionally. In other words, the learner is able to self-correct a mistake if it is identified, but unable to self-correct an error, even it is identified. Errors in this sense appear to be a reflection of a lack of competence, whereas mistakes appear to be the result of inattention or deliberate conduct. Making use of Chomsky's (1965) distinction, Corder (1967) suggested that errors seem to be a matter of competence while mistakes seem to be a matter of performance.

Considering the competence-performance split, the error-mistake distinction offers a more thorough insight into learners' unsuccessful production. The introduction to the concept of mistakes is a reminder to avoid instant, judgemental opinions on learners' non-target-like speech. Learners may be more competent than is believed. As such, they should be provided with an opportunity to actively repair their non-target-like utterances, rather than passively receiving instant correction from teachers. Echoing this point, a number of researchers (e.g. Lynch, 2007) have conducted investigations on feedback provided among learners, and have found some interesting and positive results (see discussion in Section 2.7.2).

In addition, the concept of mistakes reveals the incompatibility between equating knowing what to do and how to do something as accurately as intended. This incompatibility was explained by skills acquisition proponents (e.g. Anderson, 1982) as being a gap between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. Generally, it is suggested that repeated practice is the key to transferring recently learnt knowledge into good, spontaneous performance (see Section 2.6 for further discussion). In writing practice, mistakes seem likely to be identified and recognised compared with errors, as learners can check what has been written and carry out any necessary modifications. However, in communicative speaking activities, differentiating mistakes from errors appears to be a challenge, in particular from a listener's point of view. This is because speaking, in interactive communication, occurs instantaneously (Bygate, 1987, p. 12). Unless the speaker self-corrects his/her mistakes, the listener has difficulty in recognising the difference between errors and mistakes in reality (Ellis, 1994).

Taking the error-mistake distinction further, Edge (1989) introduced an additional category, attempting to describe learners' ill-formed utterances as a failed trial of hypothesis-testing. This occurs when learners use their communication strategies to compensate for when their linguistic knowledge is inadequate to make themselves understood (James, 1998). For instance, a learner of English makes an attempt to express an English sentence beyond her grammatical ability:

Learner: I was study when my brother told me to play online games (this example was extracted from the data in the study).

The learner failed to express what she meant ("I was studying when my brother invited me to play online games") because at that time she had not been introduced to the past continuous tense. Edge (1989) suggested that ill-formed utterances of this kind should be encouraged, as they reveal evidence that learning is taking place and provide traces of the learning process.

Another well-known *"overt-covert"* error distinction was also introduced by Corder (1973, p. 272) to emphasise that linguistically correct utterances may not really be error-free. Overt errors, as the term implies, are noticeable, and can be easily detected, regardless of whether they are errors or mistakes. Covert errors, by contrast, are hardly observable, as they are ostensibly well-formed, but only fail to match intentions (ibid). To avoid making overt errors, learners may adopt strategies (e.g. reduction strategy) to utter well-formed sentences that they are able to make (see Chapter 3, Section 3.2.1 for a discussion about learner communication strategies). In this way, covert errors can go unnoticed because the intentions of the speaker can be neither accurately nor obviously inspected by the listener (Ellis, 1994).

The discussion above indicates that learners' non-target-like utterances give evidence of the stage they have reached in L2 learning. At the same time, they give the teacher a clue as to what has not been fully comprehended by learners and what should be taught next (James, 1998). However, despite systematic classifications of the errors being made, difficulties in applying them to real-life practice have not yet been overcome. Additionally, the present study focuses on types of feedback rather than types of learner errors. Hence, in the study, neither error-mistake-attempt distinction nor overt-covert error distinction are adopted. 'Error' is used as an overarching term to describe any noticeably inappropriate utterances regardless of whether they are ill-formed or well-formed. The terms 'ill-formed', 'erroneous' and 'incorrect' are used interchangeably to describe learners' non-target-like output.

2.4 Causes of Errors

Beliefs regarding causes of errors play an important role in affecting attitudes towards the provision of corrective feedback. In the 1950s and 1960s, contrastive analysis proponents suspected that causes of errors in SLA were the result of an unsuccessful transfer from learners' mother tongue (MT). They directed much attention to mismatches between SL and MT in order to predict the errors that an SL learner would make (James, 1998). Holding similar beliefs on the negative transfer of MT, behaviourists advocate the importance of obliterating old habits from MT and replacing them with new ones built into the process of SLA in order to master the SL. This view is also shared by the audio-lingual approach proponents, who suggest making every effort to prevent and eradicate the occurrence of learner errors (Han, 2002). Errors that represent failed habit formation should be prevented, otherwise they will lead to a negative fossilisation effect (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

Contrary to the idea of language learning as being merely habit formation, Chomsky's Universal Grammar (UG) theory contends that human beings are endowed with a biologically determined capacity for language learning (1965). This inherent mechanism develops human creativity in language learning, and enables children to create language that they have never experienced. Although originally Chomsky's (1980) hypothesis was confined to L1 acquisition, his claim has been extended to explain the phenomena in SLA. In L2 classrooms, generativists use Chomsky's (ibid) idea to explain learners' idiosyncratic utterances as a reflection of their learning development. Based on the same concept, the Natural Approach also regards error correction as being unnecessary. Furthermore, with the dominance of the communicative approach since the 1970s, correction that focuses on linguistic forms has been considered counterproductive, as the primary concern of language development should be meaning and use (Han, 2002). In this vein, errors are not viewed as failures, but, rather, as a positive sign of language learning. The occurrence of error is, if not encouraged, then at least not forbidden.

In addition, Selinker's (1972) IL theory attributes L2 learners' non-native-like output to learners' learning experiences and the strategies they adopt for learning. Apart

from the causes of MT interference and innate language device, Selinker (1972) suggests that learners' behaviour in terms of overgeneralising or oversimplifying linguistic rules may be due to the way they are taught and the strategies they use for learning or communicative purposes (Selinker, 1972; Selinker, Swain, & Dumas, 1975). IL theory thus triggers error analysis, which explores the dissimilarity between IL and L2; this differs from contrastive analysis, which focuses on the discrepancy between MT and L2 (see James, 1998 for further discussion). Taken together, it has been argued in the literature that errors are the consequences of learners' MT transfer, innate language capacity and previous language learning experiences.

2.5 Different Terms Related to Error Correction

There are various terms which refer to teachers' responses to learners' unsuccessful or successful utterances: error correction, positive and negative/corrective feedback as well as positive and negative evidence. According to Leeman (2007), researchers often use these terms interchangeably, despite each of the terms (correction, feedback, and evidence) being associated with different theoretical frameworks and having slightly different meanings from one another. In the following paragraphs, each of the various terms used in the SLA literature will be explored.

Error correction, according to Chaudron (1988) , involves at least two steps: firstly the pointing out of errors to learners, and secondly the eliciting of learners' modified output. More explicitly, correction refers to "any teacher behaviour following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of error" (Chaudron, 1988, p. 150), and true correction occurs when the error does not recur in learners' further production (ibid). Studies employing this term include, for example, those conducted by Hendrickson (1978) and Truscott and Hsu (2008).

The term 'feedback' has been associated with cognitive psychology (Schachter, 1991) and the information-processing model, which refers to the responsive provision of information to learners regarding their success or failure in the process of production. Positive feedback, on the one hand, reaffirms learners' successful performance. On

the other hand, negative feedback (also known as corrective feedback) draws learners' attention to their unsuccessful output by implying that something is wrong with their speech. In most L1 and L2 acquisition research, the focus has been placed on negative feedback, and its impacts on learners' language development (Leeman, 2007). Researchers such as Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Paninos and Linnell (1996) and Ware and O'Dowd (2008) all adopted the term in their studies.

To challenge Krashen's (1982) statement that positive evidence exposure was sufficient for acquisition, studies such as those by Oliver (1995), Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004), Trahey (1996) and White (1991) have since explored the role of negative evidence for learning. These studies have one shared feature: they all focused on one aspect of negative evidence - providing "information to the learner that his or her utterance is ungrammatical" (Izumi & Lakshmanan, 1998, p. 62). Broadly speaking, negative evidence refers to "information regarding the impossibility of certain linguistic structures in the language being acquired" (Leeman, 2003, p. 38). Despite the fact that 'negative evidence' and 'negative feedback' are used interchangeably in the above-mentioned studies, it is important to point out that negative evidence by its definition is not restricted to corrective feedback in response to learners' ill-formed utterances.

The review above reveals that researchers from different disciplines tend to use different terms to describe responses to problematic features in learners' output. Hence, in order to avoid misunderstanding, this study uses 'feedback' to refer to any reaction following learners' unsuccessful utterances that is intended to inform them of the problems, as well as to elicit modifications to their output. The feedback includes information in both verbal and physical forms (e.g. gestures, facial expressions) and may involve positive and negative evidence, both separately and simultaneously. When the feedback is followed by learners' immediate reaction to it, it elicits uptake, defined as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's

intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" [3] (Lyster and Ranta, 1997, p. 49). The uptake may lead to two results: (a) a "repair of the error on which the feedback focused" and (b) "an utterance that still needs repair" (ibid). Still following Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition, repair in the study is defined as "the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single student turn" (ibid).

2.6 The Role of Feedback in Second Language Acquisition Theories and Socio-cultural Theories

The following paragraphs discuss different perspectives on the role of feedback in L2 learning, including theoretical positive and negative attitudes towards the provision of oral feedback to L2 learners.

Opposite views on feedback between behaviourists and generativists

Discussion about the role of feedback can be traced back to the debate on how languages are learnt between behaviourist and generativist linguists (Leeman, 2007). In favour of behaviourist psychology, behaviourists (e.g. Skinner, 1957) proposed that language learning proceeds by building up successive habits, the formation of which involves appropriate conditioning, stimuli and reinforcement. Both positive and negative feedback are valued by behaviourists, because both act as a form of reinforcement. Positive feedback acts as a reward to reaffirm and encourage learners' successful behaviour, while negative feedback, conversely, serves as a gatekeeper that prevents bad habit formation (Skinner, 1957). From a behaviourist point of view, the provision of feedback in the process of language learning is an indispensable, helpful action.

By contrast, generativist linguists (e.g. Chomsky, 1980) view language ability as an innate talent that every child ought to have. They argue that children are equipped with a fundamental language structure which can be triggered and further developed through positive input. This view was shared by Krashen (1985) and Schwartz (1993), who suggested that L1 and L2 acquisition proceeds in a similar manner.

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[3] This definition is different from Allwright's (1984) notion of uptake, referring to learners' perceptions of what they have learnt at the end of the lesson.

Krashen further claimed that learners can master L2 by merely receiving constant, correct linguistic input (1985). Claims of this kind dismiss the importance of negative evidence, and reject the usefulness of negative feedback in L2 learning.

Feedback in cognitive models

Feedback from a cognitive perspective accounts for benefits with respect to the reduction of cognitive strain, accuracy enhancement, input processing and anti-fossilisation. Cognitive models suggest that learners' limited cognitive ability accounts for "competition among accuracy, fluency, and complexity" in L2 performance (Leeman, 2007, p. 117). Feedback helps to reduce this kind of cognitive strain by providing opportunities to segment the complex task into smaller units, enabling to perform each subdivided portion accurately (ibid). For instance, the strain may be reduced by breaking a long sentence into several short units or by concentrating on specific linguistic forms before focusing on meaning.

Feedback in communicative interaction from an information-processing perspective activates mental processing that "requires for new material to be stored in long-term memory" (Ellis, 1999, p. 26). Regarding this point, Mackey drew on her previous study with Gass and McDonough (2000), further suggesting that these forms of interaction "enable learners to elicit the kind of information they need at the precise time when they need it, both developmentally and interactively" (Mackey, 2002, p. 380). Feedback of this kind, facilitates input processing, helps to build the connection between new and old knowledge, and thus expands the possibility of holding new information in long-term memory.

Feedback from the Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT) model (Anderson, 1982) perspective smoothes the progress of automatisation, from internalising *declarative knowledge* (knowing what) to performing *procedural knowledge* (how to use it efficiently and automatically). In the initial stage of *automatisation*, feedback (e.g. positive evidence) plays a role in the acquisition of *declarative knowledge* (knowing what). In the next stage, feedback draws learners' attention to the weaknesses they need to further work on (Leeman, 2007, p. 117). By receiving extensive feedback

and continued practice, learners can reach a final autonomous stage where their output becomes spontaneous and error-free (Ranta & Lyster, 2007). Meanwhile, at the same stage, feedback prevents fossilisation of non-target-like language performance (Leeman, 2007). Feedback in this skill-learning model facilitates input internalising, awareness raising and anti-fossilisation.

Feedback in interaction hypothesis

Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis argues that interaction provides opportunities for a few things to take place: receiving comprehensible input and corrective feedback, testing hypotheses, triggering noticing, and pushing modified output. Of these, feedback is arguably the most important element in the process of interaction, because all the above-mentioned reactions are closely associated with feedback. According to Schmidt and Frota (1986), corrective feedback (e.g. recasts) offers another source of comprehensible input. Corrective feedback also enables learners to realise that a particular hypothesis they are testing is unsuccessful and makes their interlanguage salient. That is, this feedback makes them notice their own non-target-like usages. Such noticing has been suggested by Schmidt (1990) as being a requisite for L2 learning, and by Swain (1995; Mackey et al., 2000) as being a key to modified outputs. These suggestions imply that corrective feedback may play a significant role in interaction-driven learning.

Along the same lines as the interaction hypothesis, Long (1991) proposed *focus-on-form* to describe teachers' corrective feedback provided during communicative activities in an attempt to draw learners' attention to particular forms. This sort of feedback serves as a time-out in the process of meaning-focused conversation and offers opportunities for learners to enhance accuracy in linguistic forms. As such, Long (1991, 2000) argues that *focus-on-form* instruction is an eclectic approach to complement the drawbacks of *focus-on-formS* (accuracy-driven) and *focus-on-meaning* (communication-driven) approaches in language classrooms. In other words, feedback based on Long's (ibid) *focus-on-form* once again appears to be beneficial to language development by linking input, learner capacity, selective attention and output (Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998).

Feedback in socio-cultural theories

Working from a socio-cultural perspective, researchers (e.g. Pica, 1996; Lantolf, 2000b) have argued that language learning is not only a cognitive but also a social interaction. When the interaction involves the provision of feedback, especially from a more advanced interlocutor to a less advanced learner, the learner is given opportunities to develop not only linguistic skills, but also his or her cognitive and social abilities (Lantolf, 2000b). According to Lantolf's (ibid) interpretation of Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD, in any learning processes, there are domains which learners cannot reach if no assistance is available. ZPD refers to domains that separate what learners can do with and without help from others (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). As such, corrective feedback, from a socio-cultural perspective, can be seen as a form of support or scaffolding, which enables learners to accomplish something slightly beyond their present ability.

In sum, corrective feedback is believed to benefit the L2 comprehension and acquisition process by linking input, processing, noticing, scaffolding, and output. In this regard, corrective feedback is not just an error-reduction technique but a facilitator of L2 development. In order to further scrutinise this theoretical perspective, the next section will discuss empirical evidence of various aspects of corrective feedback.

2.7 Research on the Role of Feedback in Target Language Learning

An early systematic review on feedback was presented by Hendrickson, with five major questions of whether, which, when, how and by whom errors should be corrected (1978). An extended discussion on these questions can also be found in some selected studies, for example, studies regarding whether (George, 1972; Hirsh-Pasek, Kathy, Treiman, & Schneiderman, 1984; Kennedy, 1973; Theodore & Clifford, 1982; Truscott, 1999), which (Allwright, 1975; Birdsong & Kassen, 1988; Burt, 1975; Burt & Kiparsky, 1972; Cohen, 1975), when (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Byrne, 1986; Hedge, 2000; Mark & Richard, 1991), how (Chaudron, 1977; Doughty, 2001; Fanselow, 1977; Long, 1996; Phillips, 1991), and by whom (Edge, 1989; Ravem, 1973). Overall, the discussions embrace both positive and negative answers

to the five questions. However, as there is a lack of adequate empirical research, the role of corrective feedback in SL development has remained inconclusive in the literature.

In the 1980s, discussion about corrective feedback was narrowed down to questions about whether and how feedback should be offered. This could be because of the emergence of several SLA approaches, such as form-focused instruction (Spada, 1997) and one of its strands, focus-on-form (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991, 2000; Long & Robinson, 1998), which views effective instructional interventions (e.g. feedback) as being a crucial element in increasing the likelihood of learning intake (Schmidt, 1990, 1993). Hence, empirical studies conducted between the 1980s and 1990s, which questioned whether and how feedback can be effective, appeared to concern these two most popular questions raised by researchers (Norris & Ortega, 2000).

Following this trend, empirical research regarding corrective feedback in the 2000s continued to examine the effectiveness of corrective feedback and of different feedback types. Most studies have demonstrated that corrective feedback has positive impacts on learners' improvement in terms of accuracy in SL or FL learning. Ellis (2009) explicitly claims that corrective feedback is beneficial and should be provided. However, in order to be comfortable with such a claim, further investigation into these studies is undoubtedly required. The following sections will discuss the highlights in the recent literature concerning corrective feedback.

2.7.1 Whether and how feedback is effective?

Despite the central focus on the effectiveness of feedback in recent literature, most empirical studies have started to extend their focus towards other aspects, such as feedback types (see Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009) and peer feedback (see Swain et al., 2002). Over the past 10 years, most empirical studies in the SL/FL contexts have demonstrated the benefit of corrective feedback in improving learners' speaking and writing abilities. For instance, Lyster (2004) conducted research on pre- and post-test designs with 179 fifth-grade students of French as L2, allocating them into two

experimental groups with different feedback types and one control group with no feedback provided. The results showed that the group that received feedback and was pushed to be more accurate in their output outperformed the other two groups in both oral and written post-tests.

Mackey's (2006) research with 28 university learners of English in the USA also demonstrated the effectiveness of interactional feedback from the teacher. In her research, the students were allocated into one experimental group with the provision of feedback and a control group without any feedback at all. The results showed that in the post-test, the experimental group outperformed the control group on the tasks involving English plurals and past tense.

Likewise, Ellis, Loewen and Erlam's (2006) study generated similar results. They conducted an experimental study with 34 adult learners of English at a private language school in New Zealand. The results showed that in a post-test (involving oral and written tasks) with a focus on English regular past tense, two experimental groups with either implicit or explicit feedback outperformed the control group with no feedback provided. The study also showed that the group receiving explicit feedback involving grammar explanation outperformed the other experimental group which received implicit feedback involving the reformulation of problematic utterances.

Positive evidence of the role of corrective feedback in L2 learning is often found in the recent literature (e.g. Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam 2006; Lyster, 2004; Mackey, 2006). Studies demonstrating positive impacts of feedback on speaking enhancement include those investigated by Leeman (2003) and Loewen and Philp (2006). Research suggesting positive associations between feedback and writing improvements includes those conducted by Williams (2001), Morris (2005), Dasse-Askildson (2008) and Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, and Takashima (2008). Finally, studies exploring the impacts of feedback on both speaking and writing enhancement include those by Muranoi (2000) and Havranek (2002).

The above-mentioned studies indicate at least four implications. First, accuracy appears to be one of the most popular criteria for measuring the effectiveness of corrective feedback in the process of L2 development. Secondly, feedback seems to be useful in terms of promoting accurate performance in oral and written tests, although there may be other factors involved. Thirdly, the type of feedback provided by teachers may have an impact on the effectiveness of the feedback, and thus on the language learning development. Fourthly, most researchers who compared the effectiveness of different feedback types consulted either Long's (1996) feedback type classifications, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categories, or Loewen and Nabei's (2007) model (see below). This suggests that the three classifications may be more likely to be applicable to further research exploring other types of corrective feedback.

Three kinds of feedback classification were respectively developed by Long (1996), Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Loewen and Nabei (2007). Long (1996) classified teacher feedback types into explicit and implicit feedback. The former refers to direct, straightforward and noticeable teacher feedback, whereas the latter refers to teacher feedback that is indirect, subtle and may go unnoticed by learners. In order to take the classification further, Lyster and Ranta (1997) summarised six feedback types used by four teachers in charge of different subjects (e.g. maths, French language and art) in four French immersion classrooms at primary level. The six types they identified were: 1) recasts, 2) elicitation, 3) metalinguistic feedback, 4) clarification requests, 5) repetition and 6) explicit correction (see Appendix E1 for further explanation and examples).

Loewen and Nabei (2007) regrouped the six feedback types into 'self-repair' and 'other repair' (see Figure 2.1 on the next page). Self-repair feedback types require learners to reformulate problematic utterances after receiving teachers' feedback, which includes the whole range from explicit to implicit: metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition and clarification requests. Other-repair, which includes recasts and explicit correction, refers to a feedback type that provides learners with correct forms in either an explicit or implicit way (Loewen & Nabei, 2007, p. 326).

Figure 2.1: Feedback types classified by Loewen and Nabei (2007, p. 326)

Other-repair		Self-repair			
Explicit Correction	Recast	Meta-linguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification request
◄———————►		◄———————————►			
Explicit Implicit		Explicit Implicit			
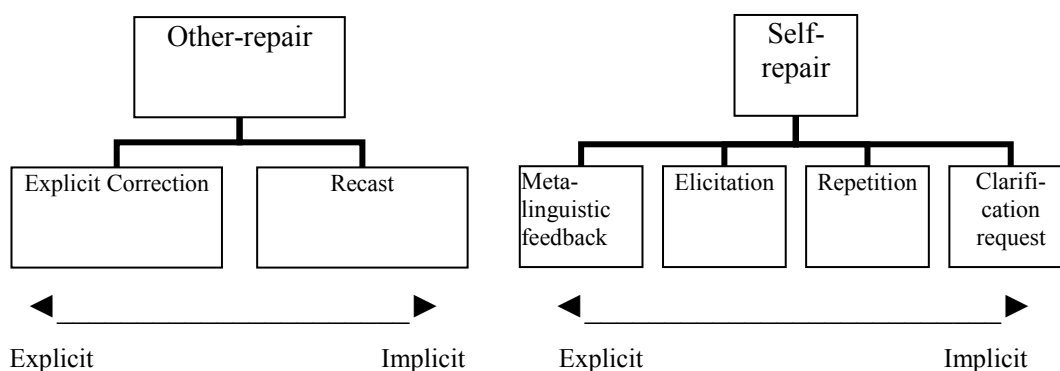
Using Long's (1996) classification, several studies (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006) generated empirical evidence showing that groups with explicit correction outperformed those with implicit correction. One reason for this may be that implicit correction involves too much ambiguity and guessing for learners to fathom what has gone wrong with their output (Seedhouse, 1997).

Focusing on the comparison of different types of feedback, Lyster and Ranta (1997) found recasts to be the least effective feedback type in eliciting learners' self-repair, despite being the type used most frequently. Indeed, as recasts appear to occur most often in language classrooms (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; Havranek, 2002; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Zyzik & Polio, 2008), they have attracted by far the most attention in the literature (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009). Much attention has been paid to how effective recasts are in terms of provoking learner uptake (e.g. Sheen, 2006) or the comparison between recasts and its contrast, prompts, which is a feedback type that pushes learners to reproduce their utterances by offering them some hints (Lyster, 2004). Such studies (Ellis, Loewen, & Basturkmen, 2006; Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Lyster, 2004; Morris, 2005) suggest that recasts appear to be a less effective feedback type than prompts.

However, some studies exist which suggest that the effectiveness of feedback probably has nothing to do with feedback types. Adopting Long's (1996) explicit vs. implicit classification, Kim and Mathes (2001) reported no significant difference

between explicit and implicit correction. Adopting Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification, Muranoi (2000) found that two experimental groups (A and B), which were given different correction treatments, outperformed the control group (C), which were given no correction treatment at all. Group A outperformed group B in the first post-test, but not in the second one which followed. Lyster and Mori (2006) demonstrated that in four French immersion classrooms, the largest amount of repair came from prompts, but in three Japanese immersion classrooms, recasts turned out to be most effective. Similar results were also generated in Nassaji's (2011) study, demonstrating similar effects between learner-generated self-repair following elicitations and teacher-generated repair following recasts (Both studies used feedback classifications similar to Loewen and Nabei's (2007) classification). Moreover, adopting Loewen and Nabei's (ibid) classification, Lyster and Izquierdo's (2009) study suggest that both recasts and prompts result in significant improvement in accuracy, and the effectiveness of both feedback types is similar. These empirical studies imply that the impacts of different feedback types on IL development may be similar. Hence, there are probably other, more complex, factors intertwined within the interactional feedback dialogue contributing to the effectiveness of feedback.

2.7.2 Peer feedback

In addition to investigations into relationships between feedback types and learning outcomes, some studies have explored the role of peer-to-peer interaction in the process of L2 learning. Ohta (2000) undertook an empirical study with college-level learners of Japanese as a foreign language to investigate how they assisted each other's performance in the classroom. She found that students not only asked for but also offered feedback to scaffold each other's performance. Further, she found that even less proficient peers were able to support more proficient students with feedback. Most interestingly, she discovered that learners seemed sensitive to each other's ZPD, as they knew when to keep silent and wait for peers to reformulate their utterances, and when to break the silence with the provision of feedback. In a further investigation, still working with college-level learners (20 learners of English in London and 19 learners of Japanese in America), Foster and Ohta (2005) found evidence of learners paying attention to linguistic forms in both their own output and

that of their peers. During conversations, the learners also expressed interest in each other's talk and encouraged each other to continue. Peer feedback in this study was demonstrated to have not only cognitive but also affective advantages in facilitating language learning.

Iwashita (2001) explored which types of dyadic peer interaction (low-low, high-high, and high-low groups) provided more opportunities for interactional moves and modified output among university learners of Japanese. She found that among the three groups, mixed level dyads had more interactional moves than same level ones. However, the higher occurrence of interactional moves did not lead to the greatest amount of modified output due to learners' frequent use of short confirmation checks (e.g. yes and no responses).

Focusing on corrective feedback among young learners, Morris (2005) used a piece of computer software called 'Blackboard' to create a virtual classroom, recording discussions by 46 fifth-grade learners of Spanish as FL in America. In an attempt to investigate young learners' feedback types and the effectiveness of the feedback, he observed their corrective interaction in a jigsaw task as well as in a collaborative essay. He found that during tasks, implicit feedback (e.g. recasts and negotiation) occurred more often than explicit feedback in learners' exchanges. Furthermore, over half of their corrective feedback led to immediate learner uptake. Negotiation of meaning and forms also proved to be more effective than recasts in terms of eliciting immediate self-repair.

Exploring the relationship between expert vs. novice feedback and IL development, Pica, et al. (1996) found positive evidence to support learners' ability in providing modified output and corrective feedback. Their data indicated that peer feedback can be a beneficial source for L2 learning, in spite of a few weaknesses. In this study, corrective feedback provided by language learners contained greater amounts of the simple segmentation type of feedback than that offered by native speakers of the target language. Learners' interaction provided less modified input than interaction between learners and native speakers. Despite these weaknesses, however, it was

suggested that peer feedback in the negotiation process provides a strong contribution to learners' lexical, morphological and syntactical modified output.

Soler (2002) compared choices of corrective strategies between the teacher and learners of English in a Spanish university, as well as the impacts of teacher feedback vs. peer feedback on learners' ability to make oral requests in a role-play task. With regard to the choice of feedback strategies, despite no statistically significant difference being revealed, the data showed much more indirect feedback in learners' interaction and much more direct feedback in interaction between learners and the teacher. In the immediate post-test, learners experiencing student-student interaction outperformed those in teacher-student interaction. Interestingly, Soler's (2002) qualitative data revealed that the majority of participants in the student-student group did not perceive their collaborative conversation as learning. In contrast, most students in the other group claimed to have learnt much from teacher feedback. This contradictory finding was explained by Soler (ibid) due to the Spanish students' belief that teachers are the people to transmit explicit knowledge, while students do not (ibid).

Similarly, Lynch (2007) found empirical evidence of peer feedback being more effective than teacher feedback in developing learners' speaking performance. Lynch had two groups of learners transcribe the recordings of their prior oral performance in pairs. Next, he asked group one to modify the transcripts that had been corrected by teachers, and group two to keep working on their original transcripts. He had all the transcripts from both groups corrected by the teacher to create a final version, and returned them to all the learners. Finally, both groups performed the same task again based on the final version of the transcripts. The results indicated that group two reached a higher degree of accuracy than group one in forms that had been focused on in previous discussions. Lynch concluded that learner-initiated feedback provokes more talk among learners about language, as well as greater, deeper cognitive processing activities, which may benefit learners more than teacher-initiated feedback does in such tasks (2007).

Sato and Lyster (2012) found that peer feedback appears to have a positive impact on both accuracy and fluency development. They assessed the effects of peer interaction on development in English-speaking skills among university learners in Japan (n =167) with an quasi-expriment. In their quasi-experimental design, they had three experimental groups and one control group. Each group consisted of around 40 learners. Experimental Group One had training about feedback type 'prompts' and English speaking practices. Experimental Group Two had training about feedback type 'recasts' and English speaking classes. Experimental Group Three received no corrective feedback training but had English speaking classes. The control group had neither corrective feedback training nor English speaking classes. Each of the English speaking classes lasted for 60 minutes and was conducted on a weekly basis over a 10-week period. The results of pre- and post-tests of English speaking performance revealed that learners in Experimental Groups One and Two improved accuracy and fluency in speaking performance in the post-test. Learners in Experimental Group Three outperformed the control group only on fluency but not accuracy measures. Sato and Lyster's (ibid) study suggests that peer feedback accelerate learners' monitoring progress, which stretches them to achieve their full potential in automatisation of L2 processing.

The studies reviewed above indicate that peer interaction offers L2 learners linguistic, cognitive and affective assistance in language learning. The findings are in line with the theoretical claims about the benefits of conversational interaction made by researchers such as Lantolf (2002), Long (1996), Swain (1995). Another issue that needs to be explored in order to confirm such claims concerns teachers' and learners' views on the impacts of interactional feedback on L2 development. The next section will present the findings of recent research on this.

2.7.3 Teachers' and learners' views on corrective feedback

Exploring teachers' and learners' attitudes towards corrective feedback and matching what they both consider to be effective feedback on L2 development has been highlighted by researchers (e.g. Han, 2002) as warranting special attention. Educators (e.g. Green, 1993) and especially foreign language educators (e.g. Schulz,

2001) have stressed the importance of understanding learners' minds, as their beliefs play an influential role in motivation and their learning in general. Likewise, teachers' perceptions have been regarded as being equally important in enhancing L2 learning because they affect teachers' choices of teaching approaches (Schulz, 2001).

Studies by Schulz (1996, 2001) suggest that most students like to receive corrective feedback from teachers and believe that this is supposed to happen in the language classroom. In his 1996 study, Schulz found that over 90% of American university students (n=824) vs. 34% of teachers (n =92) were in favour of the provision of corrective feedback in class, while only 3% of students vs. 45% of teachers agreed with the idea of there being no teacher feedback regarding learners' errors. The discrepancy in results between learners' and teachers' responses to the questionnaires triggered the following 2001 study with 607 Colombian secondary students and 122 teachers. Once again, Schulz (2001) found similar results with younger learners, despite the study being conducted in a different context the second time. He then called for more efforts to be made to deal with the conflict between learners' attitudes and teachers' practices.

Drawing on Schulz's (1996, 2001) findings, Loewen et al. (2009) conducted a larger-scale survey with L2 students (n=754) in a US university, and even found a discrepancy between SL and FL learners' beliefs about corrective feedback. L2 learners of English were found to be less convinced about the need for error correction than FL learners of other languages (e.g. Spanish, Arabic). In response to this interesting finding, Loewen et al. (ibid) suggest that learners' different L1 backgrounds and the language instruction methods in their home countries might be possible explanations.

Taking a different approach, Yoshida (2008) used classroom observation and interviews with both teachers (n=2) and learners of Japanese (n=7) at a university in Australia. Her data indicated that despite teachers and learners sharing the same belief in the use of prompts to elicit modified output, recasts appeared to be the most frequently used strategy in their classes. In addition to time restrictions, the teachers

explained that they did not use prompts as "they feared that the learners would be unable to self-correct" (Yoshida, 2008, p. 89). Also, to avoid intimidating learners' self-esteem by explicitly correcting them, the teachers considered recasts to be the seemingly appropriate option. Incongruence between teachers' beliefs and their actual corrective behaviours can also be found in a study by Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004).

Focusing on both teachers' and learners' perceptions of corrective feedback, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) asked 11 undergraduates and 10 qualified FL teachers to detect error-correction moves in a commercially produced English teaching video. Their results revealed that less than a third of the moves were detected by both undergraduates and teachers. The participants considered the teacher feedback moves to be too quick, which made them hardly noticeable to the secondary pupils in the video. At the end of the observation, the participants agreed that more time, longer explanations and the use of a variety of techniques led to the most efficient corrections.

Exploring learners' perceptions of the corrective feedback that they themselves received, research by Slimani (1989) showed that interaction initiated by learners was claimed to be more helpful. Slimani's (ibid) college-level participants said that learner-led interaction assisted them better in understanding the lesson than either teacher instruction or teacher-led interaction. The results indicated that over 79.9% of interaction was initiated by learners themselves or by fellow classmates, whereas only 49.4% of teacher-initiated interaction was claimed to contribute to their learning. Mackey's (2002) study revealed different findings, indicating that 77% of corrective interaction between a native speaker of English and a learner in dyads (n=16) in an experimental setting was identified by learners watching videotapes of their previous interactions. However, learners could only recognise 43% of interaction with their peers in dyads (n=16) during which they were receiving or offering feedback. Despite Mackey's (ibid) findings indicating a relatively low rate of recognition of by learners of involvement in peer interactional feedback, she pointed out that learners' lack of recognition of the peer feedback they received did not mean they did not

benefit from that. She found that one of the learners modified output following peer feedback, but the data showed no sign of him or her recognising the feedback in his or her recall. In a study with other researchers (Mackey, et al., 2000), the results showed that learners were not equally sensitive to all kinds of feedback they received. They were more accurate in recognising lexical, semantic and phonological feedback they encountered, but not as able to identify morphosyntatic feedback.

Hence, when exploring teachers' and learners' views of corrective feedback, it is important to bear in mind at least two things: first, the compatibility between beliefs and behaviours, and secondly, the credibility of claims about experiences. The results of the above-mentioned studies point to the complexity of interpreting such results and the need for further investigations into the role of learners' perceptions of interactional feedback in L2 development.

2.8 Chapter Summary

The literature has shown corrective feedback to have value in IL development. Corrective feedback in experimental studies has been demonstrated to trigger noticing and to promote modified output and, in turn, language enhancement. The exploratory studies have generated classifications for feedback types in classroom settings and made suggestions as to why certain feedback types appear to occur more frequently in communicative interaction. However, most of the reviewed studies dealt with adult learners and focused on the impacts of teacher feedback on L2 learning. There can be little confidence in the relevance either for adolescent learners in secondary education or for learner-learner interaction in classroom settings. Additionally, given the evidence suggesting the significant value of peer interaction for L2 learning in linguistic, cognitive and affective senses, more effort is required to explore the process of interactional feedback among adolescent learners, its impacts and the possible explanations to these impacts.

CHAPTER 3

SPEAKING IN SECOND AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

This chapter provides a review of the literature on speaking in second and foreign language classrooms. It presents two different theoretical accounts of speaking and discusses their relevance for oral practice in classroom settings. Next, the chapter focuses on issues related to the application of speaking models to language learning and test design in practice.

3.1 Defining Speaking

From an SLA perspective, speaking can be manifested in at least two levels: linguistic and communicative. At the linguistic level, speaking comprises three requisites: phonology, lexis and syntax (Weir, 2005, p.102). These requisites generate sound and meaning (Chomsky, 1995), and, in turn, support interactive communication. Widdowson (1978) described this linguistically-centred speaking construct as "speaking as usage" (p.3); that is, speaking is seen as a manifestation of linguistic knowledge. According to Luoma (2004), this manifestation may be the most familiar speaking construct to language teachers as it is often adopted in learning materials in which a language is divided into different smaller units, where teaching and learning take place step by step. The performing of language drills may be one of the commonest practices to be guided by this construct (Widdowson, 1978).

At the communicative level, speaking is regarded as a verbal utterance carried out in order to establish communication (Fulcher, 2003). This communication-centred construct places a high value on the necessity of meaningful interaction in speaking in which each participant acts as both a speaker and a listener, managing meaning-making with each other (Luoma, 2004). Widdowson (1978) coined the term "speaking as use" to describe this construct, which emphasises the use of language (p.3), for example, speaking for a social purpose (e.g. chatting-related talk) or

information exchange (e.g. information-oriented talk). The former requires social skills, which are closely linked to speakers' personalities and social behaviours, whereas the latter focuses on the information that is intended to be conveyed (Brown & Bailey, 1984).

From a socio-cultural perspective, based on Appel and Lantolf's (1994) interpretation of the work of Vygotsky (1978), speaking can be seen as a succession of interactive, mediated mental activities. These activities are triggered either by external stimuli (e.g. objects) or by internal needs (e.g. desire), and are driven by social purposes (James P. Lantolf, 2006). The activities can be accomplished intra-personally, through private speech (Lantolf, 2000a), or interpersonally, through dialogic processes (Lantolf, 2006). In the latter situation, the activities are initiated in collective collaboration (e.g. scaffolding) with other people and subsequently become internalised as the individual's own 'assets'. Speaking in this vein is regarded as a goal-driven activity, in which learners co-construct meaning and knowledge through either individually or socially mediated processes. Most importantly, speaking is the activity that learners themselves proactively co-construct based on their individually or socially determined goals.

Both theoretical perspectives offer insights into manifestations of speaking. The SLA tradition suggests that speaking serves as a means to practise linguistic items as well as to achieve communication. Within this view, two different speaking models will be discussed: Bygate's (1987) skill-practice-process model and Bachman and Palmer's (1996) communicative-competence model. The socio-cultural tradition regards speaking as a mediated activity, co-constructed by people who engage in it, in an attempt to reach self-determined goals. In line with this view, three central concepts of socio-cultural theory will be explored: mediation, private speech, and activity theory.

3.2 Speaking from an SLA Perspective

3.2.1 Speaking as a skill-practice process

Bygate's (1987) model of speaking as a skill-practice process was originally aimed to assist teachers with lesson plans and, in turn, to facilitate learning, according to Luoma (2004). Centred on "processing" and "reciprocity" (Bygate, 1987, p.11), the model emphasises that speaking is an impromptu action that requires an adaptive ability to simultaneously process the words that are heard, understood and spoken. Bygate (1987) argues that the speaking process involves interaction between "knowledge" and "skill" (p. 50). In terms of knowledge, speaking requires certain attributes, such as linguistic and interactional knowledge. In terms of skill, speaking requires strategies to manage the knowledge components in order to promote engagement in active interaction (ibid).

The speaking process comprises "planning", "selection" and "production" stages (Bygate, 1987, p. 50). At the planning stage, speakers need the ability to envisage a prospective conversation in their mind. This ability incorporates both knowledge about the evaluation of the speaking circumstance and skills in harnessing the knowledge, in order to predict what will happen next or to pre-plan what words to say. At the selection stage, speakers need both the linguistic knowledge to express their intention and the skills to negotiate ways of expression. At this stage, speakers revise expressions and negotiate meanings so that, for example, they can estimate what their listeners may know and evaluate what may make them understand the message. At the production stage, speakers need to externalise what has been in their heads during the previous two stages. At this point, they rely on their knowledge of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammatical rules to articulate their ideas, as well as a variety of skills to facilitate their speech (ibid). For instance, the speakers can use ellipsis or formulaic expressions to simplify their speech. They can use self-correction or rephrasing to compensate for things that go wrong in their speech. They can engage their listeners in collaborative meaning-making, or adjust what they intended to say in accordance with their limited language resources. These skills can be categorised into two strategies: (1) "achievement strategies" that compensate for language gaps by finding a substitute (Bygate, 1987, p. 44) and (2) "reduction

strategies" that change or shorten what was originally planned to be said (Bygate, 1987, p. 47).

Bygate's (1987) model, which depicts speaking as a process comprising three stages, as described above, provides a theoretical framework for understanding speaking, as well as several implications for designing speaking tasks for learning and assessment of the study (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.7 for information about how speaking tasks employed in the study were designed and delivered according to this model). First, the model that illustrates how learners progressively manage speaking activities in their mind gives both teachers and test-writers an idea of how tasks can be designed appropriately (Luoma, 2004). In addition, with an emphasis on speaking as an impromptu, reciprocal process, this model suggests the importance of being aware of the challenges that learners may face when speaking in L2 (e.g. being nervous). In this regard, when planning activities that require improvisation in speech, activity planners may wish to provide relevant support (e.g. useful phrases) as well as creating an environment in which learners feel comfortable and confident enough to produce utterances in L2 (This point was taken into account by the researcher when she designed the speaking tasks for the learners of the study. For instance, the learners were provided with a few useful phrases or sentences relating to the given tasks. See Chapter 4, Section 4.2.7 for more information). Moreover, Bygate's (1987) discussion about strategies that learners may take while speaking is a reminder of what should be taken into account when assessing their performance. Given the likelihood of learners trying to avoid certain tricky structures or vocabulary in order to speak fluently, test-raters may need to be aware that error-free speech does not necessarily equal 'good' performance and vice versa. Thus, multiple criteria may be needed when it comes to evaluating speaking performance, because this allows different aspects of the performance to be scrutinised. Bygate's (1987) discussion about learner strategies as mentioned above also played a role in the development of the rating criteria as well as the marking schemes of the study (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.1 for the information about the rating criteria and the marking schemes).

3.2.2 Speaking as a communicative activity

In reaction to the highly form-focused approach to SL/FL teaching and learning (e.g. the audio-lingual approach), in the 1970s, the communicative teaching approach emerged in an attempt to tackle the problem of learners being unable to communicate effectively in L2 (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). Since then, a number of models regarding communicative competence have been proposed, such as Canale and Swain's (1980) model. These models reflect the underlying concept that language proficiency constitutes the ability to use language successfully in real-life communication situations. According to Luoma (2004), this belief has had some impacts on teaching and learning in L2 classrooms. One of these impacts is the trend of using authentic materials and communicative tasks in language classrooms, and another is the recognition of the importance of employing communicative activities in language tests (ibid).

Among communication models, Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model (see Figure 3.1 on next page) has been used most frequently in the field of language learning and assessment, according to Luoma (2004). This model describes language use as being an interaction between users and their contexts[4]. This is premised on the claim that language production should be seen as "language use activities", and occurs in language-use settings (Luoma, 2004, p. 101). Language production relies on five hypothesised fundamental components: *language knowledge*, *topical knowledge*, *personal characteristics*, *strategic competence* and *affective factors* (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 63). *Language knowledge*, as the name implies, refers to learners' knowledge about the target language. *Topical knowledge* refers to learners' knowledge about different topics, which can be drawn on in different situations. *Personal characteristics* refer to learners' age, sex, mother tongue etc., while *strategic competence* involves learners' metacognitive ability to organise language and to monitor the situation. Finally, *affective factors* influence learners' emotional reactions to a situation.

---

[4] Despite the fact that Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model discusses the relationship between learners and their contexts, the focal point of their model is still language learners and language use.

Figure 3.1 Relationships between hypothesised components of language use

Context Circle

Learner Circle

Language
knowledge

Topical
knowledge

Personal
characteristics

Affect

Strategic
competence

Characteristics of the language use or
test task and setting
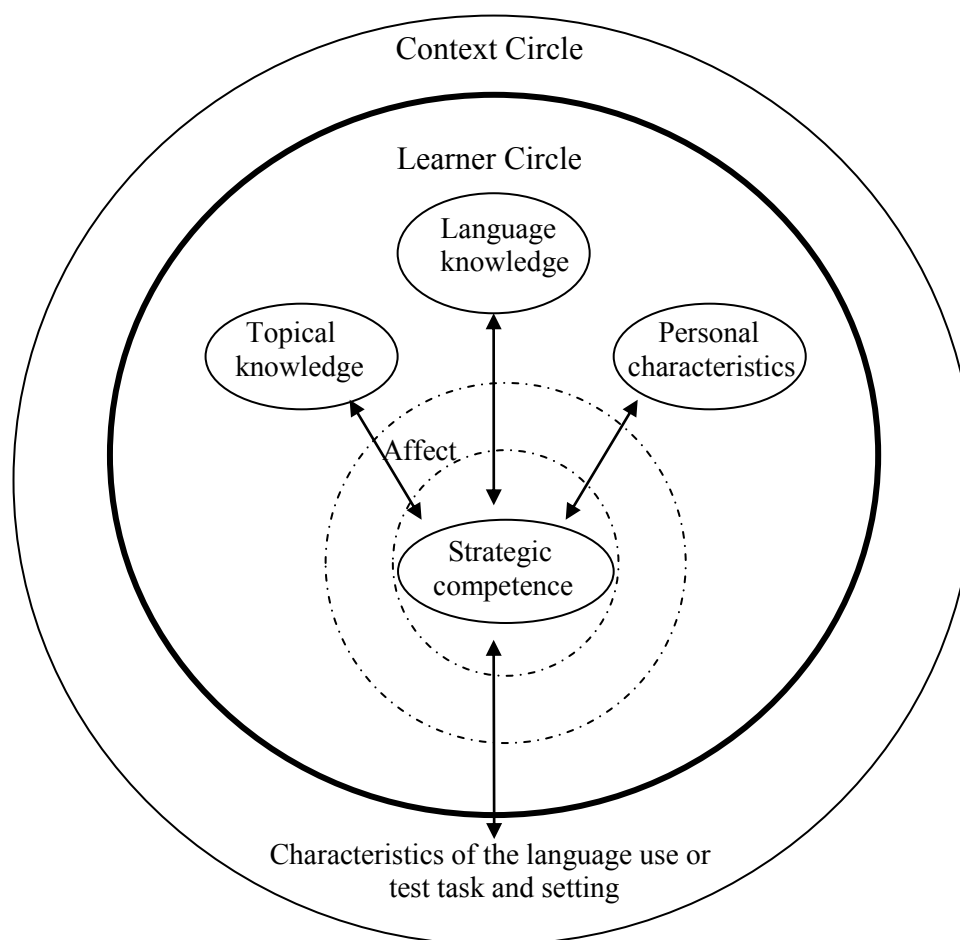
Note. Adapted from Bachman and Palmer (1996, p.63).

As shown in Figure 3.1, language learners are considered to be at the centre of the learner circle, and to interact with their context (e.g. the given task), which is depicted as the context circle. In the learner circle, *language knowledge* and *strategic competence* dominate learners' language ability. Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggest that when learners are interacting with language-use settings, they harness their *strategic competence* in order to evaluate how to cope with the situation. That is, *strategic competence* helps learners to set a goal, deciding what to do first. They then evaluate the situation and assess what resources are available for them to cope with the situation, and finally they plan how to realise the goal.

With regard to language knowledge, Bachman and Palmer (1996) listed six areas of language knowledge (see Table 3.1). Of these, according to Luoma (2004), there are three primary tiers that can be found: *organisational*, *pragmatic*, and *socio-linguistic knowledge*. *Organisational knowledge* assists learners in organising individual sentences with grammatical knowledge (e.g. knowledge of syntax) and pieces of texts with textual knowledge (e.g. knowledge of cohesion). *Pragmatic knowledge* affects how well learners are able to relate utterances to fit the communicative goals and the language-use situation. In order to ensure that this connection is strongly built, learners need to employ their *functional knowledge* such as knowledge of imaginative functions to creatively use language for humorous purposes, for example, to tell a joke. Lastly, *socio-linguistic knowledge* helps learners to understand how language is used in the related culture and community, so that they can smooth the communication process (Luoma, 2004).

Table 3.1 Areas of language knowledge

1. Organisational knowledge	How utterances or sentences and texts are organised
2. Grammatical knowledge	How individual utterances or sentences are organised Knowledge of vocabulary Knowledge of syntax Knowledge of phonology/ graphology
3. Textual knowledge:	How utterances or sentences are organised to form texts Knowledge of cohesion Knowledge of rhetorical or conversational organisation
4. Pragmatic knowledge:	How utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of language users and to the features of the language-use setting
5. Functional knowledge:	How utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of language users Knowledge of ideational functions Knowledge of manipulative functions Knowledge of heuristic functions Knowledge of imaginative functions
6. Sociolinguistic knowledge:	How utterances or sentences and texts are related to the features of the language-use setting Knowledge of dialects/varieties Knowledge of registers Knowledge of natural or idiomatic expressions Knowledge of cultural references and figures of speech

Note. Adapted from Bachman and Palmer (1996, p. 68).

Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model underlines the importance of the use of language in adjusting to different language-use situations rather than the mere presentation of language knowledge. In this regard, speaking tasks and tests should aim to provide learners with language-use situations, or at least with simulated ones, given the fact that designed tasks and tests cannot be identical to real-life encounters. (Taking this point into account, the tasks given to the learners of the study were designed to simulate daily-life experiences of the learners, for example a grocery shopping task. See Appendices C1 and C2 for the tasks employed in the study and see Chapter 4, Sections 4.2.6 and 4.2.7 for the relevant information). Bachman and Palmer's (ibid) detailed analysis of different speaking components also gives test writers a clear testing criteria template and provides implications for how speaking performance can be assessed accordingly (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.1 for the information about the development of the marking schemes employed in the study). However, as Luoma (2004) suggests, the model is primarily focused on individual learners, so the inferences that can be drawn from it will mostly rest on understanding learners' meta-cognitive processes and their emotional reactions to communication. Hence, in order to broaden understanding of learners' interactive communication, other alternatives to individually-driven language models should also be explored.

3.3 Speaking from a Socio-cultural Perspective

Socio-cultural theory owes much to Vygotsky's (1978) idea that there is an inseparable, continual interplay between human action and thinking. In recent years, Lantolf (1994, 2000a, 2000b, 2002, 2006) has made constant efforts to promote appreciation of a social-cultural perspective on investigating L2 learning. In the following sections, three concepts that are regarded by Lantolf (ibid) as being closely linked to L2 learning will be discussed.

3.3.1 Mediation

According to Lantolf's (2006) interpretation of Vygotsky's (1978) idea, the term 'mediation' is a kind of human mental activity which involves action, thinking and

society. Based on Lantolf's (2006) explanation, mediation is stimulated by either internal, biological needs (e.g. thirst) or external cultural factors. Cultural factors include: activities (e.g. education), artefacts (e.g. books as a physical tool, language as a symbolic tool) and concepts (e.g. the understanding of the social world). These factors on the one hand trigger humans to make responses to them, while on the other hand inhibit people from reacting automatically to them. Humans are believed to be able to suppress their impulsive behaviours before working out a viable plan with the help of these cultural factors. In other words, humans are able to consider the consequences of their actions through mediated processes in order to prevent dangerous or unpleasant things from happening to them (Lantolf, 2006).

These cultural factors play another important role, mediating the relationships between an individual and his or her mind, between an individual and the outer world, and between individuals (Lantolf, 2006). It has been suggested that through these mediations (either between subjects or between subjects and objects), learning is facilitated, knowledge is constructed and tasks are accomplished. Lantolf's (1994) shopping example, below, illustrates how humans integrate symbols or objects into their mental activities. If a person wants to go grocery shopping, he or she can attempt to remember all the items through repeated rehearsals, or can write the items down on a piece of paper. Both acts require language as a mediating tool to ease the mental strain, but the latter method appears to be a more powerful auxiliary means. This is because with the second option, the person's memory effort is greatly reduced by harnessing two forms of artefacts: physical objects (pen and paper) and a symbolic object (language) (ibid). Another alternative open to the person may be to enlist the assistance of others, asking his or her companions to memorise some of the items so that he or she only has to memorise the remainder of them, potentially making the memorisation task easier. Lantolf's (ibid) example helps to reveal how such mental activities can be initiated and mediated. The example also helps to show how the mediations work within an individual (using repeated rehearsal), between an individual and artefacts (using the shopping list) and between individuals (using a companion's or companions' help).

3.3.2 Private speech

When applying the concept of mediation to SLA, whether learners are able to deploy L2 to mediate their mental activities as they do in L1 is one of the most intriguing questions (Lantolf, 2006). Research evidence (Appel & Lantolf, 1994; McCafferty, 1994) suggests that L2 learners tend to externalise their private speech in L2 in order to organise their thinking when they encounter challenges in, for example, narrating a story or explaining complex issues. Lantolf (2000a) suggests that learners' private speech serves as a support to help them to internalise messages into meanings. As learners' cognitive development progresses, their private speech will go sub-vocal and evolve into inner speech. Ultimately, the inner speech develops into pure meaning (ibid). The example below, provided by Lantolf (ibid), may explain the concept more clearly. A person attempting to complete a task may talk to him or herself, saying words like: 'now', 'okay', 'done', and 'next one'. These words are his or her private speech. When this private speech only appears in the mind, it is referred to as inner speech. Finally, this inner speech will be condensed into meanings, hence removing the need for any forms of speech. That is, the person will no longer need to resort to self-directed speech in order to complete a task (ibid).

The use of private speech is not the only support L2 learners can rely on. They may also use gestures. Gestural signals and verbal utterances may both be read by people who are communicating with each other. Both gestures and utterances serve as a complement to each other and take partial responsibility for the success of the communication (Lantolf, 2000a). The example below shows how gestures support verbal utterances in communication (the words in italic are Chinese Hanyu Pingyin. Words in brackets [ ] are their English counterparts):

> Student 1:   She buy a Geant [The student intended to say Giant[5]] ..um…
>
> Student 2:   *nǐ jiǎo zài cǎi shénme* [What are you pedalling?] ?
>
> Student 3:   *Jiǎotàchē* [bike], bicycle.
>
> > (The dialogue is extracted from the data of the present study)

---

[5] Giant is a bike brand.

The dialogue above shows that S1 used pedalling as a gestural signal to support what he intended to say, which drew S2's attention to what he was doing, and in turn helped S3 to understand what he was trying to say. The example shows the importance of the role of gestural signals in cognitive activity by integrating verbal signs into message-decoding-and-forming, which provides the conditions for meaning to be co-constructed (Lantolf, 2000a, p. 16).

3.3.3 Activity theory

Activity theory epitomises the idea behind Vygotsky's (1978) original thought that human behaviour is a consequence of the integration of mediation triggered by social and cultural stimuli (Lantolf, 2000a). Human behaviour starts with a need (e.g. biological or cultural needs). The need then becomes a motive that directs humans to take certain actions under the appropriate conditions. Thus, human activities consist of "motivations", "actions" and "conditions" (Lantolf, 2000a, p. 8). There is always a motive behind any action, but actions are the only concrete things that can be directly observed. The same actions may result from different motives, and the same motives may lead to different actions (ibid). Activity theory, simply speaking, is a theory that concerns all aspects of actions, including what, how, where, when and why certain activities are carried out. The activity is considered important because it is believed that people do things for given purposes (e.g. a goal-driven purpose) (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1998) (The above-mentioned main point of activity theory was taken into account in the task design for the pre-and post-tests as well as the English speaking lessons. See the study's research design in Chapter 4, Sections 4.2.6 and 4.2.7).

Speaking in this regard is considered to be a social activity that occurs with a purpose. When the act of speaking takes place, it connects and simultaneously interacts with the surroundings (e.g. people, culture, physical objects). Speaking is not a stable, fixed act but, rather, an active, dynamic one particularly when it happens in a real language-use situation. The thinking and meaning-making involved in speaking activities are socially-oriented; thus, speaking activities will be studied as a socially cognitive rather than merely an individually cognitive concept.

Taken together, socio-cultural approaches (mediation, private speech, and activity theory) to language learning consider language-use to be a social activity. Language use is thought of as a product as well as a means of mediation; something that takes place in society in order to satisfy certain individual needs. Mediation as described as a mental activity that occurs when humans interact with other people, objects and themselves. In the process of mediation, people harness different forms of resources (e.g. subjects like peers or objects like pens) in order to fulfil their goals. All these lead to a belief that language like other human activities, is culturally, socially mediated. Language is learnt through interactions and experiences with others, and most importantly, thinking and action are inextricably connected. Thus, it is also important to explore the motive behind each act when it is desired to understand the act in question.

With an emphasis on multiple intertwined forces behind any human activities, socio-cultural theory seems to provide relatively unclear guidance as to how to design speaking tasks and assessment models compared to the reviewed SLA models (see Sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2). In spite of this, the theory still has several implications for testing speaking using interactive activities. First, as socio-cultural theory asserts that meaning and learning are co-constructed between the people involved (Lantolf, 2006), it points to the importance of consistency on the part of the interlocutor in interacting with the candidates during the speaking test. This is because both the interlocutor and the candidates share the responsibility for the success of their discourse. This then leads to second implication: the importance of implementing standardised tests. Moreover, since a test from the socio-cultural perspective is seen as a human activity, candidates will also perceive it mainly as such. That is, the candidates will be aware that they are being tested, which may draw their attention to the expectations and norms of the communication (Luoma, 2004), and in turn affect their behaviours in the test. Therefore, the provision of clear instructions about how the candidates can achieve high marks is also important (ibid). These implications had been taken into account before the researcher conducted the pre-and post-test of English speaking and planned the processes of rating the learners' performance in the tests (see Chapter 4, Sections 4.2.6 and 4.3.1).

3.4 Applying Speaking Models to Practice

As discussed above, speaking models provide information that can be used in language learning classrooms and speaking assessments. With regard to language learning, Bygate's (1987) framework, which focuses on knowledge processing and spontaneous reciprocity in speaking practice, shows the possibilities of learners' performance in simulated or real-life conversations. This informs teachers about the circumstances that learners are under when performing the tasks, which may assist teachers with task development, activity designs and learning plans. Bachman and Palmer's (1996) framework offers careful analysis of varied components of speaking, which may inform teachers how to develop learners' different abilities and, ultimately, how to promote speaking proficiency. Socio-cultural theory, which highlights the importance of taking the wider context into account when interpreting any human activities, serves as a reminder to teachers not to overlook the impacts of contextual factors on language learning. As suggested by Ellis (2000), "the nature of the activities learners engage in before they perform a task can impact on their performance", and socio-cultural theory views mental and social activities as being seamlessly related (p. 208), encouraging teachers to realise the value of the role of social activity in learning.

With regard to language assessment, applying theoretical models to speaking assessments has been a common approach to the development of assessment. For instance, the English Language Skills Assessment draws on Bachman's (1990) model (Luoma, 2004). In practice, different models may be conflated, as a single theoretical framework may not suffice to reflect the needs of the context in which the test is being developed. Test developers may then adopt Bachman and Palmer's (1996) and Bygate's (1987) models into their test design so that both componential and procedural views on speaking can be harnessed for applied purposes (Luoma, 2004). As theoretical models are not designed to remain in academic journal articles, but, rather, to be applied into practice, it seems reasonable to think that the entire assessment design (e.g. tasks, assessment criteria etc.) will be more or less driven by the practical conditions and the needs of the stakeholders. Hence, having theoretical frameworks as a general guidance for speaking assessment is critical, but in order to

make the assessments more applicable in given contexts, certain adjustments may inevitably have to be made.

3.4.1 Speaking tasks

The difference between the views on speaking held by SLA and socio-cultural researchers also reflects the divergence in their thinking about the role of speaking tasks. SLA researchers (e.g. Skehan, Foster, & Mehnert, 1998) regard tasks as being external means which induce learners to produce certain forms of language, and trigger certain types of cognitive-processing that are believed to be essential for IL development. Thus, tasks help to predict what forms of language may be used by learners and what mental activities learners may go through. In other words, tasks can potentially manipulate the way in which learners process language (Ellis, 2000) and may impact on the nature of learners' performance (Skehan, et al., 1998). With a two-way information-gap task, for example, the task is believed to be more likely to allow more meaning negotiation to take place when communication breaks down (Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993). This communication breakdown creates opportunities for learners to notice their language weaknesses and to push them to reformulate their output; it is suggested that this contributes to L2 acquisition according to Long's early and later forms of the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1983, 1996) (see Chapter 2, Section 2.6 for more information on the interaction hypothesis).

Socio-cultural researchers (e.g. Lantolf, 1994) reject the close relationship between task characteristics and learners' performance. Appel and Lantolf (1994) argue that performance is significantly contingent upon the interactions within an individual and between individuals towards tasks, rather than tasks per se. Tasks, from a socio-cultural perspective, are not a constant variable that contributes to learners' performance. Instead, learners' own perceptions and interpretations of tasks, as well as the effort they put into handling them, are all potentially influential factors on their performance, so are the tasks that involve interaction (e.g. scaffolding) with others (Ellis, 2000). The idea that any human activities are co-constructed through mediated processes (e.g. individual mediation with artefacts, social mediation with others) (Lantolf, 2006) is so ingrained in socio-cultural theory that the impacts of the tasks

cannot be independently accounted for without discussing other factors that interrelate with them. In short, tasks cannot be seen as individual, external sources of influence on performance.

The two research traditions may seem to contradict the role of speaking tasks in the learning process in theory, but they are not necessarily incompatible in practice. According to Ellis (2000), both traditions provide information that can be used in language learning activities. The SLA tradition can inform teachers how to select tasks that suit the needs of particular groups of learners. It can also show teachers how to design a task-based syllabus, which involves planning when to recommend that learners perform a task and whether to repeat a task (ibid). The socio-cultural tradition can make teachers aware that learners are likely to adapt a task to match their own goals, so the outcome of the task may not correspond to what was planned. It also encourages teachers to explore the dynamics of learner interaction, for example, how goals are collectively determined, how inter-subjectivity is jointly achieved, and how scaffolding is provided (ibid). Such awareness may help teachers to understand how learning arises out of improvised performance (e.g. participant dialogues during the task) in ways that are relevant to the determined goals (Swain, 2000) (See Chapter 4, Section 4.2.7 for information about how the speaking tasks employed in the study were designed according to the implications that were drawn from these two research traditions).

Regarding speaking assessments, tasks play a crucial role in allowing test writers to make inferences from scores to constructs (Fulcher, 2003). This is because the tasks in the assessments are closely linked to the assessment purposes and the speaking construct that the assessments draw on. Luoma (2004) identified three types of speaking constructs in assessment design: linguistically-oriented, communication-oriented and situation-oriented, and noticed that the latter two preferred in current language education (p.162). This may be due to the reflection of the current view on speaking as a means of meaningful and efficient communication, as well as social interaction in real-world settings (see Section 3.1). Luoma (2004) also suggests that teachers or test writers can develop a combined task-design based on the three

constructs in order to fit the purpose or scope of the test. By doing this, it is more likely that various tasks will be developed, by which different speaking abilities can be tested, making it more likely that a complete picture of learners' speaking competence will be obtained (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.6 for the information about the tasks used in the pre- and post-tests that were designed to assess different speaking skills of the learners of the study).

Some modern English tests, such as the *Young Learners English* (YLE) test (Cambridge ESOL: Young Learners English (YLE), 2010) usually include different types of tasks, which are designed to assess learners' different speaking skills. In the *YLE* assessment for the *flyers* level, the test starts with a short one-to-one interview during which learners need to demonstrate their communication skills such as greetings with an interlocutor. After this, learners are given an information-gap task (e.g. asking for directions, making changes to school information). In this task, learners are expected to complete a simulated activity of daily life using the limited information provided. The third task is a picture-based narrative task, which requires candidates to make up a narrative based on a series of sequential pictures.

The *YLE* test example illustrates two task types that are commonly shown in modern tests: non-interactional and interactional (one-way, two-way and multi-way) (Fulcher, 2003, chap. 3). The non-interactional type, such as narrative picture-based tasks, is frequently used to test young candidates' ability to report events in the past tense structures, as telling simple stories is what young, less proficient students are expected to be able to do in the early stage of their L2 learning journey (Fulcher, 2003). A thorny issue with tasks involving pictures can be that it is not easy to find a completely appropriate task for the candidates. Appropriate pictures should help to reveal candidates' different aspects of language; particularly vocabulary and sociolinguistic knowledge. Hence, the pictures should not include "culturally alien images" (Fulcher, 2003, p.75) or images that require descriptive words beyond candidates' expected vocabulary (ibid).

The interactional task type, such as face-to-face interviews and information-gap activities, obviously requires 'communicational interaction'. The two tasks usually require candidates to work with an interlocutor; in order to ensure fairness, the interlocutor is expected to be consistent in his or her replies in the test. However, this is never easy, even with much standardisation training beforehand, because tasks like these involve real communication in which both parties genuinely initiate, maintain and finish the conversation (Fulcher, 2003, p.81). This requires *strategic*, *textual* (e.g. conversational organisation) and *sociolinguistic competence* from both parties (see Section 3.2), in particular for information-gap activities.

The selection of tasks for both language learning and assessment are guided by its corresponding speaking constructs and models, so it should be possible to use the learning or test outcome to evaluate whether the assessment purpose has been fulfilled. However, in addition to examining the link between the use of task types and the construct, the task implementation process also has a role to play in evaluating the quality of the assessment. The former is closely linked to validity, and the latter pertains to reliability. Validity examines the association between the results and the original purpose of the test, while reliability explores the consistency in the test delivery, rating the performance and interpreting the results. The related issues such as assessment criteria, rating scales, validity and reliability will be discussed in the next section.

3.4.2 Speaking assessment criteria and rating scales

The assessment criteria and rating scales share a collective responsibility with tasks for reflecting learners' speaking proficiency. Assessment criteria reflect the idea of what constitutes speaking; thus they can be seen as a manifestation of the speaking construct followed by the assessment. In the criteria-recruitment process, theoretical speaking models appear to be a helpful resource available for test writers to draw upon (Luoma, 2004). For instance, the detailed analysis of language competence shown in Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model is considered by Luoma (2004) to be a suitable guidance for the development of assessment criteria (see Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2). Partly for this reason, Bachman and Palmer's (ibid) model was used

as a guidance in developing the assessment criteria for the pre- and post-tests of the study (see Chapter 4, Section, 4.2.6 for the information about the pre- and post-tests).

Rating scales can be seen as a description of how good a piece of performance is according to each corresponding criterion. One of the common scales is called the "assessor-oriented scale" (Fulcher, 2003, p. 89). This kind of scale can be approached by adapting existing scales that have been developed by experienced teachers or test writers in accordance with teaching syllabus or certain needs. A focus group is usually called upon to revise the wording of the descriptors at each level of the scale. As the discussion progresses, the scale is evolved, refined and finally trialled for small samples of speaking performance (Fulcher, 2003). If necessary, the focus-group discussion can be conducted several times until the group reaches maximum agreement on the scale. The advantage of this type of scale lies in the provision of construct definition and facilitation of the rating process for assessors within a limited timeframe (also see Fulcher, 2003, p. 89 for additional types of rating scales).

In L2 speaking assessment, both holistic and analytic rating scales are often used to assess learners' oral performance (Sawaki, 2007). Holistic scales allow raters to judge a speech impressionistically. The raters are not required to count the incidents of mistakes made in different features (e.g. grammatical errors), but, rather, to give a single score which represents the overall quality of the performance. Conversely, analytic assessment requires raters to pay special attention to each feature of the performance, for example, the extensive use of vocabulary (Fulcher, 2003). According to Sawaki (2007), analytic rating scales are often adopted over holistic scales to measure learners' language ability for several reasons. First, analytic scales reveal more fruitful information and details about candidates' performance, which can be transformed into diagnostic feedback for learners. Secondly, analytic scales are in line with the multi-componential thinking of language ability (Bachman, Lynch, & Mason, 1995). Thirdly, analytic scales increase the accuracy of the judgement by drawing raters' attention to specific criteria (Brown & Bailey, 1984). Despite these strengths of analytic scales, however, this is not to say that they should

be prioritised over holistic scales. As emphasised earlier, the choice of which type of rating scales to use is closely associated with the purpose of the assessment and the practical conditions (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.1 for information about why both holistic and analytic marking schemes were employed in the study).

Unlike the single score given to each speech sample in individual holistic scales, analytic scales generate multiple scores, and thus offer more ways to report the scores. One way is to report a composite score that is obtained by averaging or summing up across the scores on the scale. Before doing this, the weighting of each individual component should be taken into consideration, as in certain circumstances raters may want to weight specific components according to assessment purposes. Another way is to report the score of each criterion in addition to an overall score that is obtained by an additional rating on an overall scale (Sawaki, 2007).

After the criteria and the scales have been decided, standardisation training is devised for raters. The raters need to familiarise themselves with the construct of the test, the tasks, criteria, scales and rating procedures, in order to achieve inter-rater reliability. The raters are expected to rate the same performance similarly and to be consistent throughout the rating process. After demonstrating high inter-rater reliability, the scores then can be considered dependable, so inferences can be made from them for further use (Luoma, 2004). A common way to examine inter-rater reliability is through correlation analysis, which is a statistical measurement enabling examination of the strength of the relationship between factors (variables) (ibid). More information about reliability examination is available in a number of resources for social research statistics (e.g. Fielding & Gilbert, 2006) (see Chapters 5 and 6 for information about the inter-rater reliability of the pre-and post-tests of the study).

It is noted that the validity and reliability of the scales need to be examined before reporting the analytic scores. Regarding validity, the weighting of each criterion on the scale should reflect the relative importance of the different aspects of language ability, which is guided by the chosen construct. Interrelationships between each analytic criterion on the individual scale should also be demonstrated. With regard to

reliability, ratings carried out by different raters should reach a reasonable positive correlation in order for the scores to be deemed credible enough for further statistical analysis (see Chapter 4, Section 4.4 for more discussion about validity and reliability).

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed speaking constructs from both SLA and socio-cultural perspectives, as well as their divergent implications for both language learning and assessment in practice. In the SLA tradition, Bygate's (1987) and Bachman and Palmer's (1996) models give detailed analysis of how speaking may be processed in learners' minds, and what components are encapsulated in speech. The models assist teachers to plan speaking activities and test writers to construct the tests. In the socio-cultural tradition, the interaction between learners and their contexts has been considered to have a great impact on their learning. This indicates the importance of the inclusion of contextual factors to language learning and testing respectively. However, as the models from both traditions can only provide guidance for teaching and testing at a reasonably adequate level, the use of a combination of the different models may be necessary in order to fulfil the needs of the practical situations. Special attention should also be paid to this context-driven thinking in the following task design and criteria selection, in addition to the construction of rating scales, so as to ensure practical benefits for learning and for the development of assessments. This thinking will be continuously taken into account during the discussion of the research design of the present study in next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter presents the research design of the present study. It begins by providing a rationale for choosing the mixed-methods approach to conduct the study. Then, the chapter describes the processes of data collection and analysis, and finally discusses issues related to the research design (e.g. ethical concerns).

4.1 The Mixed-Methods Approach in Educational Research

The mixed-methods approach has emerged as an alternative to the dichotomy of the quantitative and qualitative approaches towards research over the last two decades, according to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009). Mixed-methods researchers are interested in both numeric and narrative data and their analyses, with their underlying philosophical assumptions suggesting a leaning towards pragmatism (ibid). The word 'mixed' indicates the involvement of plural approaches within a single study or series of studies across different research phases. At the methodology level, the word 'mixed' reflects the nature of the research design (e.g. experimental design, survey design), while at the method level, it refers to the use of various data collection and analysis tools.

The appreciation of using various methods results from contexts where practitioners' work demands both generality and particularity (Greene, 2008). On the one hand, practitioners call for results reflecting regular patterns to increase the likelihood of replication. On the other hand, they call for deep insight into individual variations and different experiences (ibid). The practitioners need quantitative and qualitative data to satisfy their confirmatory and exploratory enquiries simultaneously in order to tackle practical problems (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). With a mixed-methods design, they can study a phenomenon by converging different forms of data (*triangulation*), which compensates for the weakness of using either a quantitative or qualitative approach alone (*complementarity*). In this regard, the breadth of research is expanded (*expansion*) and the findings generated from one method can help to

develop the subsequent method (*development*) or detecting contradictions which help refine the research questions (*initiation*). These five strengths (*triangulation, complementarity, expansion, development and initiation*) suggested by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 22) have paved the way for the use of a mixed-methods approach when conducting the present study.

4.2 Research Design of the Present Study

Owing to practical constraints (e.g. participant consent), a classroom-based quasi-experimental, instead of a lab-based experimental, design with non-representative sampling was conducted. In educational research, quasi-experimentation rather than lab-based experimentation is often employed due to the impracticability of the random selection of participants, as well as the difficulty in turning educational settings into true lab-based surroundings (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Most importantly, the quasi-experimental design was used because it may satisfy both exploratory and confirmatory enquiries, and may simultaneously avoid invasions of the participants' rights and welfare (issues regarding ethical concerns are discussed in Section 4.5).

The present study employed a pre-and post-intervention design to explore the connection between adolescent learners' L2 development and the intervention (six peer-led correction English-speaking lessons). It proved difficult in the circumstances to set up a control group due to insufficient numbers of like participants. To compensate for the disadvantages of this design without a control group, follow-up interviews (see Section 4.2.8) were used as a means to investigate factors that may contribute to differences in the learners' L2 development between pre- and post-measures (e.g. pre- and post-tests). It is suggested in the literature (e.g. Lee, 2012) that including qualitative elements into quasi-experimental design helps clarify factors which may influence the association between interventions and outcomes.

Non-representative sampling was used in the study as a result of several practical difficulties encountered in the research (e.g. low-response rate). Difficulties like

these are commonly seen in social research as probability sampling is too complicated to obtain, especially for student researchers who usually have limited resources or access to the research participants (Bryman, 2008; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Therefore, in spite of the limitation of non-representativeness, non-representative sampling is still commonly used in small-scale research such as case studies and action research involving only a number of teachers or classes of students (Bryman, 2008).

4.2.1 Research purpose and questions

Interactive feedback in peer-to-peer interaction has been argued to have positive impact on L2 development in the relevant literature (see Chapter 2 for detailed literature review). In recent years, researchers (e.g. Sato & Lyster, 2012) have explored the effects of peer interaction on SLA in order to examine whether peer interaction is a plausible way to help learners achieve full automatisation. Despite some research having been done, the potential of peer feedback for L2 learning has not been yet fully investigated. Neither the feedback techniques used by learners in speaking activities nor the explanations for the use of such techniques have been paid sufficient attention in the literature. Furthermore, most reviewed literature has dealt with adult learners. There has been little empirical evidence showing interactive patterns among adolescent learners or explaining the impacts of their feedback on their L2 development. In an attempt to further our understanding of the nature of peer feedback and how it mediates mutual comprehension between adolescent learners, the study has two purposes.

First, the study explores learners' feedback behaviours in interactive communication; in particular, what techniques they use and why these techniques appear to be preferred. The research questions are as follows:

1. What feedback techniques are used by adolescent learners of L2 English in peer-led correction in two Taiwanese classrooms?

2. Do these adolescent learners of L2 English favour particular feedback techniques in peer-led correction, and if so, why?

Second, the study investigates the impacts of peer-led feedback on learners' speaking performance. Further research questions are therefore as follows:

3. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' speaking performance after a peer-led correction treatment?

4. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' perceptions of their own ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?

   a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English after a peer-led correction treatment?

   b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' own assessments of their ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?

5. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on oral corrective feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

   a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on peer feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

   b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on teacher feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

6. What factors may contribute to any changes in relation to Research Questions 3-5?

Owing to the nature of quasi-experimentation (Cook & Campbell, 1979), it is recognised that other factors (e.g. after-school English education), which were beyond the control of the researcher, may have contributed to any changes such as those referred to in Research Questions 3-5. Thus, the discussion in the study will

mainly focus on the results of the pre- and post-measures (e.g. pre- and post-tests, pre- and post-questionnaires and pre-and post-checklists).

4.2.2 School context and participants

The present study was conducted in a junior high state school in a Chinese-speaking community in Taichung city, which is located in the centre of Taiwan. The vast majority of students attending the school come from monolingual Chinese-speaking families. English is a foreign language for these students; hence they have limited opportunities to speak English outside the school setting. The English-learning curriculum of the school follows the *General Guidelines for Grades 1-9 Curriculum of Elementary and Junior High School Education* (Ministry of Education in Taiwan, 2004). The pedagogical approach to English teaching and learning in the school is teacher-centred and emphasises linguistic forms. Communicative speaking and listening skills are seldom practised in the classroom.

The participants comprised 69 adolescent learners from two intact classes: Year 7 (n=36, aged 13) and Year 8 (n=34, aged 14) classes, in the junior high school. One of the male Year 8 learners withdrew at the end of the research period and hence his data was excluded from the study. All of the participants are monolingual native Chinese-speaking learners. Three of the Year 8 learners had passed the *General English Proficiency Test* (GEPT; a national English test in Taiwan) at elementary level[6] before participating in the study. The other learners in both classes were preparing for the test during the data-collection period. They all had four 45-minute English classes a week in their school, and had had two 40-minute English classes in their elementary/primary schools, on a weekly basis. All had English language learning experiences in cram schools[7] except for nine learners (two from the Year 7 class and seven from the Year 8 class), who had never received any additional English education. Given the demographic differences between the Year 7 and Year 8 learners, the classes were treated as two separate and parallel cases in the study.

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[6] Equivalent to the *Common European Framework of Reference for languages level A2* (Cambridge ESOL, 2009; The Language Training & Testing Centre (LTTC), 2009).
[7] see footnote 2.

The homeroom teacher of each class participated in the study. Both teachers are female, non-native speaking teachers of English. The Year 7 teacher, Lyn (pseudonym), had four years' teaching experience and had a bachelor's degree in English literature. The Year 8 teacher, Jen (pseudonym), had been teaching English for seven years and was awarded a masters' degree in English literature during the period of her participation in this research. Both teachers acted as teaching assistants in six English-speaking lessons, which were led by the researcher of the present study. The researcher possesses a master's degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and was a second-year doctoral student of Education at the University of Edinburgh during the data collection period.

The whole recruitment period lasted for 12 months (from April 2009 to March 2010). Invitation letters were distributed to 27 secondary schools across five municipalities (Taipei, New Taipei, Taichung, Tainan and Kaohsiung) in Taiwan, but only two schools, in Taipei and Taichung respectively, agreed to participate. The school in Taichung was invited to participate in the study for two reasons. First, the class size (n=35) in this school was bigger than that (n=22) in the school in Taipei. Secondly, two teachers at the Taichung school, compared with only one teacher at the school in Taipei, were interested in participating in the study. The decision was guided by a mixed-methods sampling approach, which strives for a sample that may provide both depth and breadth of information to satisfy both quantitative and qualitative strands of the study (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The documents used in the recruitment phase (e.g. invitation letters to parents) are shown in Appendices A1 to A4.

4.2.3 Research methods and data-gathering procedures

A quasi-experimental design with a variety of data collection methods was carried out for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. The procedures for the quasi-experiment were identical for both classes, despite the study having no intention of comparing the two classes; rather, it mainly focused on investigating the difference between pre- and post-measures (e.g. pre- and post-tests) within each class. The research methods employed in the design for both classes included: pre- and post-tests, pre- and post-

questionnaires, pre-and post-checklists, follow-up one-on-one interviews and six L2 English-speaking lessons (the intervention of the quasi-experiment).

The English-speaking lessons were designed to elicit the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' feedback behaviours, so as to address Research Questions 1-2. The pre- and post-measures, including questionnaires, checklists and English-speaking tests, were used to generate mainly ordered-categorical data in order to address Research Questions 3-5. The follow-up one-on-one interviews were expected to clarify points as well as to explore in-depth information (Johnson & Turner, 2003) in response to Research Questions 2 and 6. All the data collection methods involved in the experiment are listed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Data gathering techniques involved in the quasi-experiment for the Year 7 and Year 8 classes respectively

Data collection techniques	Type of data that was mainly generated	To mainly answer Research Question
1. Pre- and post-tests of English speaking performance	Order-categorical	Q3
2. Pre- and post-checklists on learners' self-evaluation of their own speaking ability	Order-categorical	Q4
3. Pre- and post-questionnaires on learners' views on corrective feedback	Order-categorical	Q4 and Q5
4. Recordings of six L2 English speaking lessons	Categorical	Q1 and Q2
5. One-on-one interviews	Narrative	Q2 and Q6

4.2.4 Quasi-experiment

The 12-week quasi-experiment used in the study included two preparatory weeks, six intervention weeks, two school exam weeks and two final weeks (see Table 4.2 on next page). The quasi-experiment was carried out between April and June 2010, during which the researcher went to the school each week to collect data, excluding

on the school exam weeks. Detailed information about each data-gathering technique is presented in Sections 4.2.5- 4.2.7.

Pilots

Before the quasi-experiment took place, the English-speaking tests, questionnaire and checklists were piloted twice. The first pilot was conducted six months before the quasi-experiment, and the second was conducted two weeks before the quasi-experiment. Each pilot was conducted with 10 different Taiwanese adolescent learners of English, aged between 13 and 14 years, from a junior high school in Taipei. The first pilot was conducted by a Chinese-speaking teacher of English from the school; the second was carried out by the researcher of the study. The feedback from the participants in the first pilot study suggested that the English-speaking tests were able to elicit the expected speaking performance from these participants. No issue was raised regarding difficulty in understanding the questionnaire or the checklists. The results of the second pilot study received similar positive feedback from another 10 different participants, aged between 13 and 14 years, from the same school. The Year 7 and Year 8 homeroom teachers (see Section 4.2.2 for the information about these two homeroom teachers) also considered the tests to be appropriate in terms of task difficulty and complexity for their students.

Table 4.2 Timeline of the quasi-experiment for the Year 7 and Year 8 classes respectively

Preparatory weeks (Weeks 1-2)	Intervention weeks (Weeks 3-6)	School Exam weeks (Weeks 7-8)	Intervention weeks (Weeks 9-10)	Final weeks (Weeks 11-12)
Pre-questionnaire on learners' views on corrective feedback + Pre-checklist on learners' self-evaluation of their own speaking ability + Pre-test of English speaking performance	English-speaking lessons (the treatment of the quasi-experiment) once a week	Break: school term exam	English-speaking lessons (the treatment of the quasi-experiment) once a week	Post-questionnaire on learners' views on corrective feedback + Post-checklist on learners' self-evaluation of their own speaking ability + Post-test of English speaking performance

4.2.5 Pre- and post-questionnaires on learners' views about corrective feedback and pre- and post-checklists on learners' self-evaluation of their own speaking ability

As shown in Table 4.2, in week one, both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes were invited to fill in the pre-questionnaire on learners' views on corrective feedback (see Appendix B2), as well as the pre-checklist on learners' self-evaluation of their own speaking ability (see Appendix B3.a for the Year 7 checklist and Appendix B3.b for the Year 8 checklist) before they participated in the pre-test of English speaking performance. In week 11, both classes were invited to complete the same questionnaire and checklists before they took the post-English-speaking tests. It took the learners from both classes about 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire and the checklist together, in the company of their homeroom teachers, in their classrooms. As the questionnaire and checklists were filled in in the absence of the researcher, certain phrases (e.g. error correction) in both the questionnaire and the checklists had been clarified by the researcher to both homeroom teachers one day before the implementation.

The questionnaire was mainly designed to elicit learners' attitudes towards corrective feedback and to explore their self-confidence in speaking English after the peer-correction treatment. The questionnaire for the Year 7 class was identical to the questionnaire used in the Year 8 class. The questionnaire consisted of 19 items, which were worded in Chinese. Items 1-16 were measured on a five-point Likert scale, where '1' represented 'strongly disagree' and '5' indicated 'strongly agree' with the statement for each item. Items 17-19 focused on comparisons between teacher feedback and peer feedback with semi-open-ended questions (other-specify). The inclusion of open-ended options in items 17-19 was an attempt to explore unrestricted responses, in addition to finding answers that fit into the predetermined categories from the closed-ended options (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

The checklist for the Year 7 class was different to that for the Year 8 class, as it was developed based on each class's English-learning syllabus and the guidance for English communicative competence for secondary students made by the MOE

(Ministry of Education in Taiwan, 2004, 2008) (see Appendix E2). Both homeroom teachers also helped with the final versions of the checklists. The two checklists aimed to investigate how learners evaluated their own English-speaking ability on a five-point Likert scale. On the scale, '1' indicated 'cannot do it at all' whereas '5' indicated 'can do it to the full extent'. Both checklists contained 15 items. The 15 items for each class reflected three different aspects of speaking skills: 1) interactive skills, 2) descriptive skills, and 3) linguistic skills. Each of these aspects was represented by five items, respectively. These aspects resonated with two tasks used in the pre- and post-tests. Interactive skills were related to Task One (an information-gap task), descriptive skills were related to Task Two (a picture description task), and linguistic skills were related to both tasks (see Section 4.2.6 below).

4.2.6 Pre- and post-tests of English speaking performance

The pre- and post-tests of English-peaking performance (see Appendix B1 for speaking tasks employed in the tests) for both classes were conducted at the beginning (weeks 1-2) and end (weeks 11-12), respectively, of the quasi-experiment. The pre-tests started one day after both classes had completed the pre-questionnaire and the pre-checklists. The post-tests began a few days after all the learners had completed the post-questionnaire and the post-checklists. It took around two weeks for all the learners to complete each of the pre-and post-tests. One day before both tests were undertaken, all the learners received instruction in Chinese about the structure of the tests, the type of tasks involved and the expectation for their performance in the tests. For instance, the learners were explicitly asked to try their best to answer all the questions in English. The learners were also explicitly told to try their best to produce longer utterances when performing the tasks. This act resulted from an agreement between the researcher and the participants that all the participants (including the learners' parents) were to be fully informed about the research design as long as no other participants' privacy or welfare was put at risk. While delivering the Chinese test instructions to the learners, the researcher repeatedly reiterated the purpose of the tests: to understand rather than assess the learners' English-speaking performance. Hence, the term 'test' was deliberately avoided and replaced with the term 'speaking activity' by the researcher in an

attempt to reduce the learners' anxiety to some extent before the tests were conducted (see ethical guideline No. 18[8] for educational research published by the British Educational Research Association, 2004).

The processes of the pre- and post-tests were audio-recorded. At the beginning of both tests, each participant received test instructions and was again informed of the purpose of the tests in Chinese by the researcher, who acted as interlocutor in both tests. During the one-on-one test, the researcher interacted with each student in English all the time. Chinese language was only used by the researcher in the middle of the test when the following incidents took place:

1. The communication between the researcher and the learner completely broke down because the learner paused for too long (e.g. around 15-20 seconds) after being asked a question.
2. The researcher noticed that the learner seemed too nervous or reluctant to continue the communication. For instance, the researcher noticed the learners' hands trembling.
3. The learner kept using Chinese in response to the questions that were asked by the researcher.

Each of the pre- and post-tests consisted of two tasks (an information-gap task and a picture-based task). The tasks in the pre-tests were identical to those in the post-tests. Such decision was made after taking into account the advantages and disadvantages of using identical tasks in pre- and post-tests. One of the advantages of using the same tasks, according to Takimoto (2012), is to "stimulate deeper perceptual and mental processing" in "learners' recognition and production of L2" than the use of similar types of tasks. In Cohen's (1999) study that explored the relationship between learners' strategy use and L2 development, the identical tasks were used in his pre- and post-tests. However, with the use of identical tasks, the possible influence of task-practice effect cannot be excluded (Bygate, 2001). In Bygate's (2001) study, he

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[8] Guideline No.18: "Researchers must recognize that participants may experience distress or discomfort in the research process and must take all necessary steps to reduce the sense of intrusion and to put them at their ease..." (British Educational Research Association, 2004, p. 7).

found that the task-practice effect could probably last for 10 weeks. Taken together, although there seems to be positive impacts of using identical tasks in the pre- and post-tests on L2 learning, it is recognised that the use of identical tasks is unable to disregard the influence of task-practice effect. Hence, due caution must be exercised when interpreting the results of the present study (see Chapter 8, Section 8.7.2 for discussion about the study's limitations).

The tasks for the Year 7 class were different to those for the Year 8 class because the tasks were designed in line with each class's English-learning syllabus (e.g. the grammatical rules and vocabulary). The tasks for the Year 7 class centred on present simple tense and the present continuous tense, while those for the Year 8 class focused on the present simple tense and past simple tense. The task formats and types were adapted from a variety of sources, including international English speaking tests such as the *YLE Test* (Cambridge ESOL: Young Learners English, 2009), speaking tasks introduced in Luoma's (2004) book, the *GEPT* (The Language Training & Testing Center, 2009) and the learners' English textbooks.

Each learner was to spend approximately 10 minutes on both the pre- and post-tests. The researcher spent approximately two minutes providing information about the procedures of the test before starting both pre- and post-tests. The pre- and post-tests started with greetings, followed by an information-gap task (Task One) and a picture-based description task (Task Two). Such test format can also be found in the *YLE Test* (Cambridge ESOL: Young Learners English, 2009) and the research done by Bygate (2001). The time allocated to complete Task One was around three and a half minutes for each Year 7 learner and around five minutes for each Year 8 learner. The time given to complete Task Two was approximately two and a half minutes for both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners (see Table 4.3 on next page).

Table 4.3 Timeline of the pre-and post-tests of English speaking performance for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

Year 7 Class	2 minutes	The researcher explained the procedure of the test.	Year 8 Class	2 minutes	The researcher explained the procedure of the test.
	1 minute	Greetings		1 minute	Greetings
	3.5 minutes	Task One: an information-gap task		5 minutes	Task One: an information-gap task
	2.5 minutes	Task Two: a picture description task		2.5 minutes	Task Two: a sequential-pictures story-telling task
	Each learner spent approximately 9 minutes completing the test.			Each learner spent approximately 10.5 minutes completing the test.	

4.2.7 English-speaking lessons

Six 45-minute English-speaking lessons for each of the Year 7 and Year 8 classes were designed to prompt the provision of peer feedback while the given tasks were performed. The lessons took place once a week in addition to the learners' regular English classes. The English-speaking lessons for each class were led by the researcher in the company of the class' homeroom teacher, who sat at the back of the classroom. For each lesson, the learners were given a task that was different from the tasks given in the other five lessons. These given tasks were designed in line with both classes' English learning syllabuses in the English-speaking lessons. Tasks given to the Year 7 learners were focused on the present continuous and the present simple tenses (see Appendix C1 for the tasks given to the Year 7 Class). Tasks given to the Year 8 learners were focused on the present simple and the past simple tenses (see Appendix C2 for the tasks given to the Year 8 Class). The types of tasks used in the English-speaking lessons were similar to the types of tasks in the pre- and post-tests. This was informed by Bygate's (2001) research findings that language improvement is more likely to be influenced by specific task practice than generic task practice (ibid). For instance, when an information-gap task is used in a test, learners are more likely to perform better in the test if they have been given similar information-gap tasks to practise their speaking skills. If they have been given a variety of tasks (e.g. story-telling task) for their speaking practice, it is less likely that they will perform better in the test.

The learners were encouraged to do five things in each lesson: 1) perform a speaking task in groups of five or six (all groups were asked to perform the same given task), 2) take a role in the group work (see Table 4.4 on next page), 3) provide feedback to each other during the group work, 4) give a presentation in front of the whole class after the group work and 5) provide feedback on other groups' presentations. For both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes, the learners were divided into six groups. An MP3 device was distributed to each of the six groups in both classes at the beginning of each lesson so that whole process of group interaction could be audio-recorded.

Table 4.4 The learners' roles in group work for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

Role	Main Responsibility*
1. Facilitator	A facilitator mainly leads the discussion, for example, to keep everyone's attention on the task and to make sure that everyone in the group has an opportunity to contribute to the discussion.
2. Note taker^	A note taker mainly takes notes of what main points have been discussed.
3. Time keeper	A time keeper is mainly in charge of time management.
4. Checker	A checker mainly decides who will be the group representatives to present in front of the class. He or she also checks all the notes taken by the note taker and tries to ascertain whether all the notes are grammatically correct.
5. Error finder	An error finder mainly writes down what errors appear in other groups' presentations.

Note. *All the learners were encouraged to take different roles in each lesson. They were also encouraged to provide assistance to each other, in addition to the main responsibilities of their roles in order to maintain a smooth flow of communication. ^There were two note takers in the groups of six, but only one in the groups of five.

For both classes, each lesson (see Table 4.5, p. 67 for an example of the lesson routine) started with an introduction for the learners to teacher feedback types. The learners were introduced to definitions of feedback types developed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) (see Appendix E1) by the researcher in Chinese. This was followed by the provision of examples of each type of teacher feedback and a whole-class plenary discussion. The learners were also invited to provide examples of their own, based on their experiences of receiving corrective feedback. Next, the learners were asked to

choose a role, as shown in Table 4.4, for their group work, and to spend 15 minutes completing the given task. Such role allocation for group discussion has been argued in the relevant literature (e.g. Blanchard, 2009; Brown 2001; Sato, 2003) to be able to facilitate communication in group work. This argument was also supported by both the Year 7 and Year 8 homeroom teachers, Lyn and Jen, who had had successful experiences of allocating roles to their students in group work in their own English classes.

Then, the learners were invited to give a group presentation about their group work in front of the whole class. It was recommended that they have at least two learners from their group delivering the presentations, which could take any form (e.g. role-play). Those who remained as the audience watching either their own group's presentation or other groups' presentations were asked to pay attention to what errors were made by the presenters. After all the groups had finished their presentations, the learners were invited to another plenary discussion. They were asked to give comments on the group presentations as well as to provide delayed, anonymous corrections. That is, the learners were asked not to state who made the errors, but just to indicate what errors they noticed and, if possible, to correct those errors.

The learners were then asked to vote for the best group (excluding their own group). The winning group was awarded a stationery prize[9] (e.g. erasers). Finally, members of each group were asked to evaluate their own contribution to the group in the workshop and to anonymously write their comments on a piece of paper[10]. These comments were integrated into interview questions and discussed in the follow-up interviews with the learners (see Section 4.2.8 for information about the interviews).

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[9] According to the ethical guidelines for educational research published by British Educational Research Association (2004), "Researchers' use of incentives to encourage participation must be commensurate with good sense and must avoid choices which in themselves have undesirable effects (e.g. the health aspects of offering cigarettes to young offenders or sweets to school-children)…" (p.8).
[10] The learners, in particular the Year 7 learners did not provide sufficiently relevant feedback on the given task or their group discussion. Most of the Year 7 and the Year 8 learners' comments were mostly short, such as 'Today's activity is interesting.', 'good discussion', 'fun', etc.

Table 4.5 An example of the English-speaking lesson routine

Task: To explore five things learners don't know about their peers

Objective: To get learners involved in interactive communication.

Length of Time: 45 minutes

Administration:

To work in six groups of six. Learners are expected to discover at least five things they do not know about their group members by, for example, asking each other questions in English. Each learner is asked to choose a main role, as indicated in Table 4.4, before starting their group work.

Procedure:

0.00-5.00 (min) - Before the task
1. To introduce the task to the learners.
2. To introduce the learners to six common corrective feedback types (see Appendix E1) and to provide at least one example of each feedback type.
3. To encourage learners to offer each other peer feedback during group discussion. They are also asked to provide delayed correction after all the groups have delivered their presentations.

5.00-20.00 (min) - During the task
1. To ask learners to choose a role for their group discussion (see Table 4.4).
2. To ask learners to perform the task (an MP3 device is given to each group).

20.00-35.00 (min) - After the task
1. To invite each group to deliver a presentation in front of the class.
2. To ask learners to write down the errors they noticed in each group's presentations. Learners are asked to provide delayed correction after all groups have delivered their presentations.

35.00-40.00 (min) - After the group presentations
1. To encourage learners to share the errors they noticed that were made by other groups during their presentations.
2. To ask learners to try to correct the errors they noticed. Teacher correction is provided only when all learners are unable to offer appropriate feedback on the errors they indicated.

40.00-45.00 (min) - Feedback time
1. To provide generic feedback to learners on their performance and involvement in the lesson.
2. To invite learners to write down their comments on the lesson, especially their comments on the peer feedback that they provided or received during group discussion.

Note. This example is based on one of the Year 7 class's English-speaking lessons.

4.2.8 Follow-up interviews with the learners

One-on-one semi-structured interviews with learners were conducted in Chinese immediately after the post-English-Speaking test for both classes. The interviews were audio-recorded; each of them took around 20 minutes. Only 14 learners from each class were invited to the follow-up interviews due to the shortage of time, as well as data saturation. The total 28 learners from both classes were selected according to their responses to the pre- and post-questionnaires and checklists, term exam marks and performance in the English-speaking lessons. The learners whose responses to the questionnaire or checklists showed either the biggest or smallest changes after the quasi-experiment were selected as interviewees. Those with the best, good and less good English term test results in the semester were also selected. Finally, the learners who were highly active or extremely quiet in the lessons were additionally invited. The aim of using such a stratified approach was to proportionally reflect different learners' characteristics from both classes and to reduce sampling bias (Bryman, 2008).

Most of the interview questions started with an open-ended question, followed by probing questions, in order to reveal in-depth data as well as to clarify points (Johnson & Turner, 2003) arising from the process of the quasi-experiment. The questions were mainly centred on what and how the participants recalled and reflected on their English-speaking lessons, during which they had provided and received peer feedback in various speaking tasks over six weeks. Another part of the interview questions was designed to explore students' attitudes towards the provision of peer feedback. The other questions mainly aimed to elicit information regarding the learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English and evaluation of their own English speaking-ability (see Appendix B4 for the interview schedule for both classes).

4.3 Data Analysis Methods and Procedures

Mixed-methods data analysis is contingent upon the focus of the research and the research design type (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). For a triangulation focus, different sets of data are first analysed in a parallel and separate manner; then brought together later to corroborate results from different perspectives. For an expansion focus, different sets of data are analysed in chronological order so that the results of the first-phase analysis can inform the following phases (ibid). As the present study consists of both focuses, data analysis was conducted in three sequential phases. Data collected from the pre- and post-measures (e.g. pre- and post-tests) and the English-speaking lessons was dealt with in the first phase, followed by an analysis of the interview data. In the last phase, data from these different sources was integrated and scrutinised by mutual corroboration.

4.3.1 Analysis of the pre-and post-tests

The procedures for analysis of the pre- and post-tests for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes comprised a standardisation process, a marking process and a few statistical tests (see Table 4.6 on next page for the timeline of the analysis of the pre- and post-tests). Regarding the standardisation process, two 1.5-hour standardisation meetings were conducted for each class in an attempt to examine the applicability of the marking schemes and establish a good level of inter-rater reliability (Luoma, 2004). Regarding the marking process, it took the three raters around 15 hours to complete the marking for both classes, which included a total of 276 recordings of the learners' speaking performance (the average length of performance for each learner was around 3.3 minutes). The scores given by each of the three raters were input and analysed with SPSS statistical software, version 17.0. These scores were combined into composite scores as one data-set for an inferential statistical test after good inter-rater reliability of the three raters was demonstrated. The normality tests for the composite scores indicated that the data were not normally distributed. As a result, the non-parametric statistical test, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, was used to examine differences in learners' speaking performance between pre- and post-tests (see Chapter 6 for detailed statistical analyses and the results).

Table 4.6 Timeline of the pre- and post-tests' data analysis

2010, Sep-Oct	Recruiting two raters for the pre- and post-tests
2010, Nov 7	First standardisation meeting for the Year 7 class tests marking
2010, Nov 10	Second standardisation meeting for the Year 7 class tests marking
2010, Nov 13, 14, 17, 20	The Year 7 class tests marking
2010, Nov 21	First standardisation meeting for the Year 8 class tests marking
2010, Nov 24	Second Standardisation meeting for the Year 8 class tests marking
2010, Nov 27, 28, Dec 1, 4, 5	The Year 8 class tests marking
2010, Dec 6	Sending focus group interview schedule to the two raters
2010, Dec 9	Focus group interview with the two raters
2010 Dec – 2011 Feb	Inputting test scores of both classes into SPSS and analysing the data

The Raters

In addition to the researcher of the study, two additional raters were hired. The raters were teacher students of the TESOL programme at the University of Edinburgh for the period in which they were participating in the marking process. Both are Taiwanese teachers of English, and had worked with adolescent learners in private language institutions in Taipei for around five years. They both had experience of marking speaking performance (e.g. the simulated *GEPT* speaking tests) and showed a good understanding of language assessment and educational context in Taiwan.

The Marking Schemes

The speaking performance of the learners from both classes was marked with both a holistic scheme and an analytic scheme (see Appendix D2.a and b) in an attempt to increase the validity of the marking (see Chapter 3, Section 3.4.2 for discussion about the two types of marking schemes). The schemes were developed by the researcher based on a variety of sources, including Bygate's (1987) model, Bachman and Palmer's model (1996) (see Chapter 3, Sections 3.2.1-3.2.2), the *GEPT* criteria

(The Language Training & Testing Center (LTTC), 2009), the *YLE* criteria (Cambridge ESOL: Young Learners English (YLE), 2009), and further revised by the three raters during the standardisation meetings. The holistic scheme was used in order to allow raters to give an overall impression mark of the learners' performance (Luoma, 2004) on a scale of zero to five. With the same six-point rating scale, the analytic scheme was used to assist raters to pay attention to different aspects of learners' speech so as to increase the accuracy of the marking (Brown & Bailey, 1984). The analytic scheme for Task One for both classes included five criteria: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency and interaction. The analytic scheme for Task Two for both classes consisted of five criteria: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency and discourse management. Each of these contributed the same weighting to the overall score, which was obtained by summing across the scores on the five analytic scales (see Sawaki, 2007). Before conducting the analytic scheme during the marking process, the interrelationship between the five rating scales was examined with Cronbach's Alpha in order to show that the scales are related to one another (*convergent validity* or *internal validity*) (see De Vaus, 1993). The descriptive analysis regarding the marking schemes is presented in Chapter 6.

Standardisation Meetings for Both Classes

Two standardisation meetings were conducted for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. The first standardisation meeting for each of the two classes was used to discuss the applicability of the marking schemes to the tests. The results of the first standardisation meeting were then put into practice in the second standardisation meeting, where six tests that had been sampled from each of the two classes – the Year 7 class (n=72) and the Year 8 class (n=66) – were marked by the three raters at the same time. The six tests from each class were selected using a stratified sampling technique by classifying all the performances into three levels: very good, good and less good. The results of the first standardisation meetings included the outcome that the idea of giving half points (e.g. 2.5) between points (0-6) within each of the individual scales was not preferred, as all the raters saw no reason to further sub-divide the scales. Additionally, the tests were going to be marked task by task, as the tests were clearly divided into tasks (see Luoma, 2004).

Marking Process for Both Classes

All the raters marked a total of 276 recordings of learners' speaking performance from both classes, task by task. Of the 276 recordings, 144 were from the Year 7 class: (n=36) x 2 (pre- and post-tests) x 2 (two tasks) = 144, and 132 from the Year 8 class: (n=33) x 2 (pre- and post-tests) x 2 (two tasks) = 132. Each recording was played once, followed by an approximate 3-minute pause for the raters to assign the scores using both marking schemes. The sequence for playing the recordings from both classes to the raters is shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Play sequence of the 276 test recordings to the raters

Class	Task	Play sequence
Year 7	One	1. *Pre*-test learners Nos.^ 1-36
		2. Post-test learners Nos. 36-1
	Two	3. Post-test learners Nos. 1-36
		4. *Pre*-test learners Nos. 36-1
Year 8	One	5. Post-test learners Nos. 1-34 *(except No. 27)
		6. *Pre*-test learners Nos. 34-1 (except No. 27)
	Two	7. *Pre*-test learners Nos. 1-34 (except No. 27)
		8. Post-test learners Nos. 34-1 (except No. 27)

Note. ^ 'Nos' represents learners' matriculation numbers. All the learners from both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes was given either a one- or two-digit matriculation number by their school registry office on the first day they attended the school.
* A Year 8 learner, No.27, withdrew his participation, so his performance was not included in the study.

The Focus Group

The focus group interview (see Appendix D4 for the interview schedule), conducted by the researcher (one of the three raters) along with another two raters, took place four days after the completion of the entire marking process for both classes. The focus group discussion focused on the applicability of the marking schemes and the raters' experiences of marking learners' performance. Two major points were raised by Rater 3 during the interview. One was that more time should have been given to the raters to mark each learner's performance. Rater 3 said that she felt pushed to speed up her marking process because the other two raters usually finished their

marking before she did. The other point was related to task difficulty. According to Rater 3, Task One for the Year 8 class seemed too difficult for the Year 8 learners, because it included unfamiliar vocabulary items (e.g. Beethoven and Mozart). Rater 3 was concerned that the unfamiliar vocabulary may have degraded the Year 8 learners' speaking performance in the tests. No specific comments were given by either of the other raters.

4.3.2 Analyses of pre- and post-questionnaires and pre- and post-checklists

As the questionnaire and the checklists were designed by the researcher and served as exploratory tools with which to investigate the study's enquiries, the Cronbach Alpha statistical method was used to examine internal reliability of the questionnaire and checklists (Sawaki, 2007). Given the small sample size of each class and the nature of the ordinal data, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was conducted to investigate the differences between the pre- and post-tests, the pre- and post-questionnaires and the pre- and post-checklists (Pallant, 2005). The detailed information and statistical results are presented in Chapter 6.

4.3.3 Analysis of the recordings of English speaking lessons

A total of 72 (6 lessons × 6 groups × 2 classes) 45-minute recordings from 12 English lessons of both classes were analysed in order to explore the feedback techniques used by the learners in communicative tasks. There were 105 peer-to-peer dialogues that involved peer correction, identified and transcribed from the recordings. Of the 105 dialogues, 38 were extracted from the Year 7 class and 67 from the Year 8 class. A coding scheme (see Appendix D1.a and b), developed from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categories (see Appendix E1), was used. The two TESOL teacher students who had co-marked the pre- and-post tests were invited to jointly code the learners' feedback types with the researcher of the present study. The two coders spent around 30 minutes familiarising themselves with the coding scheme and had a trial coding with 12 of the 105 dialogues. Then, the two coders and the researcher of the study spent approximately two hours coding the 105 peer-to-peer dialogues independently. The inter-observer reliability among the three coders was

examined before categorising types of peer feedback delivered in the peer-to-peer dialogues (The results are presented in Chapter 5).

4.3.4 Analysis of the interviews

The follow-up interviews with 28 learners from both classes were analysed using content analysis. The content analysis technique was employed in order to help to group the narratives into categories subsumed under the research enquiries; it also allows patterns to emerge from the narratives to formulate new themes. To date, not only the quantitative approach (e.g. for media research) but also the qualitative approach (e.g. for education research) is often used in content analysis (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). In the study, both approaches were employed, as the study aims to present a systematic description of the manifest content of the interview data (Berelson, 1952) and to understand the latent content behind the texts (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992).

The analysis procedure was begun by transcribing 28 interviews verbatim. Interview texts were then coded into different meaning units according to different themes which reflected the research questions. Next, the meaning units were shortened into condensed meaning units, on which a brief interpretation of the underlying meaning was based. The brief interpretation was further summarised into subcategories, and finally the sub-categories were grouped into codes (an example of how coding was conducted are given in Appendix D3). Additional themes that were related to the English-speaking lessons were also coded. All of the analysed interview data was then compared with the results from the statistical analyses together with the pre- and post-measures (e.g. pre- and post-tests, pre- and post-questionnaires, and pre- and post-checklists). The findings of the interviews are presented in Chapter 7.

The interview extracts shown in the study were transcribed from Chinese into English by the researcher, as all the interviews were conducted in Chinese. The extracts from the interview transcripts were then checked by another Chinese-speaking PhD student at the University of Edinburgh. Next, a native speaker of

English, who is a mature student at the Open University, was invited to check the accuracy of the translated extracts together with the researcher.

4.4 Validity and Reliability of the Study

Validity and reliability were used as two overarching criteria with which to examine the findings of this mixed-methods study. Despite other researchers having argued for alternatives, such as "trustworthiness" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 219) and "reflexivity" (Pillow, 2003, p. 175) to evaluate the quality of research, the concepts of validity and reliability in a broad definition arguably cover fundamental standards for a good piece of research across different disciplines (Bryman, 2008).

Validity basically focuses on whether research measures what it is intended to measure (Bryman, 2008). The present study, which employed both SLA and socio-cultural theories to examine the learners' progress in speaking English, requires special attention to be paid to the construct validity of the theoretical framework followed by the study. This entails asking the question of how viable the speaking tasks employed in the study were at testing the learners' speaking performance. This further raises the question of how applicable the marking schemes employed in the study were at reflecting the learners' speaking ability. Moreover, this leads to a risk of undermining the construct validity of the questionnaire, as well as the checklists, both of which were designed by the researcher. As a result of this exploratory nature of the study, the construct validity of the study requires greater scrutiny.

With the quasi-experimental design, the study faced difficulties in demonstrating a causal relationship between peer feedback and the learners' development in English speaking (see Bryman, 2008, p. 32 for information about "*internal validity*"). With a small sample size (n=69), the possibility of making the research findings transferable (see Lincoln & Guba, 1985) or generalisable (*external validity*) (see Bryman, 2008) is also limited. However, as the research design of the present study was tailor-made for the participants of the study in a Taiwanese context, the research findings are

expected to contribute to other English-language learning in Taiwan (see Bryman, 2008 for ecological validity).

Reliability focuses on how well consistency is maintained throughout all stages of the research, so that the findings can be replicable for quantitative investigation (Bryman, 2008) or dependable for qualitative enquiries (see dependability in Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Both expected and unexpected issues occurred over the course of the data collection process of the study, raising concerns about the reliability of the research findings. For instance, communication breakdowns during the pre- and post-tests between the interlocutor and a few learners led to inconsistent implementation of the pre- and post-tests (see Section 4.2.6). The marking of the pre- and post-tests that was carried out by three raters on the one hand enhanced the objectivity; on the other hand, this raised concerns about inter-observer consistency (Luoma, 2004). The pre- and post-questionnaires and the pre- and post-checklists that were conducted without the presence of the researcher also made it hard to ensure the consistency of their implementation. Moreover, the interviews with the 28 learners that were conducted at different times across two weeks also ran a risk of jeopardising the reliability of the interview findings. Last but not least, the reliability of the study may be hindered by the fact that the researcher was both the facilitator in the English lessons and the interlocutor in the pre- and post-tests. Such heavy involvement of the researcher in the process of data collection raises concerns about the risk of researcher bias contaminating the research findings.

It is clear that the above-mentioned issues regarding reliability and validity of the study limit the ability of the study to make claims about impacts of peer feedback on L2 learners' development in speaking English. It is also apparent that some of these issues (e.g. valid interpretation of test results) have given rise to heated debate in the literature (see Cho & Trent, 2006; Sawaki, 2007), and it is beyond the ability of the researcher to resolve these issues within this study. Having realised this, instead of trying to claim that the research findings of the study are perfectly reliable and valid, the researcher has tried to detail the procedures of data collection and analysis as thoroughly as possible in an attempt to clarify for the readers exactly how the study

was conducted. Hopefully, doing this will minimise the possibility that the research findings will be misleading to the readers of the study. More discussion about limitations of the study is given in Chapter 8, Sections 8.7.2-8.7.3.

4.5 Consent, Anonymity, Confidentiality and Ethical Concerns

Following ethical guidelines published by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) (2004), written consent had been given by the learners' parents, homeroom teachers and the school staff before data collection for the study commenced. In addition, oral consent was given by the learners before each instance of data collection involving them, for example, before the interviews with the learners. All the participants were informed that they could withdraw from the research at any time without providing any reasons. The participants were provided with the researcher's personal email address and mobile phone number, and encouraged to discuss anything regarding research consent with the researcher bluntly and directly. Throughout the entire data-gathering period, no participants raised any further issues regarding research consent with the researcher, apart from one Year 8 learner who withdrew his participation. This learner's withdrawal acted as a reminder not to assume that full consent has been achieved, even if written and oral consent have been given. Factors such as peer pressure and a sense of obligation may also influence learners' decisions about their participation in the research.

Anonymity is related to the sensitive question of how much information about any individual or research site can be revealed. On the one hand, in order to protect the participants' privacy, no identifiable information about the participants or the research site should be divulged. On the other hand, a certain level of disclosure is necessary for readers to understand the research contexts. This study has tried to report adequate demographic information of individual participants and their school, while simultaneously not revealing too many details. However, as the success of anonymisation depends on the uniqueness of the context and the amount of information provided (Walford, 2005), there is a risk that the identity of the school or the participants of the study may be recognised.

Confidentiality implies that what is said should remain secret and not be revealed to others, but it does not mean that all the information provided by the participants should not be passed on. There would seem to be little point in researching the phenomenon if nothing from the research could be reported (Walford, 2005). In this study, data that was perceived to be significantly relevant was presented. Other data that was recognised as being confidential or less relevant was deliberately underreported. Moreover, in case the participants changed their opinion about what should remain confidential, they were all updated about the progress of the research and welcomed to contact the researcher via e-mail.

One of the major ethical concerns in relation to the study lies in the intrusion of the researcher in the participants' school lives during the data collection period. In order to get to know the teaching and learning context of the participants, the researcher tried to spend as much time as she was allowed sitting in the back corner of the participants' classrooms. A few learners from both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes were found to be distracted by the researcher sitting in the back row. These learners looked back at the researcher several times during the class. Such incidents raise an ethical concern that the participants' learning may be jeopardised because of the distraction caused by the presence of the researcher in their classes.

The other major ethical concern in relation to the study comes from the implementation of six English-speaking lessons for each of the classes. Some parents of the learners were worried that the speaking lessons may interrupt the learners' English-learning schedules at school. In response to the parents' concerns, the speaking tasks employed in the English-speaking lessons were designed in line with the learners' English-learning syllabus. In this way, the learners could put what they had learnt from school English courses into practice in the English-speaking tasks. At the same time, it was hoped that the learners would not feel imposed upon by too much extra learning burden due to the English-speaking lessons. However, it is possible that such speaking lessons may have caused other negative effects on the learners. For instance, the learners may have experienced emotional problems while performing the given tasks with their peers.

In an attempt to reduce the negative impacts of the research design upon the learners, the researcher reiterated the purpose of the research to the learners during the course of the data collection. The learners were constantly reminded that the purpose of the study was to explore the nature of their interaction with peers as well as to understand their learning, rather than to assess or judge the outcomes of their learning.

4.6 Chapter Summary

Having highlighted the characteristics of the mixed-methods approach to confirmatory and exploratory enquiries, this chapter rationalised the mixed-methods research design for the present study. This was followed by a description of the quasi-experimental design of the study, including participant information, research methods used in data collection and analysis and potential limitations. At the end of the chapter, issues pertaining to validity, reliability and ethical concerns in the process of conducting the research were also briefly discussed.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS (I): TYPES OF PEER FEEDBACK

This chapter reports research findings in response to Research Questions 1-2. It presents seven types of peer feedback categorised from 105 peer-to-peer dialogues that involved peer correction in 12 English-speaking lessons (six from the Year 7 class and six from the Year 8 class). Next, the chapter presents the learners' accounts for the choices of feedback techniques that they employed to correct one another in these 12 lessons.

5.1 Research Questions

This chapter sets out to explore Research Questions 1-2:

1. What feedback techniques are used by adolescent learners of L2 English in peer-led correction in two Taiwanese classrooms?

2. Do these adolescent learners of L2 English favour particular feedback techniques in peer-led correction, and if so, why?

5.2 Results

To explore Research Question 1, a preliminary statistical analysis 'inter-rater agreement' was carried out before categorising types of peer feedback from 105 peer-to-peer dialogues. To address Research Question 2, a frequency analysis on each type of peer feedback that was categorised from the dialogues was conducted. This was followed by a content analysis of interview data regarding learners' accounts for the feedback techniques they used most frequently.

5.2.1 Inter-rater agreement in the coding of 105 peer-to-peer dialogues

As described in Chapter 4, Section 4.3.3, there were 105 peer-to-peer dialogues that involved peer correction identified from 72 (6 lessons x 6 groups x 2 classes) 45-

minute recordings from 12 English lessons (six from the Year 7 class and six from the Year 8 class). Based on the 105 dialogues, seven provisional types of peer feedback were categorised by the researcher (see Appendix D1.a and b for the coding schemes). They were 1) translation, 2) confirmation, 3) completion, 4) explicit indication, 5) explicit correction, 6) explanation and 7) recasts.

A standardisation meeting for coding the dialogues into seven provisional types of peer feedback was carried out (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.3 for more information). The results of this standardisation meeting showed that all three coders had 100% agreement with one another's categorisation. The results of the subsequent joint coding meeting showed that Coder 1 and Coder 2 had 100% agreement on the categorization. That is, both of them put types of peer feedback, which occurred in the 105 dialogues, into exactly the same categories. Cohen's kappa coefficient was then used to examine inter-rater agreement between Coders 2 and 3. The results showed a 99% agreement between Coder 2 and Coder 3 ($\kappa = .99$, $p < .001$).

5.2.2 Research Question 1: What feedback techniques are used by adolescent learners of L2 English in peer-led correction in two Taiwanese classrooms?

The seven types of peer feedback that were categorised from the 105 dialogues were 1) translation, 2) confirmation, 3) completion, 4) explicit indication, 5) explicit correction, 6) explanation and 7) recasts. The definition and examples of each feedback type are shown below. In the following examples which were extracted from the dialogues, 'F' refers to a female student, 'M' refers to a male student, the number after 'F' or 'M' refers to different students involved in the conversation, italic words are Chinese Pinyin, and words in brackets are their English counterparts.

Type One: Translation

Type one technique, 'translation', refers to the learners asking their peers for help with 'Chinese to English' translation of what they intended to say or 'English to Chinese' translation of what had been said by other peers (see Extracts 1-2).

Examples for Translation

Extract 1 [extracted from the Year 7 class (referred as 'Year 7' afterwards)]:

    F1:   She buy bagels and need 50 change.
    F2:   change *shi shénme?* [What is 'change'?]
    M1:   *língqián! Lián zhège dōu bù zhidào!* [It's change! How come
           you don't even know this –(change)?]

Extract 2 [extracted from the Year 8 class (referred as 'Year 8' afterwards)]:

    F1:   I wanted to be a... *huàjiā zěnme shuō* [How do you say
           'painter' in English?]
    M1:   painter

Type Two: Confirmation

The second type of peer feedback is 'confirmation'. Confirmation occurred when the learners asked their peer to confirm the accuracy of their output. Extract 3 and Extract 4 below show how learners asked their peers for feedback when they seemed uncertain about the accuracy of their own utterances.

Examples for Confirmation

Extract 3 (Year 7):

    M1:   You study hard, hardly?
    F1:   Hard! You study hard.

Extract 4 (Year 8):

    F1:   I went on a trip. On a trip? *duì ma?* [Is it correct?]
    F2:   on a trip. *duì!* [Correct !]

Type Three: Completion

The third type of peer feedback is 'completion'. Completion was offered when the learners noticed that their peer needed help with his or her incomplete sentence. Extract 5 and Extract 6 below show that learners appeared to be able to read the unspoken signals (e.g. pause, facial expression, gesture) from their peer and, in turn, to offer support accordingly.

Examples for Completion

Extract 5 (Year 7):

  F1: She wants to be a …(pause)
  M1: woman
  F1: *en*! ['En' is an interjection indicating approval or agreement
    in Chinese]

Extract 6 (Year 8):

  F1: What did you do last weekend?
  F2: I played online game.
  M1: I played online game and …(pause)
  F2: watch TV.

Type Four: Explicit Indication

The fourth type of peer feedback is 'explicit indication'. Explicit indication refers to the learners explicitly and bluntly indicating the error or the problem in their peer's utterance and further expecting their peer to produce modified output (see Extracts 7-8).

Examples for Explicit Indication

Extract 7 (Year 7):

  F1: He is every day…
  M1: shénme? shénme shì 'He is every day'? [What? What is 'he
    is every day'?].
  F1: Hahaha…[laughing]. He is bored every day.

Extract 8 (Year 8):

     F1:   In the past, people discuss...
     M1: yòng guòqushi! [Use the past simple tense!]
     F1:   In the past, people discussed the things in a letter. Now they
           use computers.

Type Five: Explicit Correction

The fifth type of peer feedback is 'explicit correction'. Explicit correction refers to the learners directly replacing the error made by their peer with what they considered to be correct (see Extracts 9-10).

Examples for Explicit Correction

Extract 9 (Year 7):

     F1:   They make a cake for he.
     M1: <u>him</u>.
     F1:   for him.

Extract 10 (Year 8):

     F1:   When I was a little koala, I slept and at all day.
     F2:   <u>ate</u>
     F1:   ate, slepte
     F2:   <u>s-lep-t, t/t/.</u>

Type Six: Explanation

The sixth type of peer feedback is 'explanation', an extension of explicit correction. Explanation refers to the learners offering additional information or explanation to the feedback they provided (see Extracts 11-12).

Examples for Explanation

Extract 11 (Year 7):

     F1:   I read some book.
     F2:   books, *jiā*[plus] 's'. *fùshù* [plural].
     F1:   I read comic books.

Extract 12 (Year 8):

> F1:   Can you read English novels?
> M1:   I don't know.
> M2:   I can't. I don't know *shi wǒ bù zhīdào*[means I don't know]; I
>   can't *shi wǒ bù néng* [means I am not able to].
> M1:   Oh! I can't.

Type Seven: Recasts

The seventh type of peer feedback is 'recasts'. Recasts occurred when the learners reformulated their peer's output in an unnoticeable manner (See Extracts 13-14).

Examples for Recasts

Extract 13 (Year 7):

> F1:   There has a boy in the picture.
> F2:   There is a boy and he eats every day. (F2 used an unnoticed
>   tone to rephrase the sentence.)

Extract 14 (Year 8):

> F1:   Fourteen years ago, she was like a little pig.
> M2:   Thirteen years ago, she was like a little pig.
> F1:   Thirteen years ago, she was like a little pig and because she
>   ate cookies…

Of the seven types of peer feedback shown above, the first three types (translation, confirmation, and completion) appear to be assistance-oriented. That is, these three feedback types seem to help learners, who either asked for or received feedback, to improve their output and, in turn, to facilitate their communication with peers. The remaining types of peer feedback (explicit indication, explicit correction, explanation and recasts) appear to be relatively more correction-oriented. In other words, these types of peer feedback seem to be used by the learners to ensure the accuracy of their peer's output (see Chapter 8, Section 8.2 for discussion about these results).

5.2.3 Research Question 2: Do these adolescent learners of L2 English favour particular feedback techniques in peer-led correction, and if so, why?

A Frequency analysis on each type of peer feedback used by the Year 7 and Year 8 learners

A frequency analysis on each type of peer feedback categorised from the 105 peer-to-peer dialogues reveals that the 'explicit correction' feedback type ($n = 34$) was used most frequently, followed by 'translation' ($n = 29$), 'confirmation' ($n = 14$), completion ($n = 10$), explanation ($n = 8$) and equally often 'explicit indication' ($n = 5$) and 'recasts' ($n = 5$) feedback types (see Figure 5.1 below).

Figure 5.1 Total frequency of types of peer feedback used by both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners
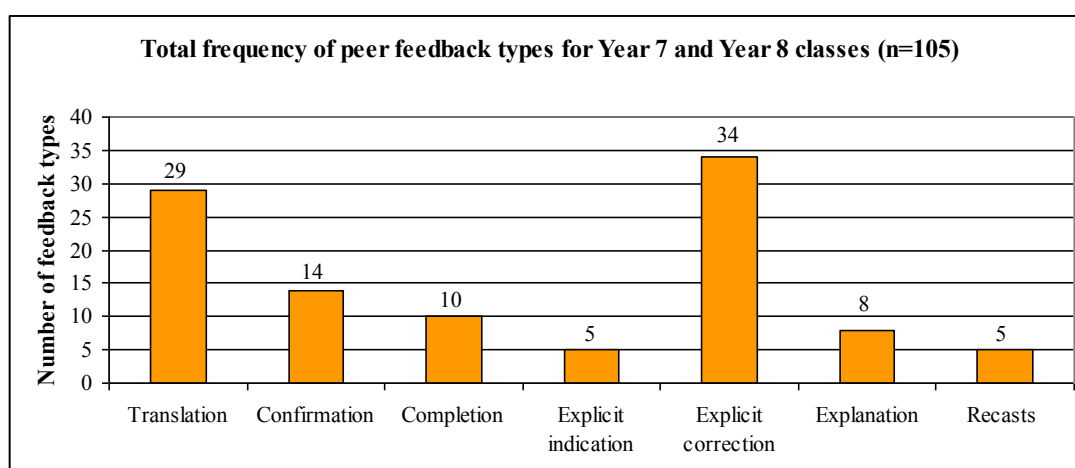
Of the 105 dialogues, 38 dialogues were from the Year 7 class (See Figure 5.2). For the Year 7 class, 'translation' (*n* = 17) and 'explicit correction' (*n*= 10) techniques were used most frequently. By contrast, 'explicit indication' (n=1), 'explanation' (n=1) and 'recasts' (n=1) were equally least used techniques by the Year 7 learners.

Figure 5.2 Total frequency of types of peer feedback used by the Year 7 learners
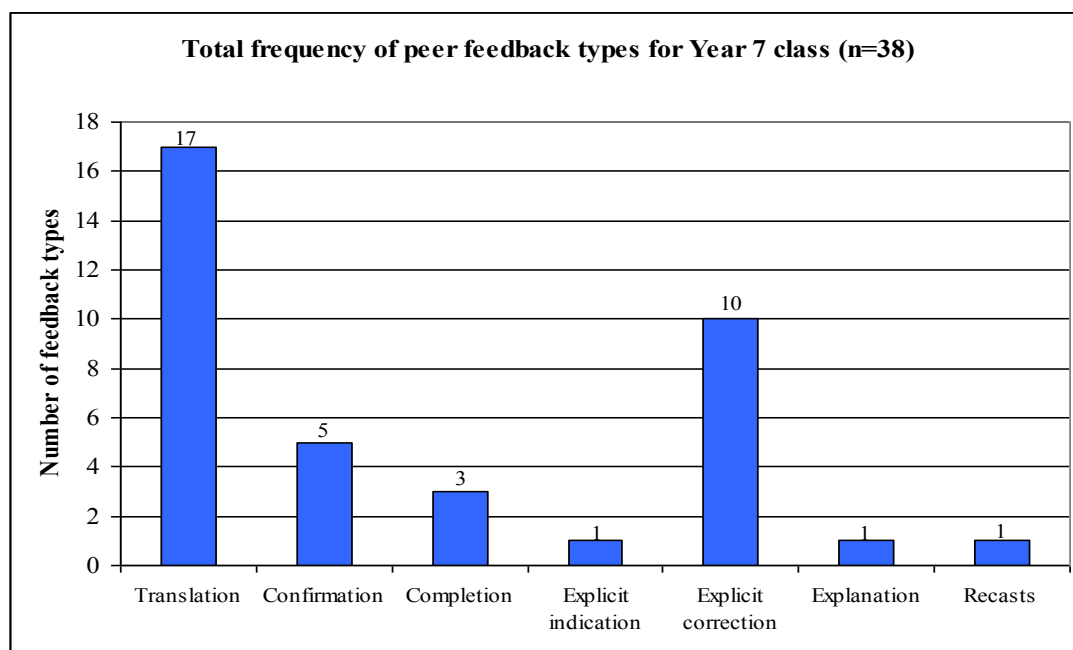
Of the 105 dialogues, 67 dialogues were from the Year 8 class (See Figure 5.3). For the Year 8 class, explicit correction ($n = 24$) was the most frequently used feedback technique and twice as much as the second most frequently used technique 'translation' ($n = 12$). Explicit indication (n= 4) and recasts (n=4) were equally least used feedback types.

Figure 5.3 Total frequency of types of peer feedback used by the Year 8 learners

Total frequency of peer feedback types for Year 8 class (n=67)
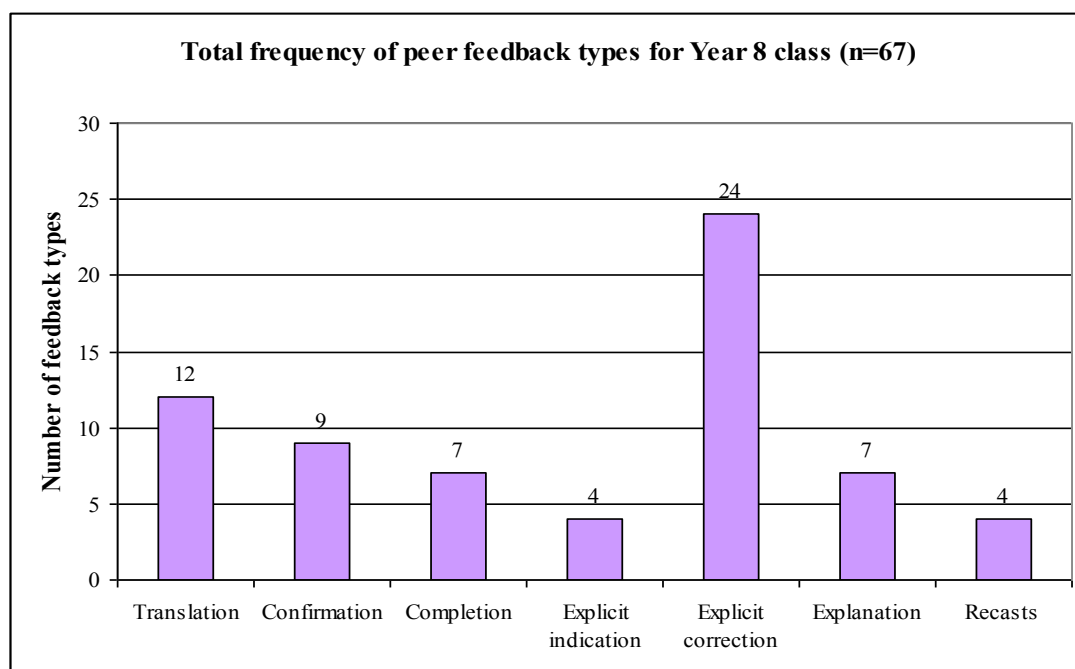
In summary, in both classes, 'translation' and 'explicit correction' feedback types occurred most frequently. In the Year 7 class, 'translation' technique (n=17) occurred almost twice as often as the other two assistance-oriented techniques [confirmation (n=5) and completion (n=3)]. Similarly, 'explicit correction' technique (n=10) was provided far more frequently than the other three correction-oriented techniques [explicit indication (n=1), explanation (n=1), recasts (n=1)]. In the Year 8 class, 'translation' technique (n=12) was used slightly more often than the other two assistance-oriented techniques [confirmation (n=9) and completion (n=7)]. 'Explicit correction' technique (n=24) occurred much more often than the other three correction-oriented techniques [explicit indication (n=4), explanation (n=7), recasts (n=4)].

In line with research findings in the literature (e.g. Ohta, 2000; Sato & Lyster, 2012), the results shown above suggest that learners are willing to help each other to attend to form with interactional feedback. Among the seven types of peer feedback identified above, there are several types of peer feedback similar to the types of teacher feedback that were classified by Lyster and Ranta (1997). For instance, peer feedback types 'recasts' and 'explicit corrections' categorised in the present study also appeared in the process of teacher feedback as observed by Lyster and Ranta (ibid). Conversely, a couple of types of peer feedback appear to be different from the types of teacher feedback, for example, peer feedback types 'confirmation' and 'translation'. Such findings suggest that learners may not merely imitate teachers' feedback behaviours but appear to be able to develop own interactional techniques to deal with communication breakdowns in speaking activities (More discussion about the findings is presented in Chapter 8, Section 8.2) .

Learners' accounts for their preferred types of peer feedback

The interview data in response to why certain feedback techniques seemed to be favoured by the learners reveal that 'explicit correction' was popular with most learners for its straightforward nature. The learners claimed that from a feedback provider's perspective, 'explicit correction' technique made their correction clear and left little room for misunderstanding (see Extracts 15-16). In the following extracts, 'R' refers to the researcher of the study, 'FS' refers to a female student and 'MS' refers to a male student.

Extract 15- Year 7

R: Did you correct your classmates in the English speaking lessons?
FS: Yes, I immediately corrected them. I said: 'You're wrong. It's so and so'.
R: Why did you correct your classmates in such a direct way?
FS: Because if I had provided them with hints, they wouldn't have understood what I was talking about. Telling them the answer straightforwardly really made my feedback much clearer to them.
R: Did you use other ways to correct your classmates?
FS: No.

Extract 16- Year 8

    R: Why did you prefer to provide explicit correction to your peers?

    MS: He pronounced the word 'desk' wrongly; so I told him how to pronounce it directly. Using explicit correction is clearer.

    R: What do you mean by 'clearer'?

    MS: After I told him how to pronounce 'desk', he repeated 'desk' correctly. So, it [explicit correction] is clearer.

According to the learners (see Extracts 15-16 above), 'explicit correction' saved them much time and effort in trying to get their message across. Further to this point, they claimed that they would not be willing to provide peer feedback if it required too much effort (see Extracts 17-18).

Extract 17- Year 7

    R: How did you correct your classmates?

    MS: I would just tell them the right answer.

    R: Have you ever thought of using other ways, apart from telling them the right answer?

    MS: No, it's [using other ways is] too much hassle; too much trouble.

Extract 18- Year 8

    R: How did you provide your correction?

    MS: I told him the correct [grammatical] form directly.

    R: Why did you do it this way?

    MS: Because I didn't want to make too much effort. I would rather not provide my correction if I had to provide him with hints or whatever.

Moreover, 'explicit correction' was considered by the learners to fit their personality well, as they disliked procrastination (see Extracts 19-20).

Extract 19- Year 7

R: How did you correct your classmates?
FS: I just offered him the correct answer.
R: Why?
FS: I don't like to waste time. I couldn't help but to offer my correction immediately. I like it [explicit correction].

Extract 20- Year 8

R: Can you recall how you corrected your peers?
FS: Yes.
R: How?
FS: I didn't want to waste my time. I just told him how to do it. I don't like to spend too much time doing something. When I do something, I like to finish it as soon as possible.

From a correction receiver's perspective, 'explicit correction' was preferred by most of the interviewed learners because it was considered to be efficient, convenient, and clear. Despite several learners claiming that they felt embarrassed after receiving 'explicit correction' (see Extracts 21-22), most learners expressed their preference for receiving explicit feedback rather than vague and ambiguous feedback (see Extracts 23-24).

Extract 21- Year 7

R: How did you feel when you received peer feedback?
FS: I didn't like the blunt way that they used to correct me. They not only provided me with the correct form but also said to me 'You're wrong'. I felt a bit awkward and embarrassed. I hoped they wouldn't have said 'You made a mistake' to my face.

Extract 22- Year 8

R: Did you receive any correction from your peers during the English speaking lessons?
FS: Yes.
R: How did they correct you?
FS: They corrected me straight away. The way I dreaded the most. I felt so embarrassed when they corrected me. I prefer them to correct me in private; when no one is around.

Extract 23- Year 7

    R: Do you remember how your classmates corrected you in English speaking lessons?

    FS: I like them to tell me the answer. I don't like if they just offer me some prompts or hints and don't tell me the answer. To tell me the answer directly is more convenient for me.

Extract 24-Year 8

    R: Why did you prefer to be corrected in a direct and explicit way?

    MS: Because then I would not have needed to keep guessing what errors I made. It was torture. I just couldn't figure them [the errors]. So, please just tell me.

Furthermore, the learners who were interviewed clearly indicated that owing to their hasty and impatient dispositions, they disliked to be involved in too much guesswork. Moreover, they did not wish to be provided with further information (e.g. a wider explanation of grammatical rules) in addition to the feedback they received on their errors (see Extracts 25-26).

Extract 25- Year 7

    R: Why did you prefer to be corrected in a direct and explicit way?

    FS: It saves time so that I don't need to waste time guessing [the error]. Probably it's because of my personality.

    R: What do you mean by your personality?

    FS: I just like to deal with things in a direct way. I don't like indirect ways, because I have a 'rush' [impulsive and impatient] personality.

Extract 26- Year 8

    R: Why do you prefer to receive correction in an explicit way?

    MS: It's quicker. I just don't like to wait.

    R: So is there any feedback type that you particularly dislike?

    MS: I dislike going into details. They [His peers] explained too much. It [their explanation] was too complicated. It [their explanation] was useless. I couldn't remember their explanation at all.

5.3 Chapter Summary

The chapter has presented seven types of peer feedback, which were categorised from 105 peer-to-peer dialogues that involved feedback behaviours. Of the seven types, 'translation' and 'explicit correction' techniques were used most frequently by both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners. According to the learners, providing direct, explicit and immediate correction to peers made their feedback clear and efficient in terms of solving the communication breakdown. Overall, explicit and immediate feedback has three strengths, according to the learners. First, it is a useful quick-fix means to deal with oral errors. Second, it saves time in guessing what the error is. Lastly, it suits learners' personality of being hasty, impulsive and impatient towards communication problems in their oral practice. Adding to these points, implicit or detailed feedback was not preferred by the learners because such feedback made them feel either confused or overwhelmed due to information overload (see Chapter 8, Section 8.2 for further discussion about the findings).

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS (II): EFFECTIVENESS OF PEER FEEDBACK ON LEARNERS' ENGLISH SPEAKING DEVELOPMENT AND LEARNERS' VIEWS ON ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

This chapter reports the results of statistical analyses on the pre- and post-tests, the pre- and post-questionnaires and the pre- and post-checklists for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. The chapter presents the preliminary statistical results before reporting the inferential statistical results.

6.1 Research Questions

This chapter seeks to examine Research Questions 3-5 and two subsidiary research questions under Question 4 and Question 5 respectively.

3. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' speaking performance after a peer-led correction treatment?

4. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' perceptions of their own ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?

   a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English after a peer-led correction treatment?

   b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' own assessments of their ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?

5. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on oral corrective feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

   a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on peer feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

   b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on teacher feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

6.2 Results

The preliminary analysis is carried out before the analysis relating to each of the research questions is presented.

6.2.1 The preliminary analysis for the pre- and post-tests: Internal reliability of the analytic rating scales

Cronbach Alpha (α) was employed to examine how well five analytic criteria in each of two analytic rating scales (one scale for Task One; the other scale for Task Two) are interconnected with one another (see Field, 2005). For both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes, the five analytic criteria for Task One included: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency and interaction. The five analytic criteria for Task Two included: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and discourse management. The rating scales used can be found in Appendix D2. a and b. As the speaking construct in the study embraces both linguistic skills (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) and communicative skills (interaction, fluency and discourse management) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.1 for the discussion about speaking), a good level of internal reliability of the rating scales needs to be demonstrated in order to show that each criterion in both of the rating scales relates to the others. The results of internal reliability of the analytic rating scales for both the Year 7 (see Table 6.1) and Year 8 (see Table 6.2 on next page) classes are shown below.

Table 6.1 Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the analytic rating scales for the Year 7 class

Test	Rating Scale	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Pre	For Task One	.97	.97	.97
	For Task Two	.97	.98	.97
Post	For Task One	.98	.98	.98
	For Task Two	.94	.98	.96

Note. 1. Analytic criteria for Task One in pre- and post- tests included: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and interaction.
2. Analytic criteria for Task Two in pre- and post-tests included: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and discourse management.

For the Year 7 class (see Table 6.1), the results indicate a good level of internal reliability of the analytic rating scales for Task One (.97 < α < .98) and for Task Two (.94 < α < .98). The results suggest that the five analytic criteria in each of the rating scales are all positively correlated (see George & Mallery, 2003). Thus, the results suggest that both of the rating scales can be used to assess the Year 7 learners' speaking performance in the pre- and post-tests.

Table 6.2 Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the analytic rating scales for the Year 8 class

Test	Rating Scale	Rater 1	Rater 2	Rater 3
Pre	For Task One	.99	.99	.99
	For Task Two	.98	.98	.99
Post	For Task One	.98	.98	.98
	For Task Two	.98	.99	.98

Note. 1. Analytic criteria for Task One in pre- and post- tests included: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and interaction.
2. Analytic criteria for Task Two in pre- and post-tests included: grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and discourse management.

For the Year 8 class, the results of analytic rating scales used in the pre- and post-tests are shown in Table 6.2. The results indicate a good level of internal reliability of analytic rating scales for Task One (.98 < α < .99) and Task Two (.98 < α < .99). The results indicate that the five analytic criteria in each of the rating scales are all positively correlated. Thus, the results suggest that both of the rating scales can be used to assess the Year 8 learners' speaking performance in the pre- and post-tests.

6.2.2 The preliminary analysis for the pre- and post- tests of English speaking performance: Inter-rater reliability

Both Spearman Rank Order correlation (ρ) and Cronbach Alpha (α) were used to examine inter-rater reliability for the pre- and post-tests for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. Spearman correlation is widely used to test reliability between two raters for non-parametric data (Luoma, 2004). Cronbach Alpha is used to measure the consistency of the data and therefore can be adopted to examine inter-rater reliability with three raters (Fleenor, Fleenor, & Grossnickle, 1996). See Table 6.3 below and Table 6.4 on Page 99 for the results of inter-rater reliability analyses.

Table 6.3 Inter-rater reliability for analytic and holistic rating scales for the Year 7 class

Task One

Test	Raters	Gra	Voc	Pro	Flu	Int	Comp A	Hol
Pre	1 & 2	.88	.81	.83	.89	.79	.94	.87
	1 & 3	.77	.77	.77	.69	.86	.84	.84
	2 & 3	.67	.79	.71	.71	.67	.76	.68
	1 & 2 & 3	**.92**	**.94**	**.94**	**.93**	**.92**	**.96**	**.94**
Post	1 & 2	.88	.81	.77	.80	.88	.93	.85
	1 & 3	.88	.86	.72	.92	.85	.93	.91
	2 & 3	.87	.83	.86	.82	.89	.95	.90
	1 & 2 & 3	**.96**	**.97**	**.95**	**.96**	**.97**	**.99**	**.97**

Task Two

Test	Raters	Gra	Voc	Pro	Flu	D.M.	Comp B	Hol
Pre	1 & 2	.78	.74	.82	.89	.86	.87	.86
	1 & 3	.80	.80	.73	.77	.85	.84	.84
	2 & 3	.82	.87	.82	.73	.85	.87	.85
	1 & 2 & 3	**.94**	**.93**	**.94**	**.94**	**.95**	**.97**	**.96**
Post	1 & 2	.70	.87	.70	.82	.80	.87	.90
	1 & 3	.73	.81	.75	.74	.84	.88	.86
	2 & 3	.84	.88	.78	.82	.86	.90	.90
	1 & 2 & 3	**.90**	**.95**	**.89**	**.93**	**.94**	**.96**	**.95**

Note. 1. All Spearman's correlation coefficient between two raters are significant ($p < .001$, two-tailed).
2. Gra = grammar, Voc = Vocabulary, Pro = Pronunciation, Flu = Fluency, Int = Interaction, D.M = Discourse management, Hol = Holistic.
3. Comp A = composite scores for Gra + Voc + Pro + Flu + Int. Comp B = composite scores for Gra + Voc + Pro + Flu + D.M.

As shown in Table 6.3, the results of inter-rater reliability analysis for each analytic criterion for each pair of raters and among three raters for the Year 7 class indicate a good, positive correlation. For Task One, the results indicate a significant degree of reliability for each pair (.67 < ρ < .92, $p < .001$) and amongst all the three raters (.92 < α < .97) for each analytic criterion.

The composite scores for the five analytic criteria in Task One (Comp A) and Task Two (Comp B) were calculated respectively for two reasons: 1) as mentioned above, the speaking construct of the present study embraces both linguistic and

communicative skills (see Chapter 3, section 3.1), the composite scores for each of the tasks were calculated in order to reflect learners' overall skills in speaking English. 2) Given the high values of both Spearman Rank Order correlations and Cronbach Alpha coefficients for each analytic criterion for both Task One and Task Two, the composite scores were calculated. The inter-rater reliability for the composite scores reaches a significantly reliable level for Task One (Com A) ($.76 < \rho < .95$, $p < .001$, $.96 < \alpha < .99$) and for Task Two (Comb B) ($.84 < \rho < .90$, $p < .001$, $.96 < \alpha < .97$).

For holistic scores (Hol), the results show a good inter-rater reliability for Task One for each pair ($.68 < \rho < .91$, $p < .001$) and amongst all the three raters ($.94 < \alpha < .97$). For Task Two, the results indicate a good inter-rater reliability for each pair ($.84 < \rho < .90$, $p < .001$) and amongst all the three raters ($.95 < \alpha < .96$).

Table 6.4: Inter-rater reliability for analytic and holistic rating scales for the Year 8 class

Task One

Test	Raters	Gra	Voc	Pro	Flu	Int	Comp A	Hol
Pre	1 & 2	.89	.90	.95	.89	.90	.94	.93
	1 & 3	.92	.89	.91	.88	.91	.95	.94
	2 & 3	.90	.86	.90	.92	.91	.93	.93
	1 & 2 & 3	**.97**	**.95**	**.97**	**.96**	**.97**	**.98**	**.98**
Post	1 & 2	.86	.87	.87	.89	.91	.93	.91
	1 & 3	.86	.92	.85	.91	.93	.96	.92
	2 & 3	.86	.90	.90	.88	.91	.94	.91
	1 & 2 & 3	**.93**	**.95**	**.95**	**.96**	**.97**	**.97**	**.96**

Task Two

Test	Raters	Gra	Voc	Pro	Flu	D.M.	Comp B	Hol
Pre	1 & 2	.92	.91	.83	.93	.94	.95	.95
	1 & 3	.93	.91	.88	.91	.91	.97	.96
	2 & 3	.94	.90	.95	.91	.93	.96	.96
	1 & 2 & 3	**.97**	**.96**	**.96**	**.97**	**.97**	**.99**	**.98**
Post	1 & 2	.85	.86	.87	.93	.90	.93	.91
	1 & 3	.84	.90	.91	.93	.89	.93	.92
	2 & 3	.90	.89	.81	.91	.84	.91	.89
	1 & 2 & 3	**.95**	**.96**	**.96**	**.98**	**.96**	**.98**	**.97**

Note. 1. All Spearman's correlation coefficient between two raters are significant ($p < .001$, two-tailed).
   2. Gra = grammar, Voc = Vocabulary, Pro = Pronunciation, Flu = Fluency, Int = Interaction, D.M = Discourse management, Hol = Holistic.
   3. Comp A = composite scores for Gra + Voc + Pro + Flu + Int. Comp B = composite scores for Gra + Voc + Pro + Flu + D.M.

Table 6.4 shows the results of inter-rater reliability analysis for each analytic criterion for each pair of raters and amongst the three raters for the Year 8 class. For Task One, the results suggest a highly significant reliability for each pair ($.85 < \rho < .95$, $p < .001$) and amongst the three raters ($.93 < \alpha < .97$) for each analytic criterion.

Given the speaking construct followed by this study (see Chapter 3, section 3.1) as well as the high values of both Spearman's correlations and Cronbach Alpha coefficients for each analytic criterion for both Task One and Task Two, the composite scores for the five analytic criteria in Task One (Comp A) and Task Two (Comp B) were then calculated. The inter-rater reliability for the composite scores

achieves a significantly reliable results for Task One (.93 < ρ < .96, p < .001 , .97 < α < .98) and Task Two (.91 < ρ < .97, p < .001 , .98 < α < .99).

For holistic scores (Hol), there is a highly significant reliability shown for each pair (.91 < ρ < .94, p < .001) and amongst the three raters (.96 < α < .98) for Task One. Also, for Task Two holistic scores (Hol), a significantly high inter-rater reliability is shown for each pair (.89 < ρ < .96, p < .001) and amongst the three raters (.97 < α < .98).

The analyses above for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes demonstrate a good level of inter-rater reliability between each pair of raters and amongst three raters. Thus, additional eight sets of composite scores were calculated for the subsequent inferential analyses for each of the Year 7 and Year 8 classes, in addition to Comp A and Comp B as presented above. Table 6.5 below shows how these different sets of composite scores were calculated.

Table 6.5 Composite scores for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

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For descriptive analysis – Analytic scores (as already shown in Tables 6.3 and 6.4)

Composite A	Task 1	Grammar + Vocabulary + Pronunciation + Fluency + Interaction
Composite B	Task 2	Grammar + Vocabulary + Pronunciation + Fluency + Discourse Management

For inferential statistics – Analytic scores

Composite C	Task 1	Composite A of Rater 1 + Composite A of Rater 2 + Composite A of Rater 3
Composite D	Task 2	Composite B of Rater 1 + Composite B of Rater 2 + Composite B of Rater 3

For inferential statistics - Holistic scores

Composite E	Task 1	Rater 1's holistic + Rater 2's holistic + Rater 3's holistic scores for Task One
Composite F	Task 2	Rater 1's holistic + Rater 2's holistic + Rater 3's holistic scores for Task Two

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Note. For each of the composite scores (Composites A-F), there were pre and post scores.

As shown in Table 6.5, for inferential statistics, eight sets of composite scores [4 (Composites C, D, E, F for pre-test) + 4 (Composites C, D, E, F for post-test)] were

calculated for each of the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. Scores from both analytic and holistic schemes were analysed separately because the usefulness of employing either of them to represent students' speaking performance remains inconclusive in the current literature (see Sawaki, 2007; also see Chapter 3, Section 3.4.2 for further discussion).

Normality tests for each of the composite scores as shown in Table 6.6 were analysed in order to examine whether the samples of the present study come from a normal distribution or a non-normal distribution. The results of Shapiro-Wilk test, one of the commonly used normality tests (see Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012) showed that all the composite scores were not normally distributed expect for Composite Scores D for Year 7 learners' post-tests (p = .547) or Composite Scores F for Year 7 learners' post-tests (p = .427). As a results, non-parametric statistical tests were used in the inferential statistical analysis (The results of the inferential analysis for pre- and post-tests are presented in Section 6.2.3).

Table 6.6 Normality tests for the composite scores of pre-and post-tests for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

Year 7 P-value of the Shapiro-Wilk Test			Year 8 P-value of the Shapiro-Wilk Test		
	Pre-Test	Post-Test		Pre-Test	Post-Test
Composite C	.021	.001	Composite C	.005	.039
Composite D	.027	**.547**	Composite D	.043	.049
Composite E	.013	.002	Composite E	.006	.051
Composite F	.026	**.427**	Composite F	.023	.025

6.2.3 Research Question 3: What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' speaking performance after a peer-led correction treatment?

The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, the non-parametric alternative to the repeated measures t-test (Pallant, 2005), was used to examine the differences in learners' speaking performance between pre- and post-tests. The results for Year 7 class are shown in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test on the pre-and post-tests for the Year 7 class

Task	Composite scores of 3 raters		Mean	S.D.	Mdn	Range	Z-Value[a]	Effect size[b]
One	Analytic	Pre	39.0	17.5	42.0	0-65	-4.2**	-.50
		Post	48.4	21.6	55.5	0-75		
	Holistic	Pre	7.9	3.7	9.0	0-14	-4.0**	-.47
		Post	9.7	4.3	11.0	0-15		
Two	Analytic	Pre	34.7	18.2	39.5	0-64	-1.9	-.22
		Post	39.1	16.8	39.5	0-69	$p = .06$	
	Holistic	Pre	6.6	3.5	7.0	0-12	-2.8*	-.33
		post	7.7	3.7	8.0	0-14		

Note. [a] Based on negative ranks.
    [b] $r = .5$ indicates a large effect, $r = .3$ indicates a medium effect , $r = .1$ indicates a small effect. This is guided by Cohen's (1988) benchmark.
    * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

The Year 7 learners' English speaking performance in Task One (an information-gap task) was significantly improved in the post-test according to both analytic and holistic scores provided by the three raters. The learners' performance was significantly better in the post-test (*Mdn* = 55.5) than in the pre-test (*Mdn* = 42.0) for analytic scores (*z* = -4.2, *p* < .001, *r* = -.50). Likewise, for holistic scores, the learners performed better in the post-test (*Mdn* = 11.0) than in the pre-test (*Mdn* = 9.0, *z* = -4.0, *p* < .001, *r* = -.47).

For Task Two (a picture description task) analytic scores, no significant improvement in the learners' performance was found (*z* = -1.9, *p* > .05, *r* = -.22) between the pre-test (*Mdn* = 39.5) and the post-test (*Mdn* = 39.5). However, a

significant difference was demonstrated in holistic scores between the pre-test (*Mdn* = 7) and the post-test (*Mdn* = 8, *z* = -2.8, *p* < .01, *r* = -.33).

Table 6.8 The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test on the pre-and post-tests for the Year 8 class

Task	Composite scores of 3 raters		Mean	S.D.	Mdn	Range	Z-Value[a]	Effect Size[b]
One	Analytic	Pre	29.5	23.4	25.0	0-68	-4.7*	-.58
		Post	40.3	21.0	41.0	0-68		
	Holistic	Pre	5.7	4.6	4.0	0-14	-4.5*	-.55
		Post	7.8	4.0	8.0	0-14		
Two	Analytic	Pre	36.8	23.5	40.0	0-72	-1.5	-.18
		Post	39.2	21.4	41.0	0-70	*p* =.13	
	Holistic	Pre	7.7	4.9	9.0	0-15	-0.6	-.07
		Post	7.9	4.4	8.0	0-14	*p* =.56	

Note. [a] Based on negative ranks.
   [b] *r* = .5 indicates a large effect, *r* = .3 indicates a medium effect , *r* = .1 indicates a small effect (guided by Cohen's benchmark).
   * *p* < .001

Table 6.8 shows that the Year 8 learners' English speaking performance in Task One (an information-gap task) was significantly improved in the post-test, according to both analytic and holistic scores provided by the three raters. The learners' performance was significantly better in the post-test (*Mdn* = 41.0) than in pre-test (*Mdn* = 25.0) for analytic scores (*z* = -4.7, *p* < .001, *r* = -.58). Likewise, for holistic scores, the learners achieved better scores in the post-test (*Mdn* = 8.0) than in pre-test (*Mdn* = 4.0, *z* = -4.5, *p* < .001, *r* = -.55). However, the Year 8 learners' performance did not improve significantly in Task Two (a sequential-pictures story-telling task), based on either analytic scores (*z* = -1.5, *p* >.05, *r* = -.18) or holistic scores (*z* = -0.6, *p* > .05, *r* = -.07).

In Summary, the Year 7 learners' speaking performance in the information-gap task (Task One) significantly improved in the post-test for both analytic and holistic scores. Their performance in the picture description task (Task Two) significantly enhanced in the post-test for holistic scores but not for analytic scores.

For Year 8 class, there was significant progress in the learners' speaking performance in the information-gap task (Task One) for both analytic and holistic scores in the post-test, but there was no significant progress on their performance in the post-test sequential-pictures story-telling task (Task Two).

6.2.4 The descriptive analysis for the pre-and post-questionnaires: Internal reliability

A 19-item error correction questionnaire was designed for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes to elicit learners' views on oral error correction and their self-confidence in speaking English. Of 19 items, Items 1-16 consist of five sub-concepts of error correction (see Table 6.9), which were measured on a five-point Likert scale.

Table 6.9 Five concepts explored in the questionnaire for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

Concepts measured with a Likert scale	Items in the Group
Group 1. Self-confidence in speaking English	Items 5, 8, 9
Group 2. Views on oral corrective feedback	Items 1-4, 6, 7,10-12^, 13-15^, 16^
Group 3. Views on teacher feedback	Items 1, 10, 14, 15^
Group 4. Views on receiving peer feedback	Items 2, 11, 13, 16^
Group 5. Views on offering peer feedback	Items 3, 7, 12^

Note. ^ Reverse-phrased items

Cronbach Alpha coefficient was used to examine whether items under each of the five concepts are correlated. The results are shown in Table 6.10. Reverse-phrased items 12, 15, 16 were recoded before conducting this statistical analysis.

Table 6.10: Internal reliability-Item analysis with Cronbach Alpha in five concept groups explored in the pre- and post-questionnaires

Class	Questionnaire	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
Year 7	Pre	.65	.79	.61	.63	.40
(n =36)	Post	.69	.80	.65	.60	.21
Year 8	Pre	.67	.75	.70	.66	.41
(n = 33)	Post	.88	.85	.76	.56	.72

Table 6.10 shows the reliability coefficients for the five concept groups for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. For the Year 7 class, internal reliability for Groups 1-4 in

the pre- and post-questionnaires reaches an above acceptable level ($.60 < \alpha < .80$), but not for Group 5 ($.21 < \alpha < .40$). Similarly, for the Year 8 class, an acceptable reliability for Groups 1-4 ($.56 < \alpha < .88$) in the pre- and post-questionnaires is demonstrated, but not for Group 5 ($.41 < \alpha < .72$). Given these results, composite scores for each of the first four groups (1-4) were calculated and then used for subsequent inferential statistics. It is arguable that Alpha coefficient .60 is not ideally strong enough for composite scores. However, Alpha value is determined by the number of items on the scale (Field, 2005, p. 668). Given the fact that there are four items in Group 4 with small samples [the Year 7 class (n=36) and the Year 8 class (n=33)], Alpha reached .60 can be considered acceptable for composite scores (Professor Lindsay Paterson, personal communication, March 25, 2011; Dr. Tony Glendinning, personal communication, February 18, 2011). The three items (Items 3, 7, and 12) in Group 5 were analysed separately due to low internal reliability of them. The other items (Items 17-19) in the pre-and post-questionnaires were also analysed separately because they are multiple-choice items and cover different aspects of the inquiries (see Section 6.2.7, Table 6.19 for the results).

6.2.5 The descriptive analysis for the pre-and post-checklists: Internal reliability

Cronbach Alpha coefficient was used to evaluate the internal reliability of the 15-item checklist. See Table 6.11 on next page for internal reliability of the checklist for both classes.

Table 6.11 Internal reliability analysis for the pre- and post-checklists for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

Class	Pre (α)	Post (α)
Year 7 (n=36)	.95	.91
Year 8 (n=33)	.96	.96

As shown in Table 6.11, the overall Alpha coefficient is high ($\alpha > .90$) for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes in the pre-and-post checklists. This indicates that all items in the checklists are positively interrelated. That is, all the items appear to measure a similar concept (see George & Mallery, 2003).

The 15 items in the checklist for each class can be divided into three parts, which reflect different speaking skills. The internal reliability of each part was examined before computing the composite scores for the subsequent inferential analysis (see Table 6.12).

Table 6.12: Internal reliability of three subgroups of speaking skills in the checklists

Class	Groups	Alpha	
Year 7 (n = 36)	Interactive skill: items 1-5	Pre Post	.90 .84
	Descriptive skill : items 6-8, 10, 14	Pre Post	.88 .75
	Linguistic skill : items 9, 11-13, 15	Pre Post	.90 .80
Year 8 (n = 33)	Interactive skill: items 1-5	Pre Post	.91 .89
	Descriptive skill: items 6-8, 10, 14	Pre Post	.90 .92
	Linguistic skill: items 9, 11-13, 15	Pre Post	.90 .90

The results in Table 6.12 show that the internal reliability is achieved at a good level ($.75 < \alpha < .92$) for each group of speaking skills for the Year 7 class ($75 < \alpha < .90$) and the Year 8 class ($.89 < \alpha < .92$).

6.2.6 Research Question 4: What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' perceptions of their own ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?

a. **What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English after a peer-led correction treatment?**

Given the good internal reliability demonstrated in the descriptive analysis (see Table 6.10), composite scores (range 3 to 15) for learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English were calculated and used for the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test. The results for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes are shown in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13 The difference in the learners' self-confidence at speaking English between the pre- and post-questionnaires for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

Self-confidence in Speaking English	Mean	S.D.	Mdn	Range	Z- values	Effect size[c]
Year 7 class						
Pre	9.2	2.9	9.0	4-15	-.53[a]	-.06
Post	8.8	2.9	9.0	3-15	$p = .60$	
Year 8 class						
Pre	9.0	3.0	9.0	3-15	-1.9[b]	-.23
Post	10.0	3.0	10.0	3-15	$p = .06$	

Note. [a] Based on positive ranks.
 [b] Based on negative ranks.
 [c] $r = .50$ indicates a large effect, $r = .30$ indicates a medium effect , $r = .10$ indicates a small effect (Cohen, 1988).

As shown in Table 6.13, for the Year 7 class, there was no significant difference in the learners' levels of confidence in speaking English between the pre- (*Mdn*= 9.0) and post- (*Mdn*= 9.0) questionnaires ($z = -.53$, $p >.05$, $r = -.06$). Similarly, for the Year 8 class, the results show no significant difference in the learners' levels of confidence in speaking English ($z = -1.9$, $p =.06$, $r = -.23$) between the pre- (*Mdn* = 9.0) and post- (*Mdn* = 10.0) questionnaires.

b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' own assessments of their ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?

The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was used to examine the difference in learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. The composite scores (range 5 to 75) for the learners' self-evaluation of their overall ability to speak English were used for the inferential analysis, given good internal reliability of the pre-and post-checklists (see Section 6.2.5, Table 6.11). The

learners were asked to self-evaluate their speaking ability by rating three of their own speaking skills (interactive skills, descriptive skills and linguistic skills). The composite scores for the learners' own evaluation of their interactive skills (range 5 to 25), descriptive skills (range 5 to 25) and linguistic skills (range 5 to 25) respectively were also used (see Section 6.2.5, Table 6.12) in the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for the same reason. The results are shown in Table 6.14 below and Table 6.15 on next page.

Table 6.14 The difference in the learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English with the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for the Year 7 and Year 8 classes.

Class	Checklist	Mean	S.D.	Mdn	Range	Z- Value[a]	Effect size[b]
Year 7	Pre	37.5	12.7	36.0	16-64	-1.8	-.22
(N=36)	Post	40.1	10.7	41.0	21-70	$p=.07$	
Year 8	Pre	39.2	16.2	38.0	15-70	-2.1*	-.26
(N=33)	Post	42.5	15.9	42.0	15-70		

Note. [a] Based on negative ranks.
[b] r = .50 indicates a large effect, r = .30 indicates a medium effect , r = .10 indicates a small effect (Cohen, 1988).
* $p < .05$

As shown in Table 6.14, for the Year 7 class, there is no significant change in learners' self-evaluation of own ability to speak English after the quasi-experiment. The results show no significant difference in the Year 7 learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English between the pre- (*Mdn* = 36.0) and post- (*Mdn* = 41.0) checklists (z = -1.8, p = .07, r = -.22). For the Year 8 class, the learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English was shown significantly higher in the post- (*Mdn* = 42.0) than pre- (*Mdn* = 38.0) checklists (z = -2.1, $p < .05$, r = -.26).

Table 6.15 below shows the results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test on the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' self-evaluation of their own speaking skills between the pre- and post-checklists.

Table 6.15: The difference between the pre- and post-checklists in the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' self-evaluation of their own English-speaking skills

Class	Speaking Skills	Mean	S.D.	Mdn	Range	Z- Value[a]	Effect size[b]
Year 7 (N =36)	Interactive[c]						
	Pre	14.0	5.0	14.0	5-23	-1.5	-.18
	Post	14.9	4.3	14.5	6-24	p=.13	
	Descriptive[d]						
	Pre	12.1	4.5	11.0	5-21	-2.0*	-.24
	Post	12.9	3.8	12.0	6-24		
	Linguistic[e]						
	Pre	11.4	4.1	11.0	5-20	-1.3	-.15
	Post	12.2	3.8	12.5	6-22	p=.18	
Year 8 (N =33)	Interactive						
	Pre	14.5	6.4	15.0	5-25	-.89	-.11
	Post	15.3	5.4	16.0	5-25	p=.37	
	Descriptive						
	Pre	11.9	5.3	11.0	5-22	-2.6*	-.32
	Post	13.6	5.7	13.0	5-24		
	Linguistic						
	Pre	12.7	5.4	12.0	5-24	-1.2	-.15
	Post	13.6	5.6	14.0	5-24	p=.22	

Note. [a] Based on negative ranks.
[b] $r = .50$ indicates a large effect, $r = .30$ indicates a medium effect , $r = .10$ indicates a small effect (Cohen, 1988).
[c] Interactive skills refer to the skills to facilitate the conversation with other people (e.g. the skill to maintain face-to-face conversation with others).
[d] Descriptive skills refer to the skills to produce narratives (e.g. the skill to describe personal interests).
[f] Linguistic skills refer to the skills to produce utterances in English (e.g. the English grammatical skills).
* $p < .05$

As shown in Table 6.15, for the Year 7 class, there was a significant difference between the pre- (*Mdn* = 11.0) and post- (*Mdn* = 12.0) checklists in the learners' self-

evaluation of their own descriptive English-speaking skills ($z = -2.0$, $p < .05$, $r = -.24$). However, for the other two speaking skills (interactive and linguistic skills), the results showed no significant difference between the pre- and post-checklists.

For the Year 8 class, the learners' self-evaluation of their own descriptive skill was significantly higher in the post- (*Mdn* = 13.0) than pre- (*Mdn* = 11.0) checklists ($z = -2.6$, $p < .05$, $r = -.32$), but no significant difference was shown either in their self-evaluation of their interactive skills or in their linguistic skill between pre-and post-checklists.

The relationship between the learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English and their levels of self-confidence in speaking English

The findings of the interviews with the Year 7 and Year 8 learners suggest a positive relationship between the learners' assessments of their own speaking ability and their levels of self-confidence in speaking English. The Spearman Rank Order correlation test was employed to examine this relationship. The results are shown in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16 Spearman Rank Order correlation between self-evaluation of English speaking ability and self-confidence in speaking English

Year 7	**Pre**- (self-confidence in speaking English and self-assessed overall ability to speak English)	.43**
(N=36)	**Post**-(self-confidence in speaking English and self-assessed overall ability to speak English)	.42*
Year 8	**Pre**-(self-confidence in speaking English and self-assessed overall ability to speak English)	.71***
(N=33)	**Post**-(self-confidence in speaking English and self-assessed overall ability to speak English)	.73***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

For the Year 7 class, there was a moderately significant relationship between the learners' assessments of their own English-speaking ability and their levels of self-confidence in speaking English in both the pre- ($\rho = .43$, $p < .01$), and post- ($\rho = .42$, $p < .05$) measures (questionnaires and checklists). For the Year 8 class, the relationship was much stronger and even reached a highly significant level in both pre- ($\rho = .71$, $p < .001$) and post -($\rho = .73$, $p < .001$) measures (questionnaires and checklists).

In summary, the results revealed no significant change in the Year 7 learners' assessments of their own ability to speak English after the quasi-experiment. There was no significant difference in the Year 7 learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English and their self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English. A significant difference was found only in the Year 7 learners' self-evaluation of their descriptive English-speaking skill between the pre-and post-checklists.

Compared with the Year 7 class, the results for the Year 8 class revealed a clearer pattern of change in learners' assessments of their own ability to speak English. There was a trend towards a significant increase in the Year 8 learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English. Their self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English increased significantly after the quasi-experiment. Similarly, their assessments of own descriptive English-speaking skills also increased significantly after the quasi-experiment.

6.2.7 Research Question 5: What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on oral corrective feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

      a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on peer feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

      b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on teacher feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

As an acceptable level of internal reliability in the pre-and post-questionnaires for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes was shown in descriptive analysis (see Section 6.2.4, Table 6.10), the composite scores were calculated respectively for the three groups regarding corrective feedback: Oral feedback group (range 13 to 65), peer feedback group (range 4 to 20), and teacher feedback (range 4 to 20). The composite scores were used in the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test to examine difference in the learners' views on oral feedback, peer feedback and teacher feedback respectively between the pre- and post-questionnaires (see Table 6.17 and Table 6.18 in the following pages).

Table 6.17: The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test on difference in the Year 7 learners' views on oral feedback, peer feedback and teacher feedback between the pre-and post-questionnaires

Learners' views on	Questionn-aire	Mean	S.D.	Mdn	Range	Z-Value[a]	Effect size[b]
oral feedback[c]	Pre	44.6	8.5	45.5	19-58	- 1.7	-.20
	Post	42.4	7.7	43.5	24-56	$p = .09$	
peer feedback[d]	Pre	13.1	3.5	13.0	4-18	- .23	-.03
	Post	12.9	3.5	13.5	5-19	$p = .82$	
teacher feedback[e]	Pre	15.4	3.3	16.0	6-20	- .1.5	-.18
	Post	14.6	3.5	15.0	4-20	$p = .13$	

Note. [a] Based on positive ranks.

[b] $r = .50$ indicates a large effect, $r = .30$ indicates a medium effect , $r = .10$ indicates a small effect (Cohen, 1988).

[c] The learners' views on oral feedback were measured by the composite scores range from 13 to 65 where '13' the lowest scores and '65' the highest scores that respectively represent different ends of the learners' positive views towards oral corrective feedback.

[d] The learners' views on peer feedback were measured by the composite scores range from 4 to 20 where '4' the lowest scores and '20' the highest scores that respectively represent different ends of the learners' positive views towards peer feedback.

[e] The learners' views on teacher feedback were measured by the composite scores range from 4 to 20 where '4', the lowest scores, and '20', the highest scores, that respectively represent different ends of the learners' positive views towards teacher feedback.

As shown in Table 6.17, no significant difference was found in the Year 7 learners' views on receiving oral feedback, peer feedback or teacher feedback between the pre- and post-questionnaires.

Table 6.18: The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test on difference in the Year 8 learners' views on oral feedback, peer feedback and teacher feedback between the pre-and post-questionnaires

Learners' views on	Question -naire	Mean	S.D.	Mdn	Range	Z- Value	Effect size[c]
oral feedback[d]	Pre	47.3	7.6	47.0	29-63	- .25[a]	-.03
	Post	47.2	10.3	47.0	21-64	$p = .81$	
peer feedback[e]	Pre	15.1	3.2	15.0	5-20	-1.2[b]	-.15
	Post	15.8	3.0	16.0	8-20	$p = .22$	
teacher feedback[f]	Pre	15.3	3.4	16.0	7-20	-1.3[b]	-.16
	Post	15.9	3.7	16.0	6-20	$p = .20$	

Note. [a] Based on positive ranks.

[b] Based on negative ranks.

[c] $r = .50$ indicates a large effect, $r = .30$ indicates a medium effect , $r = .10$ indicates a small effect (Cohen, 1988).

[d] The learners' views on oral feedback were measured by the composite scores range from 13 to 65 where '13' the lowest scores and '65' the highest scores that respectively represent different ends of the learners' positive views towards oral corrective feedback.

[e] The learners' views on peer feedback were measured by the composite scores range from 4 to 20 where '4' the lowest scores and '20' the highest scores that respectively represent different ends of the learners' positive views towards peer feedback.

[f] The learners' views on teacher feedback were measured by the composite scores range from 4 to 20 where '4', the lowest scores, and '20', the highest scores, that respectively represent different ends of the learners' positive views towards teacher feedback.

As shown in Table 6.18, no significant difference was demonstrated in the Year 8 learners' views on receiving oral feedback, peer feedback or teacher feedback between the pre- and post-questionnaires. The results suggest that after the quasi-experiment, the Year 8 learners seemed to be slightly more willing to receive both peer feedback and teacher feedback (see Z-values and mean values of the pre-and post-questionnaires).

As mentioned in previous descriptive analysis (see Section 6.2.4), Items 3, 7, 12, 17-19 in both the pre-and post-questionnaires were analysed separately. The description of each of these items is as follows:

Item 3:	I do not mind providing my classmates with correction (measured by a five-point Likert scale).
Item 7:	I am confident at correcting my classmates (measured by a five-point Likert scale).
Item 12:	I don't know how to correct my classmates (measured by a five-point Likert scale).
Item 17:	Do you prefer to receive teacher correction on your oral error or to receive peer correction on your oral error in class (multiple-choice item)?
Item 18:	When one of your classmates makes oral errors in class, do you prefer to see the correction made by the teacher or made by other students (including you) (multiple-choice item)?
Item 19:	Which one do you think has most effect, teacher correction or peer correction (multiple-choice item)?

The Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was used to examine the difference in the learners' views on Items 3, 7, and 12 between the pre- and post-questionnaires. The results showed no significant difference for either the Year 7 or the Year 8 classes (see Table 6.19 below). This suggests that the learners' views towards peer feedback remained similar after the quasi-experiment. Similarly, no significant difference could be found regarding learners' responses to Items 17-18 between the pre- and post-questionnaires for either class.

Table 6.19: Results of the Wilcoxon Signed Ranked Test on learners' perceptions of error correction between the pre- and post-questionnaires for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes

Class	Item 3	Item 7	Item 12^	Item 17	Item 18	Item 19
Year 7	-.43[a]	-.35[b]	-.93[b]	-1.1[b]	-1.1[a]	-1.1[a]
(N =36)	$p = .67$	$p = .73$	$p = .35$	$p = .28$	$p = .25$	$p = .27$
Year 8	-.53[a]	-1.7[a]	-.32[a]	-.41[b]	-1.30[a]	-1.6[a]
(N =33)	$p = .60$	$p = .09$	$p = .75$	$p = .68$	$p = .19$	$p = .12$

Note. ^ Item 12 was a reverse-phrased item and had been recoded before the analysis.
  [a] Based on negative ranks.
  [b] Based on positive ranks.

To have a careful look at these six items in the questionnaires (see Table 6.19), a frequency analysis for each of them was conducted. The results of the frequency analysis on Item 3 (I don't mind providing my classmates with correction) for each class are shown in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 respectively (see next page). The figures show that for both classes, more learners agreed with the statement of Item 3 to the full extent in the post-questionnaire than in the pre-questionnaire [Year 7 class: Post (n=11) versus Pre (n=9) ; Year 8 class: Post (n=21) versus Pre (n=17)]. For Year 7 class, most learners (n=13) indicated their agreement on Level '3' out of '5' in the pre-questionnaire, but most learners (n=11) indicated their agreement on Level '5' out of '5' in the post-questionnaire. For the Year 8 class, most learners indicated their agreement with the statement of Item 3 on Level '5' in both the pre- (n=17) and post-(n=21) questionnaires.

Figure 6.1 The Year 7 learners' attitudes towards providing peers with correction
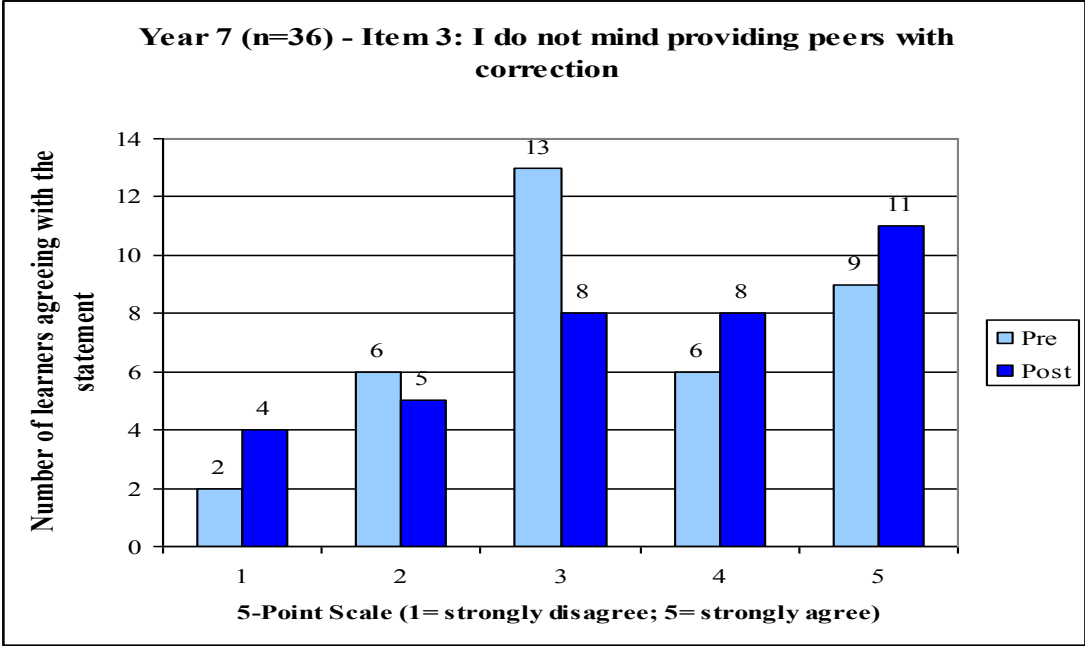
Figure 6.2 The Year 8 learners' attitudes towards providing peers with correction
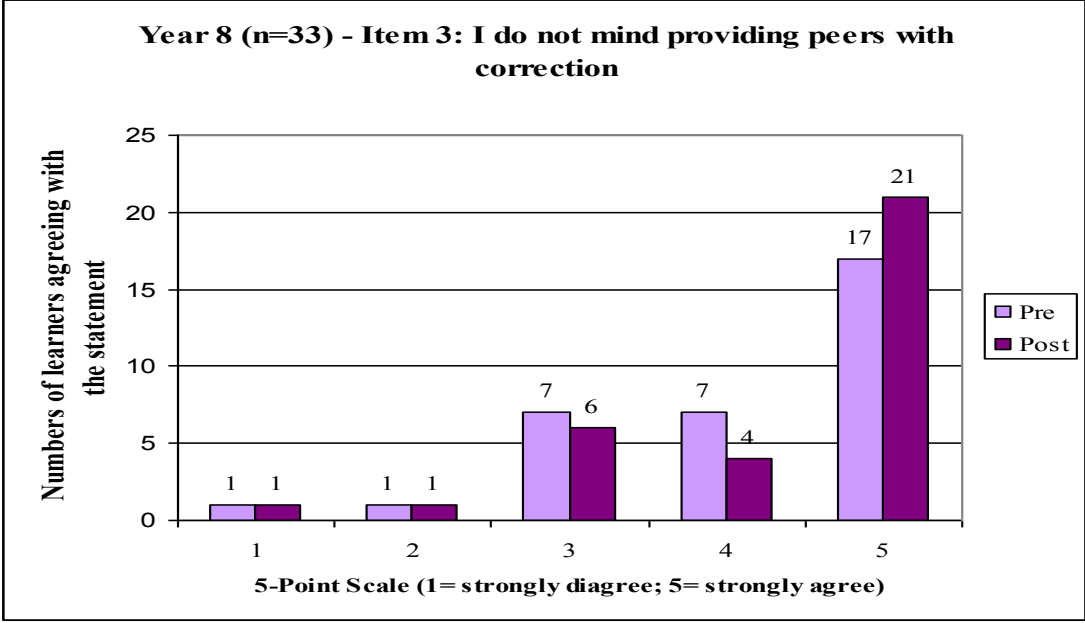
The results of the frequency analysis on Item 7 (I am confident at correcting my classmates) for each of the classes are shown in Figures 6.3 and 6.4 respectively. For the Year 7 class, most learners indicated their agreement with the statement of Item 7 on either Level '2' or Level '3' in both the pre-and post-questionnaires. This implies that most learners did not seem confident at providing feedback to their peers. The number of learners agreeing with the statement to the full extent declined from four in the pre-questionnaire to two in the post-questionnaire.

Figure 6.3 The Year 7 learners' self-confidence at providing peer feedback
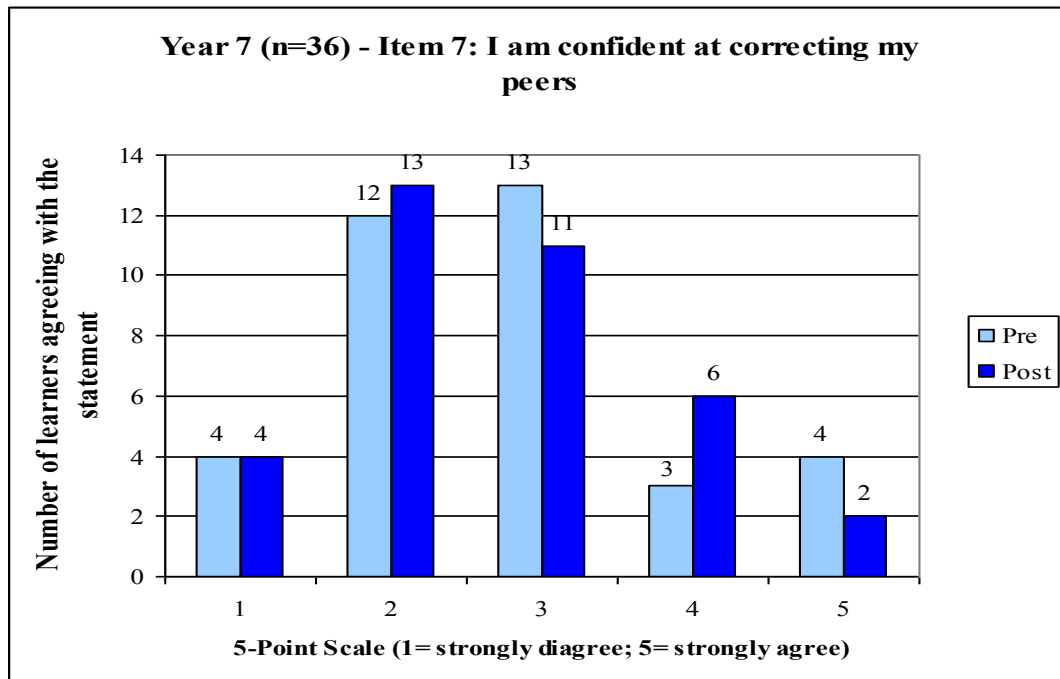
For the Year 8 class (see Figure 6.4), most learners indicated their agreement with the statement of Item 7 on Level '3' in both the pre- (n=13) and post- (n=9) questionnaires. In the post-questionnaire, the number of learners agreeing with the statement on Level '5' slightly increased from five to seven.

Figure 6.4 The Year 8 learners' confidence at providing peer feedback
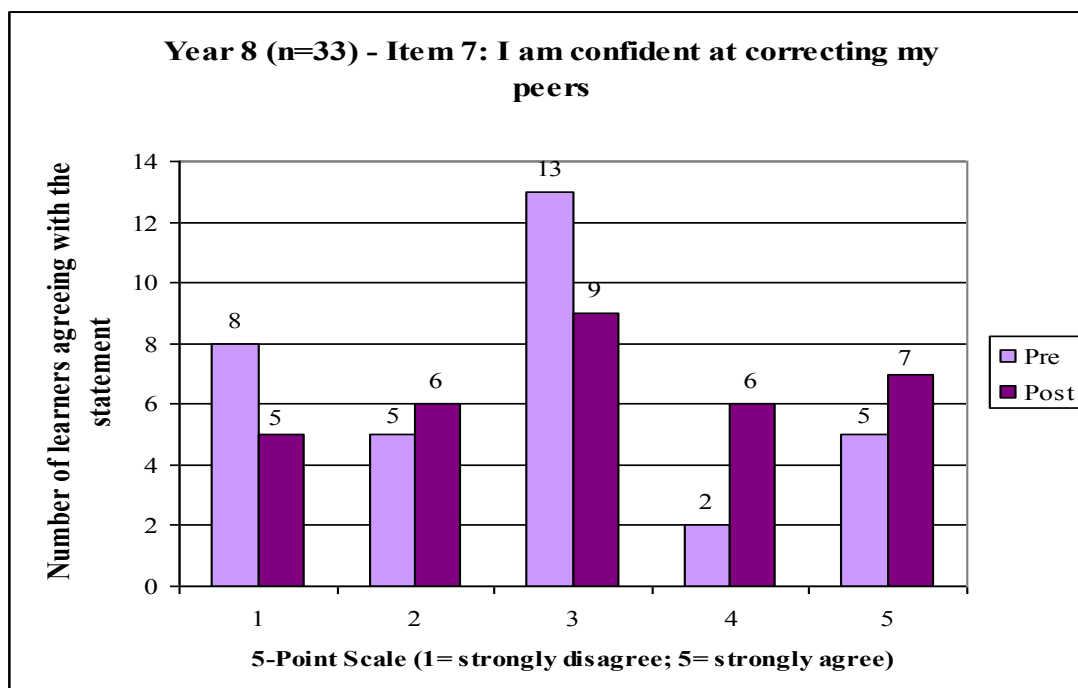
The results of the frequency analysis on Item 12 (I know how to correct my classmates) for both classes are shown respectively in Figures 6.5 and 6.6 on next page. The results show that most learners from both classes agreed with the statement of Item 12 to the Level of '3' out of '5' in both the pre- and post-questionnaires. The number of learners agreeing fully with the statement increased slightly in the post-questionnaire from three to eight for Year 7 class and from four to six for Year 8 class. However, the number of learners agreeing least with the statement also increased slightly from seven to six for Year 7 class and from eight to six for Year 8 class. The results imply that learners seemed to remain uncertain about their own ability of offering feedback to their peers after the quasi-experiment.

Figure 6.5 The Year 7 learners' perceptions of knowing how to correct peers
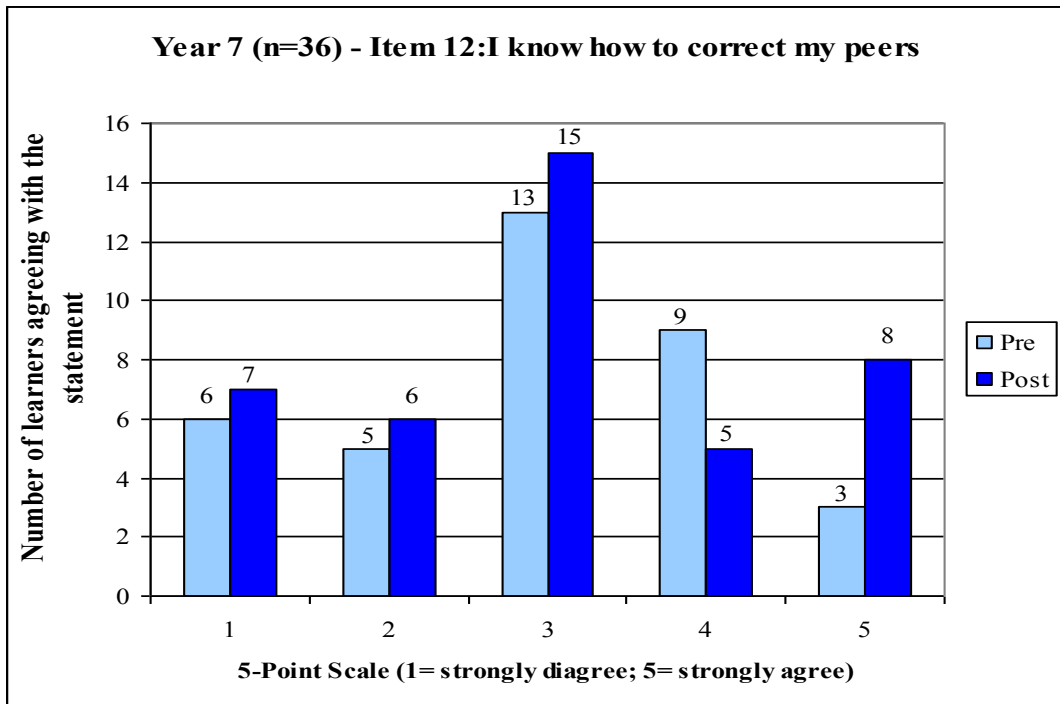
Figure 6.6 The Year 8 learners' perceptions of knowing how to correct peers
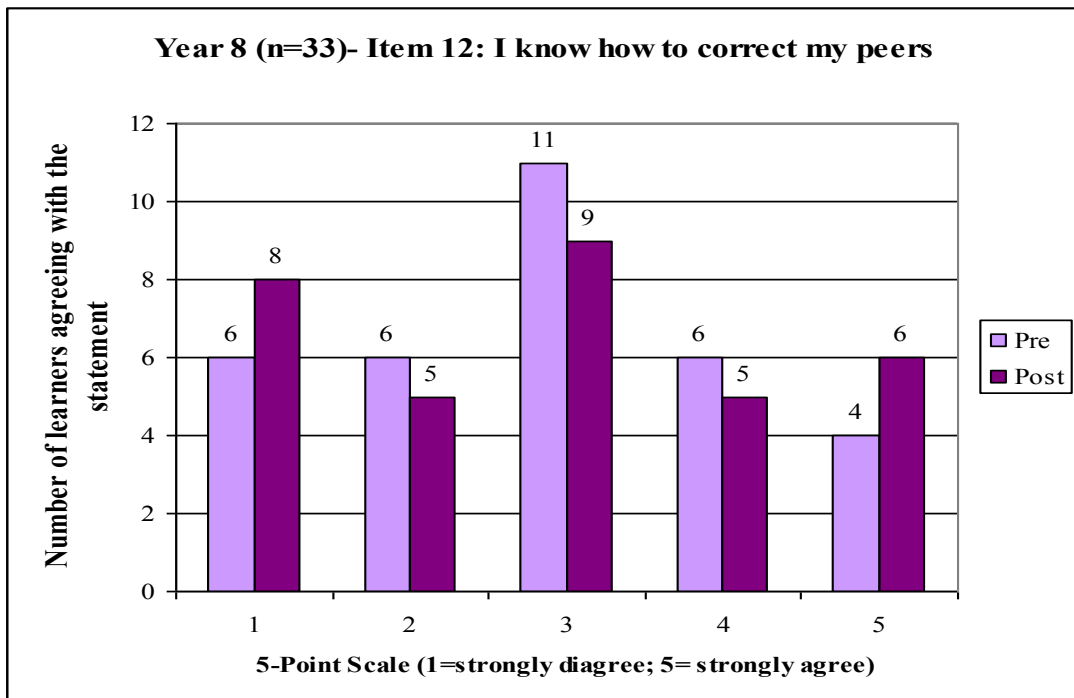
The results of the frequency analysis on Item 17 for each of the classes are shown in Figures 6.7-6.8 respectively. For Year 7 class, the learners preferred to receive more teacher feedback than peer feedback in both the pre- and post-questionnaires. In the post-questionnaire, the number of learners in favour of teacher feedback (n=18) was twice as much as that in favour of peer feedback (n=9). The results show that teacher feedback was more popular than peer feedback with the Year 7 learners. After the quasi-experiment, this pattern showing the learners' preference for teacher feedback was even clearer.

Figure 6.7 The Year 7 learners' preference for either teacher or peer feedback
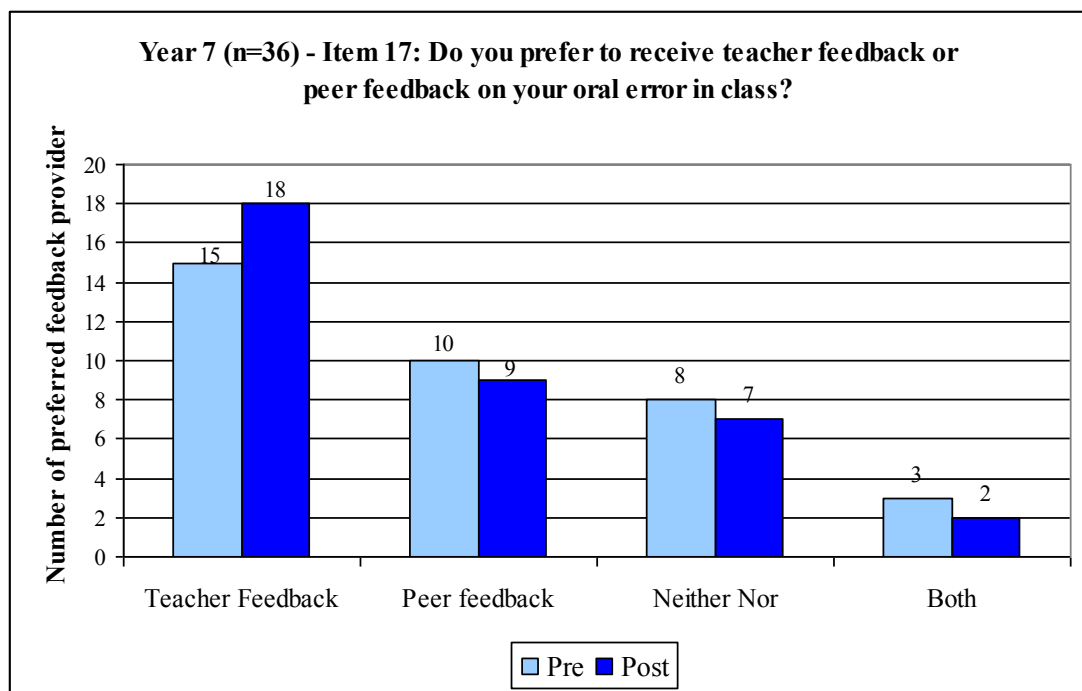
For the Year 8 class (see Figure 6.8 below), the results show that teacher feedback (n=12) and peer feedback (n=12) were equally popular with the learners in the pre-questionnaire. However, after the quasi-experiment, teacher feedback (n=16) appeared to be more popular than peer feedback (n=9). The results suggest that with the experience of peer feedback in the six English speaking lessons, the Year 8 learners liked peer feedback less but teacher feedback more.

Figure 6.8 The Year 8 learners' preference for either teacher or peer feedback

Regarding both classes' responses to Item 17 in the pre- and post-questionnaires, the results show that more learners preferred teacher feedback to peer feedback after the quasi-experiment. However, the difference was not significant [Year 7 class: (p = .28); Year 8 class: (p = .68)], as shown in Section 6.2.7, Table 6.19.

The results of the frequency analysis on Item 18 for each of the classes are shown in Figures 6.9-6.10 respectively. For the Year 7 class, the practice of teacher feedback (n=22) was shown to be most preferred in the pre- and post-questionnaires. The number of learners preferring to see peer feedback provided by their peers (or themselves) went down from nine in the pre-questionnaire to four in the post-questionnaire.

Figure 6.9 The Year 7 learners' preference for who should provide feedback to their peers
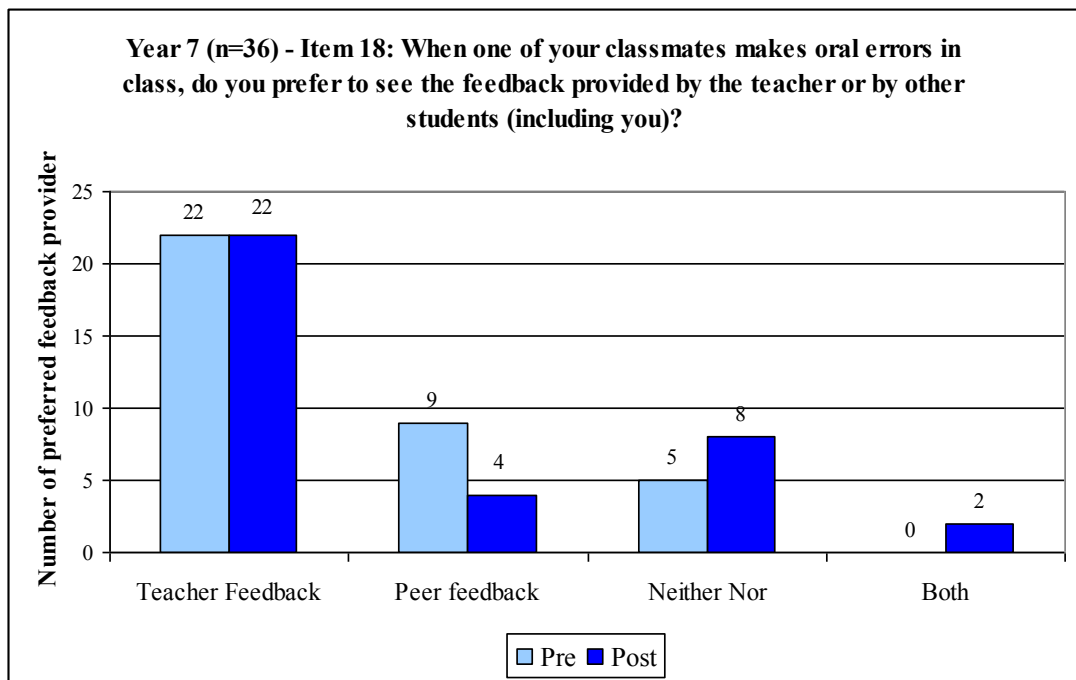
For the Year 8 class (see Figure 6.10), the number of learners preferring to see the feedback provided by teachers (n= 21) to other fellow students' errors was three times more than that by students (n= 7) in the pre-questionnaire. A similar pattern was also found in the post-questionnaire when 18 learners chose teacher feedback while only seven learners chose peer feedback to be given, in response to their classmates' errors.

Figure 6.10 The Year 8 learners' preference for who should provide feedback to their peers
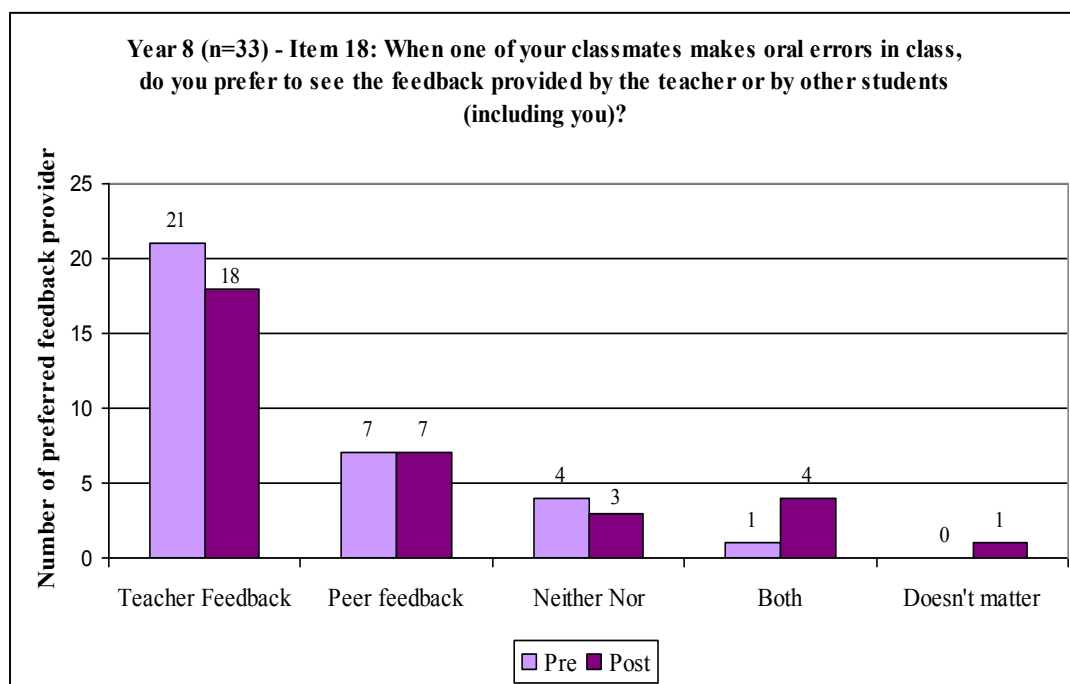
The responses of both classes to Item 18 in both pre- and post-questionnaires showed that teacher feedback was much more preferred than peer feedback. This implies that if there was teacher feedback available, most of the learners were inclined not to offer their peers feedback. Also, the learners preferred teachers over their peers to offer correction to other learners in class. All in all, teacher feedback remained prioritised over peer feedback after the quasi-experiment.
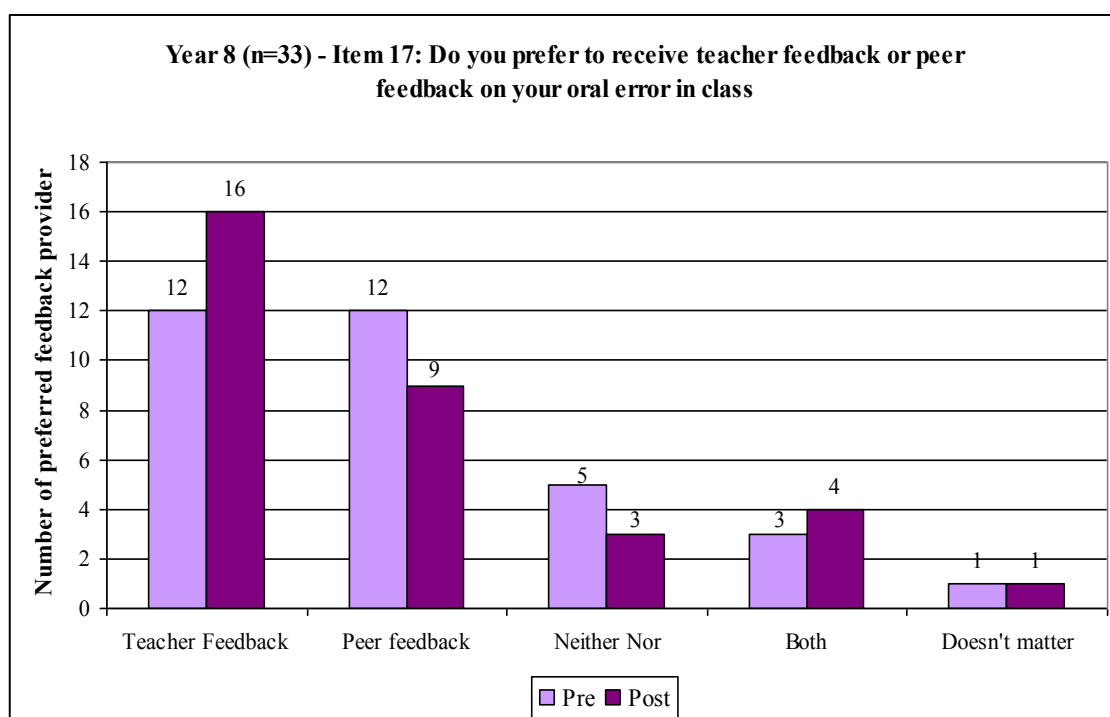
The results of the frequency analysis on Item 19 for each of the classes are shown in Figures 6.11-6.12 respectively. The results indicate that most Year 7 learners considered teacher feedback to have most effect on their learning before and after the quasi-experiment. There was only a small number of learners choosing peer-feedback to have most effect on their learning in the pre- and post-questionnaires. The number of learners who chose teacher feedback was around three times more than that of learners who chose peer feedback in both the pre- and post-questionnaires.

Figure 6.11 The Year 7 learners' views of feedback that has most effect
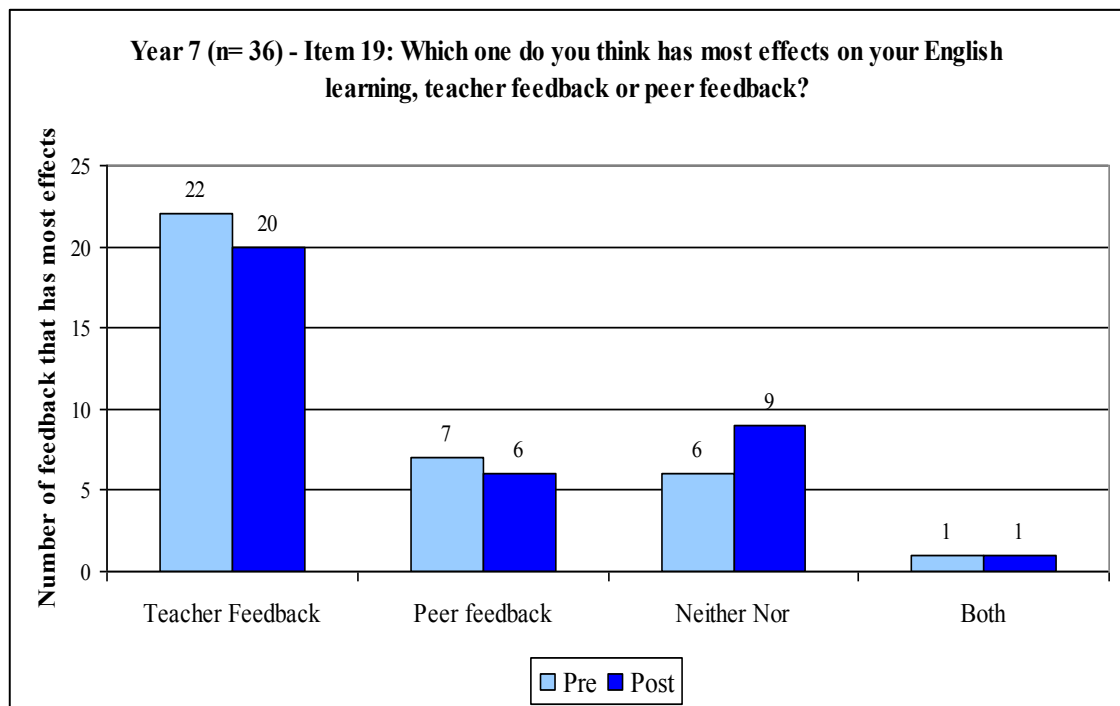
For the Year 8 class (see Figure 6.12), teacher feedback was considered by the learners to have most effect on their English learning in both the pre-and post-questionnaires, despite only a small difference in numbers of learners choosing between teacher feedback and peer feedback.

Figure 6.12 The Year 8 learners' views of feedback that has most effect
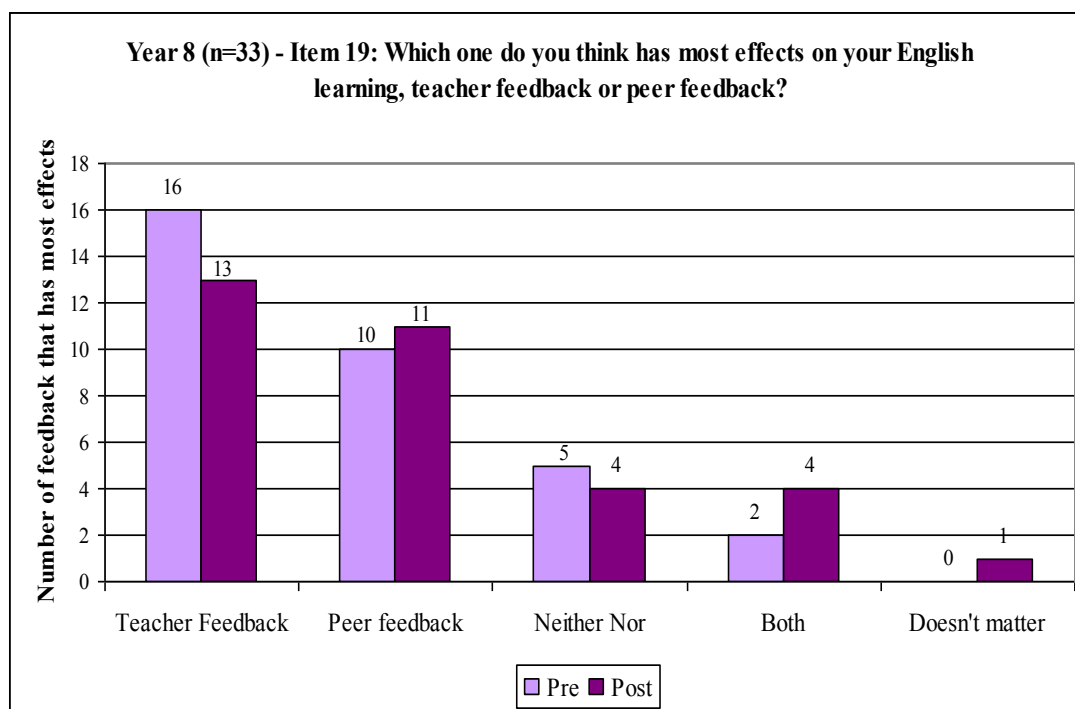
The responses from both classes, in particular the Year 7 class, to Item 19 suggest that the learners considered feedback offered by teachers to be more effective than that offered by their peers in terms of English-speaking development. Their views still remained similar after the quasi-experiment.

In summary, overall, the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' views on corrective feedback, as well as their preference towards teacher feedback over peer feedback did not change significantly after the quasi-experiment. However, there were a few interesting changes revealed from the results of the pre-and post-questionnaires. Regarding receiving feedback, the results suggest a trend indicating that after the quasi-experiment, the Year 7 learners seemed less willing to receive peer feedback

whereas the Year 8 learners seemed more willing to receive peer feedback. Regarding offering peer feedback, there seems to be a trend revealing that after the quasi-experiment, both classes seemed more willing to provide feedback to their peers. When it comes to comparing teacher feedback and peer feedback, both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners seemed to prefer to receive teacher feedback over peer feedback. Interestingly, for both classes, after the quasi-experiment, their preference for teacher feedback increased while their preference for peer feedback decreased. Also, both classes seemed to regard teacher feedback as having most effect on their English-speaking enhancement.

6.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reported the results provided by the statistical analyses on the pre- and post-tests, the pre- and post-questionnaires and pre- and post-checklists for the Year 7 and Year 8 classes. The results of the pre- and post-tests reveal that both the Year 7 and the Year 8 learners did better in the post-tests than in the pre-tests. The Year 7 learners' English speaking performance in Task One advanced significantly in the post-test, using both analytic and holistic scores. Their performance was also significantly improved in Task Two when their performance was evaluated using with a holistic rating scale. The Year 8 learners' English performance was improved significantly in Task One in the post-test for both analytic and holistic scales. However, their performance in Task Two was not shown significantly better in the post-test.

Regarding the learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English, both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners regarded their speaking skills as being better after the quasi-experiment, in particular their descriptive speaking skills (e.g. to describe a place) (reached a significant level for both classes). The Year 7 learners' self-evaluation of their speaking skills increased, although not significantly. The Year 8 learners' assessments of their own ability to speak English improved significantly after the quasi-experiment. Both classes' levels of self-confidence in speaking English did not change to a significant extent after the quasi-experiment.

Interestingly, the Year 7 learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English decreased slightly.

Regarding the learners' views on oral corrective feedback, there was no significant difference found for either class. The learners from both classes seemed to become slightly less willing to receive feedback from peers after the quasi-experiment. Moreover, the learners from both classes preferred teacher feedback over peer feedback and their preference for teacher feedback was even stronger after the quasi-experiment.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS (III): FACTORS THAT MAY CONTRIBUTE TO THE CHANGES IN LEARNERS' SPEAKING PERFORMANCE, SELF-EVALUATION OF THEIR OWN ABILITY TO SPEAK ENGLISH AND VIEWS ON ERROR CORRECTION

This chapter presents the results provided by the interviews with 28 learners (14 from the Year 7 class and 14 from the Year 8 class) in response to Research Question 6. It explores factors that may contribute to the findings as presented in Chapter 6, which includes: 1) factors pertaining to the differences in the learners' speaking progress between the pre- and post-measures (tests, questionnaires, and checklists) and factors contributing to the changes in their views on corrective feedback after the quasi-experiment.

7.1 Research Question

This chapter sets out to explore Research Question 6.

6. What factors may contribute to any changes in relation to Research Questions 3-5? Any changes, after the quasi-experiment, in:

- the learners' speaking performance in the post-test
- the learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English
- the learners' views on oral corrective feedback, peer feedback and teacher feedback

7.2 Results

The interview transcripts from both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes were analysed with content analysis (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.4 for the information about the processes of coding the transcripts). The learners' responses to the interview

questions were coded mainly based on the themes related to Research Questions 3-5 (see Appendix D3 for an example of coding procedures).

7.2.1 Factors that may contribute to changes in learners' speaking performance between the pre- and post-English speaking tests

The Year 7 Class

The results of pre- and post-tests show that overall, the Year 7 learners performed significantly better in the post-test than in the pre-test. In the one-on-one interviews immediately after the post-test, 10 out of 14 interviewees considered their performance in the post-test to be better than that in the pre-test (see Extract 1). In the following extracts, R refers to the researcher of the study, FS refers to a female learner, and MS refers to a male learner.

Extract 1

> R: What do think of your performance in the test?
> FS: I think I performed better than I did the first time [pre-test].
> R: What do you mean by 'better'?
> FS: I mean I was more familiar with the test and understood you
> [the researcher] more.

Two learners said that they did not perceive any difference in their performance between the pre- and post-tests (see Extract 2) while the remaining two learners claimed that they performed better the first time (see Extract 3).

Extract 2

> R: What do you think of your performance in the test?
> FS: Nothing special.
> R: Did you find it easy or difficult?
> FS: Neither
> R: Did you find it easier or more difficult than the first time you
> did it?
> FS: No. It's the same.

Extract 3

     R: So, what do you think of your performance?
     MS: [I was] more nervous than the first time [pre-test].
     R: Why?
     MS: I was more frightened. I was more worried that I would make mistakes.
     R: Why did you feel frightened or worried about making mistakes?
     MS: I don't know.
     R: Is it because of the English speaking lessons, me or other things?
     MS: I don't know.
     R: So do you think you performed better, worse or the same this time?
     MS: Not better. I did better the first time [pre-test].

Among the 10 learners who claimed that they made progress in the post-test, five of them attributed their speaking improvement to the tasks in the six English-speaking lessons. According to them, the English-speaking lessons created chances for them to speak English as well as to practise English with peers. Also, owing to the tasks that they did in the lessons being similar to those in the post-test, they felt that they were better-prepared for the post-test after their experiences in the lessons (see Extracts 4-5).

Extract 4

     FS: I felt I performed better than I did in the pre-test. Although I still made some pauses, I spoke more fluently.
     R: Why?
     FS: Because the English lessons pushed me to think how to express what I wanted to say. I discussed with my classmates about how to say it in English and so on. All in all, I have spoken English more frequently so now I speak more fluently.

Extract 5

     FS: I found that the second time [post-test] was easier.
     R: Can you say more about what you mean?
     FS: I felt more familiar.
     R: Familiar with what?
     FS: Because in the English lessons we encountered and talked about the same vocabulary and things.

The other five learners believed that their better performance in the post-test was a result of taking the same test for the second time. With the pre-test experience, they felt more secure and less nervous when taking the post-test. The sense of security came from familiarity with the researcher, the test, the tasks and the physical surroundings (see Extracts 6-7).

Extract 6

MS: When I first did this test three months ago, it felt really odd, because I had never done a test like this.
R: So? And?
MS: I did better this time [post-test], because I've had the experience [of the pre-test].
R: What do you mean by 'better'?
MS: I felt more confident this time.

Extract 7

FS: I felt more familiar with you [the researcher]. I felt less nervous, so I did better this time and… this place.
R: Do you mean the surroundings, this room?
FS: Yes.

The Year 8 Class

The results of pre-and post-tests show that the Year 8 learners' speaking performance progressed significantly in Task One and improved slightly in Task Two. Most of the interviewed learners (10 out of 14) claimed that they performed better in the post-test. Three learners evaluated their performance in the pre- and post-tests equally well. The remaining learner considered her performance to be worse in the post-test than in the pre-test, but, according to the remark of this learner, she seemed to, in fact, have made some progress (see Extract 8).

Extract 8

R: Why do you think that you did worse than the first time?
FS: Because I said more [to describe the picture] than I did in the pre-test. I also used more complicated sentences; hence, I did

not speak very fluently.

R: Why did you decide to take the risk?

FS: I wanted to say something different this time.

For the 10 learners who claimed to have perceived their better speaking performance in the post-test, nine of them attributed their progress to the experiences of English speaking lessons. These nine learners said that speaking practice, offered in the speaking lessons, boosted their self-confidence in speaking and increased their 'courage' to speak English in front of the class.

Extract 9

MS: I think I have made a little bit of progress.

R: A little bit of progress on what?

MS: I have become more confident at speaking English and now I am not afraid to speak in front of the whole class. I have become more willing to take risks. It's probably because of the speaking practice I did in the English speaking lessons.

One of the nine learners elaborated the abovementioned point further. He regarded his confidence boost as being a result of his realization that making errors did not matter (see Extract 10).

Extract 10

MS: I think I spoke more fluently in both tasks, because I felt less stressed. Perhaps it is because I have realized that it does not matter if you make mistakes.

R: So you think you performed better?

MS: Yes, I spoke more fluently. Last time [pre-test] I had many pauses but this time [post-test] I paused less frequently. I was not that scared.

Finally, the remaining learner believed that his progress in the post-test was thanks to his good rote memory and practice-effects (see Extract 11).

Extract 11

MS: I performed better because I had done the tasks once before; so I spoke more fluently. I still remember the tasks.

R: Right, is this the only reason?

MS: I have also become more confident at speaking English after the tasks in the English speaking lessons.

In summary, for the Year 7 class, the interview findings accord with the results provided by the pre-and post-tests. The learners attributed their better performance in the post-test to two main factors. One was associated with their experience in the six English-speaking lessons in which they were offered time and opportunities to interact with their peers in English-speaking tasks. They seemed to consider their English practice in the lessons to be an important factor that helped them to become more capable in speaking English. The other factor was related to their familiarity with the test. According to the learners, the familiarity made them less stressed in the post-test and, in turn, improved their performance.

Similarly, the Year 8 learners attributed their better speaking performance in the post-test to their confidence boost. According to them, such confidence boost came from the speaking practices they did in the six English-speaking lessons. They also attributed their progress to 'practice-effects'. They thought that their better performance in the post-test had something to do with the experience of taking the pre-test. For instance, some of the learners said that they did better in the post-test because they became more familiar with the speaking tasks.

The findings from both classes suggest that the English speaking lessons had positive impacts on the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' speaking performance in their post-tests. The speaking opportunities that were provided to learners in the English lessons seemed to be one of the main contributing factors to their development in speaking English. In addition, as a number of learners from both classes considered their progress in the post-test to result from the fact that they performed the same task a second time, this suggests that 'practice effects' may be another main factor that resulted in the differences in learners' speaking development between the pre-and post-tests.

7.2.2 Factors that may contribute to the changes in learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English

The Year 7 Class

Overall, the Year 7 learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English did not change significantly after the quasi-experiment. The results of pre- and post-checklists regarding learners' self-evaluation of their ability to speak English did not show a significant change (only a slight increase) after the quasi-experiment. The results of pre-and post-questionnaires regarding their levels of self-confidence in speaking also showed no significant difference (only a slight decline) after the quasi-experiment. However, 12 out of 14 Year 7 interviewed learners perceived some progress in speaking English after the quasi-experiment. These 12 learners perceived themselves as being more confident in speaking English (see Extract 12) and becoming more competent at English language (see Extract 13). The remaining two learners claimed that they perceived no progress in their own ability to speak English after the quasi-experiment because they still felt their usual lack of confidence at speaking English (see Extract 14).

Extract 12

R: Have you perceived any changes after the whole activity [quasi-experiment]?
FS: I suppose. Yes. I think so.
R: What kind of change?
FS: I was afraid to speak English before, but now I find it relatively more comfortable to speak English.

Extract 13

R: Have you perceived any changes after the activity [quasi-experiment], after the six English lessons?
FS: I have become less afraid to speak English.
R: Why?
FS: I wasn't able to speak English at all. I could understand and read it [English] before, but I couldn't speak. Now I can speak because, in the past weeks, I had several experiences of speaking [English] in front of the class.

Extract 14

> R: Have you perceived any changes after the whole activity [quasi-experiment]?
> FS: [I] still dare not speak [English].
> R: Why?
> FS: [I am] afraid to make errors. [Making errors] would be very 'mortifying' [embarrassing].
> R: How about your self-confidence? Increased? Decreased? Even in the slightest?
> FS: No! Not at all!

One of the 12 learners clearly pointed out what aspect of her speaking ability had improved (see Extract 15).

Extract 15

> R: Have you perceived any changes after the activity [quasi-experiment]?
> FS: Yes, my pronunciation has improved. I don't know why, I just feel this way. Perhaps it is because of the practice [speaking practice] in the lessons. I don't know.
> R: So, have you become a more confident English speaker?
> FS: Yes, because after the constant practice in the [English speaking] lessons, now I know what I say is correct. I am not afraid to speak English now so I can speak English loudly. It is not like what we did before. All we did before was just writing practice.

Five of the 12 learners considered their confidence boost in speaking English to be due to speaking practice in the six English speaking lessons. Another three learners attributed their speaking progress to peer feedback that they had received in the English speaking lessons (see Extracts 16-17). The remaining four learners did not reveal any reasons as to why they perceived their own speaking progress.

Extract 16

> R: Have you perceived any changes after the activity [quasi-experiment]?
> MS: Yes, before I understood nothing, but I have made some progress. I understand English more.

R: What has made this change?

MS: Because my classmates encouraged me. Chih-Ying Chang (pseudonym) taught me a lot. She taught me how to read and how to speak English.

R: Do you think you are more confident now? I mean, in terms of English speaking?

MS: Yes, because I am getting better at English and so I am more confident now.

Extract 17

R: Have you perceived any changes after the quasi-experiment?

FS: Yes, I've become more capable of speaking English.

R: Why?

FS: I don't know.

R: Is it because? I mean, can you think of any possible reasons?

FS: Perhaps it's because of the feedback from my classmates and an increase in my self-confidence.

The Year 7 learners' responses as shown in Extracts 16-17 (also see Extract 18 below) implied the likelihood of a positive relationship between learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English and their self-assessed ability to speak English. As a result, a correlation test on this relationship was conducted (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6, Table 6.16). The statistical results are in line with the interview findings. Learners who felt more confident at speaking English were more likely to rate their ability to speak English higher.

Extract 18

R: Have you perceived any changes after the quasi-experiment?

MS: Yes, I've become better at English.

R: What do you mean by 'better' and why?

MS: I don't know. I just know my English is better, but I don't know why.

R: Okay, so is that all? What else?

MS: I feel that my English is better now, so I have become more confident. But I don't know why my English has improved.

The Year 8 Class

For the Year 8 class, the results of pre- and post-checklists show that the learners' assessments of their own ability to speak English improved significantly after the quasi-experiment. The results of pre- and post-questionnaires show that the learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking did not change significantly (only a slight increase) after the quasi-experiment. The findings of interviews with the Year 8 learners are in line with the statistical results from the pre- and post-checklists but not as much as with the results from the pre- and post-questionnaires.

Of 14 learners, 12 claimed to have perceived that they had made progress in speaking English. The other two learners claimed that they could not perceive any change in either their self-confidence or ability to speak English after the quasi-experiment (see Extract 19).

Extract 19

R: Have you perceived any changes after the 12 weeks?
FS: No.
R: Anything? Your attitudes toward speaking English? Self-confidence? Your ability to speak English?
FS: No. I don't know. Nothing changed much.

Of the 12 learners who perceived some progress in their speaking ability, four of them claimed that they did not know the specific reason (see Extract 20). Another five of them attributed their progress to the feedback they received during group discussion and their experience of being involved in group discussions in the six English speaking lessons (see Extract 21).

Extract 20

R: Have you noticed any differences in your English speaking?
MS: Yes. I have become more confident at speaking English. [I am] less afraid to speak English now. [I am] better at speaking English now.
R: Why?
MS: It just happened; that's it. No reason.

Extract 21

> R: Have you perceived any changes after the 12 weeks?
> FS: Before I wouldn't dare to speak English in front of the class, because usually our teacher did all the talking. We had very few chances to speak and so we didn't dare to speak English at all. But now I am not that afraid.
> R: Because?
> FS: I have become less frightened to speak English now because I have been corrected by classmates. After the peer-correction experience, I realized that it was not a big deal and also I did not feel bad about it. Hence, I was less defensive about it. I also now have a larger vocabulary.
> R: Why?
> FS: Because we had a lot of discussions in the lessons and my classmates would say some words that I didn't know.

In Extract 21, the learner mentioned that after attending the six English lessons, she seemed to become less self-critical about herself making mistakes in speaking practice. This point was also mentioned by another learner (see Extract 22).

Extract 22

> R: Is there any change in your perceived ability to speak English after the … about 10 or 11 weeks?
> MS: Yes.
> R: What are the changes?
> MS: I have become less afraid to make mistakes. Because I have got to know you better. [I] know who you are now. I have become less afraid to speak and less afraid, more willing to speak more, because I had practice in the [English speaking] lessons. And other people [his peers] made mistakes as well.

Finally, the remaining three learners attributed their speaking progress specifically to the opportunities of speaking English in front of the whole class that they were given in the English lessons (see Extract 23).

Extract 23

> R: Have you perceived any changes after the 12 weeks?
> FS: My attitude towards English speaking has become better. I am less afraid [and] more confident to speak English now.
> R: Why less afraid?
> FS: It seems…perhaps it is slightly… It has something to do with the English lessons.
> R: What do you mean?
> FS: Because I did a couple of speaking presentations in front of the whole class. I know more now. So now [I have] confidence.

The dialogue shown in Extract 23 above reveals that the learner seemed more willing to speak English because of an increase in her self-confidence in speaking English and her knowledge of English language (see the final line of the dialogue). As the relationship between self-confidence in English speaking and self-evaluation of own ability to speak English was demonstrated in the Year 7 class, the relationship was also examined for the Year 8 class (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6, Table 6.16). Also see Extract 24 below to see how the learner explained the relationship between her confidence in speaking English, her motivation to speak English and the improvement in her ability to speak English.

Extract 24

> R: Have you perceived any changes after all these weeks?
> FS: I'm less nervous when I speak English now.
> R: Why?
> FS: Maybe it's because of our … those lessons [English speaking lessons]? My confidence has risen a bit because English lessons have now become more interesting.
> R: I don't quite understand you. What's the link between 'self-confidence' and 'interesting lessons'?
> FS: Because I found the presentation done by my classmates very interesting, so I found English has become more interesting, and so I become, so I start to feel like speaking English, so I have become more confident, [and] so I'm better at speaking now.

In summary, the findings of interviews with both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners regarding self-assessment of their own ability to speak English reveal that most of the learners perceived some progress in speaking English after the quasi-experiment. The learners considered this progress to be associated with their self-confidence boost and an increase in their ability to speak English. This association between learners' levels of self-confidence and evaluation of their own ability to speak English was also demonstrated by a statistical test (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6, Table 615).

The reasons provided by the learners regarding their progress in speaking English after the quasi-experiment varied. Some learners from both classes attributed their progress to the opportunities given in the English speaking lessons to practice speaking. These opportunities appeared to make them more confident at speaking English and simultaneously polish their speaking skills. Other learners from both classes appreciated the feedback that they received from their peers in the English speaking lessons. According to these learners, peer feedback enriched their knowledge of the English language and also helped them to improve their speaking skills (e.g. improving their pronunciation). Several Year 8 learners even mentioned a change in their attitude towards 'making-mistakes' in their speech. According to them, the English speaking lessons created a relaxed learning environment in which they felt adequately comfortable to speak English and, in turn, felt less anxious about making mistakes. The decline in their anxiety about making mistakes partly came from their realization that their peers also made mistakes, hence, making mistakes did not seem to be of great importance. In other words, these learners came to realise that making mistakes seemed to be acceptable and they should not have been so embarrassed about making errors.

7.2.3 Factors that may contribute to the changes in these learners' views on error correction, including peer correction and teacher correction

The Year 7 Class

The results of pre- and post-questionnaires show that the Year 7 learners' views on oral feedback, teacher feedback and peer feedback did not change significantly after the quasi-experiment (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Table 6.17 for mean values in pre-and post-questionnaires). The findings of the interviews with the Year 7 learners suggest an overall congruence with the statistical results provided by the pre-and post-questionnaires. In the interviews, nine out of 14 learners kept the same opinion about receiving oral feedback in general after the quasi-experiment. According to these learners, interactive feedback either from teachers or peers was helpful and essential for English enhancement (see Extract 25), although receiving both teacher feedback and peer feedback could embarrass them greatly (see Extract 26).

Extract 25

> R: What do you think of receiving correction when you make a speaking error?
> FS: It's common. Nothing special really. If someone points out your error, you just need to correct it. That's it. I don't mind at all.
> R: Have you always thought this way?
> FS: Yes. I don't feel nervous.
> R: So even if it's from peers?
> FS: Yes, the same. Not nervous. I learnt some new vocabulary. You get to know new words.
> R: Is there any change in your views on receiving feedback, either from teachers or peers? I mean after the six English lessons. You probably had the experience of receiving peer feedback, did you?
> FS: Yes. I was corrected by my classmates because I have a small vocabulary. It's just the same. Before or after. Nothing has changed.

Extract 26

> R: How did you feel when you were corrected by your teacher?
> MS: I felt frightened.
> R: Frightened of what?
> MS: I felt nervous.

R: You still feel nervous now?
MS: Yeah. [Being corrected is] very embarrassing.
R: [Being corrected] by teachers?
MS: Classmates too. I felt hurt. My heart was bleeding.
R: So do you prefer not to receive correction?
MS: No. They should correct me. I was just annoyed…[but] a little bit grateful. I can improve my English.

The other five learners claimed that they had different opinions about receiving oral feedback after the quasi-experiment. Two of the five learners claimed that they became less nervous when receiving feedback after their experience of six English speaking lessons. Two of the learners told that they had grown their interests in receiving and providing feedback to their peers (see Extract 27). The remaining learner expressed that he became less annoyed when receiving teacher feedback because he had experience of providing feedback to peers in the six English lessons (see Extract 28). This learner seemed to become more able to see the provision of feedback from a different point of view. With this experience, he seemed to be able to understand why his teacher had offered him corrective feedback and became less annoyed by his teacher's feedback.

Extract 27

R: Has your view on receiving oral feedback changed after all these weeks?
MS: Before, I thought that receiving correction was nothing special.
R: And now?
MS: Now I feel that I like it.
R: Why?
MS: Because I have more friends now.
R: Why is that?
MS: Because when I corrected them, or I was corrected, I would make fun of myself, a bit like...um… in a funny, idiotic way; so they found me very funny; so I have more friends now.

Extract 28

R: Do you still think the same about receiving oral feedback after our activity [the quasi-experiment]?
MS: Yes.

R: Anything different at all?

MS: I used to swear a lot in my head when Teacher Lyn (pseudonym) [his homeroom teacher] corrected me. I swear [in my head] less now.

R: Oh! [laughing] Why?

MS: Because I corrected my classmates too. They probably swore in their heads too, but…

R: But what?

MS: Nothing! Nothing! It's their right.

The Extracts 27-28 above show that several learners appeared to hold positive attitudes towards feedback they received from both teachers and peers after the quasi-experiment. These positive attitudes were also revealed in the learners' views on providing feedback to peers. Nine out of 14 learners claimed that they did not mind providing feedback to their peers (in line with the results of pre- and post-questionnaires shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figure 6.1) since they regarded their correction as being a form of assistance in improving their peers' accuracy in speaking English (see Extract 29).

Extract 29

R: Do you mind providing feedback to your classmates?

FS: No, because we should help each other.

R: Did you provide feedback to your classmates in our lessons [English speaking lessons]?

FS: Yes.

R: Was your feedback helpful?

FS: It seemed to be helpful if he could remember what I told him.

R: So did he remember what you told him?

FS: Yes. He corrected the wrong bits himself [after I corrected him]. But I am not sure [whether he remembered the correct answer] afterwards. But if I help him, he will have a competitive edge. Then he may be able to attend the state school[11] [the state high school].

On the other hand, the other five learners showed reservations about offering feedback to peers despite having previous successful experiences. Three of them

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[11] In Taiwan, the higher test scores the students can get, the higher chance they can get into the public senior high schools.

mentioned that they did not feel confident and capable enough to provide feedback (similar to results of the pre-and post-questionnaires shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figures 6.3 and 6.5) (see Extract 30). Another learner mentioned that she was afraid that she might offend her classmates; thus she was not enthusiastic about providing feedback to peers (see Extract 31). The remaining one learner mentioned that correcting peers may have a negative influence on their peers' confidence in speaking English (see Extract 32).

Extract 30

R: Do you think your classmates find your correction helpful?
FS: Yes.
R: Why do you think so?
FS: Because after my correction they fixed their own problems.
R: So how did you feel when you provided your peers with correction?
FS: I was impressed by myself and couldn't believe it. I have never thought that I was able to correct others. But really I shouldn't have corrected classmates.
R: Why shouldn't have you done that?
FS: I'm afraid I might mislead others and do them harm. My English is not good.

Extract 31

R   Do you think your peers should correct you?
FS: Yes, otherwise I would constantly make the same errors.
R: Do you think you should correct your peers?
FS: I don't know.
R: Why do you think you should receive but not provide peer correction?
FS: I'm afraid they may hate me.
R   So do you mind providing feedback to your classmates?
FS: The teacher should do it. Error correction is his/her [the teacher's] responsibility.

Extract 32

R   Why are you unwilling to provide feedback to peers?
MS: Because it [the correction] may destroy their confidence.
R: So we shouldn't correct their errors?
MS: Yes, you should [correct their errors] so that they can learn from it [the correction].

R: But haven't you just said that correction may hurt their confidence?

MS: Yes, but [we] still need to correct [their errors].

R: So will you correct their errors?

MS   No, because it [my correction] will negatively affect their confidence. Teachers can. Let teachers do it.

When the Year 7 learners were asked to make a comparison between receiving teacher feedback and receiving peer feedback, eight out of 14 learners claimed to have no preference for either teacher feedback or peer feedback. Of the eight learners, three of them said that they liked both teacher and peer feedback, as they considered both to be helpful for their English learning. Another three of the learners expressed their unwillingness to receive any feedback as they did not appreciate the direct and explicit feedback provided by their teachers and peers. The remaining two learners argued that they could not see the point of comparing whose feedback received their preference. For them, it did not matter who provided the feedback. Rather, they paid more attention to the effectiveness of the feedback itself.

There were only six learners claiming their preference for either teacher feedback or peer feedback. Three of them expressed their preference for receiving teacher feedback. According to them, teachers were more likely to provide accurate correction on their errors while peer correction might be inaccurate. The other three learners preferred to receive peer feedback as they felt less stressed when receiving peer feedback compared with teacher feedback (see Extract 33).

Extract 33

R   Do you prefer to get feedback from teachers or classmates

FS: Classmates

R: Why?

FS: Because we are friends. We hang out every day. If it's [the feedback is] from classmates, [I will feel] relatively less embarrassed. [If the feedback is from] teachers, I would be very embarrassed.

When the Year 7 learners were asked the question as to whose feedback they prefer to see being provided to a student who makes errors, teachers' or other students'

feedback (including their feedback), 11 out of 14 learners preferred teachers to provide the feedback (in line with results shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figure 6.9). These learners seemed to regard 'providing correction' as a responsibility of teachers. Also, they considered teachers to be more knowledgeable about what to correct and how to correct it.

However, the remaining three learners had different opinions. One learner thought that learners should also be provided with opportunities to practice how to offer feedback because peer feedback might be as useful as teacher feedback, not to mention, peer feedback was relatively less intimidating than teacher feedback. The other two learners expressed no preference for whose feedback should be provided on this case.

When the learners were invited to express what they thought of teacher feedback and peer feedback they had received, the 'effectiveness/usefulness' of feedback appeared to be the main indicator used by them to evaluate the feedback they received (see Extracts 34-35).

Extract 34

    R: What do you think of teacher feedback that you have received?

    FS: When my teacher corrects me, I can always remember what she told me.

    R: Why?

    FS: [I] have no idea why. As far as I can remember, when she corrected me, I remembered it [teacher correction]. Teachers have authority, so [I] need to remember [teacher correction].

Extract 35

    R: What do you think of peer feedback that you have received?

    MS: I like to receive their help. When they took correction seriously, it was very helpful. However, sometimes they were just teasing me.

    R: So was it helpful?

    MS: When they were teasing me, their correction was not helpful at all. Boys usually teased me, but girls always took peer correction one hundred per cent seriously.

R: Right, what do you mean by 'helpful'?

MS: I would remember the correct form after receiving their feedback, although sometimes I still couldn't remember it.

Finally, when learners were asked to compare effects of teacher feedback with those of peer feedback, three learners said both teacher feedback and peer feedback had equal effect on the development of their English learning. Six learners chose teacher feedback and five learners chose peer feedback. According to those who chose teacher feedback, teacher feedback was efficient in terms of helping them to remember the correct forms (e.g. grammatical forms). They further explained that teachers usually made them extremely embarrassed by correcting them in front of their classmates so that they would never forget the experience of being corrected by their teacher (see Extract 36).

Extract 36

R: Compared with teacher feedback, do you think peer feedback has more effects on your English learning? Which one has most effect?

FS: Teacher

R: Why?

FS: Because I was corrected in front of the class, I felt so embarrassed- even just now, I can still remember. Even just now I'm wondering why I was so stupid to make that mistake- And then I went home and studied harder afterwards.

R: So what exactly do you mean? Why do you think teacher feedback has most effect on your learning?

FS: Because it [teacher feedback] makes you remember the error you made.

Of the five learners who considered peer feedback to have most effect, two of them mentioned that they did not feel nervous about getting peer feedback. Hence, it was not difficult for them to remember what their peers had told them. Meanwhile, they said that their teacher tended to correct them in a harsh manner which made them too nervous to remember what the teacher has said or even to know how to react to the feedback. Another two learners said that feedback from female classmates was really helpful because female classmates usually offered good and accurate feedback.

Moreover, the frequency of receiving feedback from female classmates in the six English speaking lessons was higher than receiving feedback from their teachers in their normal English classes. The remaining learner said that she learnt much more from peer feedback than teacher feedback since her peers corrected every error she made. Her teacher only corrected her when she made an error which was related to the focus of the lesson (e.g. a grammatical error which is related to the grammatical point that the learners are learning) (see Extract 37).

Extract 37

    R: Which one do you think is more effective, teacher feedback or peer feedback?

    FS: Peer feedback

    R: Why?

    FS: Because my teacher usually provides us with feedback on our errors which are related to the grammatical rules that we are learning at the moment. So she provides us with very limited feedback. But my classmates are different. They do not restrict their feedback only on the errors that are related to the grammatical points shown in our textbook. They corrected everything. Also, since we are learning the grammatical points listed in our textbook, it is less likely for us to make an error related to these grammatical points. It is more likely for us to make errors that are unrelated to the things that we are learning at the moment or have already learned but have forgotten. So, you get to learn more from peer feedback.

The Year 7 learners' responses to the interview questions as shown in the extracts above indicate that some of them noticed the differences between teacher feedback and peer feedback they had received. For instance, teacher feedback seemed to make them more embarrassed compared with peer feedback they experienced (see Extract 33 above). In addition, compared with peer feedback, teacher feedback seemed to be more focused on the linguistic points they were learning at the moment (see Extract 37 above). Also, teacher feedback was more trustworthy for them than peer feedback as they presumed that teachers were more competent than their peers (see Extract 38). Moreover, teachers tended to use different feedback techniques from those that their peers used (see Extract 39). Finally, teacher feedback was different from peer

feedback because of a fundamental difference between the 'teacher-to-student' interaction and the 'student-to-student' interaction (see Extract 40).

Extract 38

R: Compared with teacher feedback, do you prefer to receive peer feedback more or vice versa?

FS: I liked both.

R: Are they the same to you?

FS: They are both effective but receiving teacher feedback makes me more embarrassed. Teachers are intimidating but my classmates are more gentle. But I can learn more from teacher feedback. Feedback provided by my classmates might be wrong.

Extract 39

R: What's the difference between teacher feedback and peer feedback?

FS: My teacher usually provides me with some prompts when I make an error, but my classmates usually just shout at me, for example, sometimes I forget to add 's' endings for third person singular verbs, they would say 'add s' in a sudden and loud manner, which scares me.

R: So how did you feel then?

FS: I was shocked, but I have remembered that ever since and never made the same error again.

R: Has your teacher ever done the same to you?

FS: No [laughing], if my teacher used the same approach, I would suspect that something is wrong with her.

Extract 40

R: How do you normally feel when you receive teacher feedback?

FS: If my teacher didn't correct me in front of the class, I would love her very much. But, if my classmate corrected me in front of the class, I would be furious.

R: So how did you feel when your teacher corrected you in front of the class? Tell me about your experience.

FS: I didn't like my teacher's overt correction, but it was okay. But if my classmates had done so, I would have been very angry with them.

R: Can you tell me why?

FS: Because one is my teacher and the other is my classmate.

R: So?

FS:	Because it's just different. The teacher can do so, because she is the teacher. My classmates are at the same age as me, and they are my classmates after all. Therefore if they used the same way as my teacher does to correct me, I would find it quite odd.

The Year 8 class

The results of pre- and post-questionnaires reveal no significant change in Year 8 students' views on oral feedback, teacher feedback and peer feedback after the quasi-experiment. Similarly, the findings of interviews with 14 Year 8 learners suggest that the learners did not change their views on oral feedback as well as teacher feedback they had received after the quasi-experiment. Six learners claimed that they still felt embarrassed when receiving oral feedback, in particular teacher feedback. Four learners said that they still felt nothing special about receiving corrective feedback. One learner strongly expressed that he did not like receiving oral feedback at all because he found it too irritating and not helpful at all (see Extract 41). The other two [12] learners said that they could not answer the question since they had not recently received any teacher feedback. These two learners found it difficult to recall their previous experience of receiving teacher feedback and to notice any changes in their views on teacher feedback after the quasi-experiment.

Extract 41

R	Have you noticed any changes in your views on oral feedback, including teacher feedback and peer feedback?
MS:	I still don't like to be corrected.
R:	Why not?
MS:	My teacher is very harsh and her correction is not useful.
R	How about peer feedback?
MS:	It's not useful either. I didn't learn from their feedback either. I didn't remember what they said to me. It was just too difficult for me to remember what they said; so I still don't know how to express what I intend to say in English.

However, eight out of 14 learners claimed that they changed their views on peer feedback after having the six English speaking lessons. Five out of the eight learners

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[12] Of the 14 Year 8 learners who participated in the interview, one of the learners was not asked the question as to their views on teacher feedback because the researcher forgot to ask her this question.

expressed their surprise about the effectiveness of peer feedback that they had received in the English lessons (see Extract 42). Another two learners claimed to have developed a better impression of peer feedback after they experienced good interaction with their peers in the English lessons (see Extract 43). The remaining learner said that she increased her willingness to provide correction to other classmates after the quasi-experiment. She thought that her English enhancement resulted from receiving peer feedback in the English lessons (see Extract 44).

Extract 42

R   Do you still think of peer-correction in a similar way now?
MS: I gave it a three but now I give it a four on a scale of five.
R: Why?
MS: I thought it was not useful, but after the English speaking lessons I find it quite helpful.
R: Helpful for your…?
MS: Because now we spend most our time together, so whenever I make a mistake, he can notice it very quickly. Maybe it's because his seat is next to mine; he spots my errors quite often.

Extract 43

MS: I like peer feedback better now.
R: The reasons are?
MS: Because they made mistakes and I made mistakes too. They corrected me and I corrected them as well.
R: So? What do you mean?
MS: Because we helped each other. Because I enjoyed our mutual assistance when we were discussing.

Extract 44

FS: I used to be reluctant to tell my classmates that they made a mistake, but now I will tell them if they make any mistakes.
R: Why?
FS: Because now my English has improved, I can point out their errors now. Before I wasn't sure whether I was right and so I dared not to point out their errors.
R: When did you start to notice that your English has improved?
FS: Last week when we had the lesson [the English speaking lesson].

Regarding Year 8 learners' views on providing feedback to their peers, 10 out of 11[13] learners expressed their willingness to offer correction to their peers (aligned to the results of the pre-and post-questionnaires shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figure 6.2). According to these learners, they were happy to see their classmates developing English-speaking ability after receiving peer feedback. Another learner had a slightly different opinion. She emphasised that she was only willing to provide feedback to those who would appreciate the peer feedback they received as she saw no point in offering help to someone who did not request it (see Extract 45).

Extract 45

> R: Do you mind offering feedback to your peers?
> FS: Well, it depends. It depends on who I am correcting. If he can't be bothered to listen to me, does not care about my feedback, [or] does not want to make any effort to open his mouth [to speak English], I can't be bothered to help him either. My feedback will be no use to him.

When the 11[14] learners were asked to evaluate the feedback that they had provided to their peers, five of them seemed to be clear about the effectiveness of their feedback and confident about the benefit of the feedback they provided (see Extract 46). On the other hand, the other six learners did not seem sufficiently confident to provide feedback to their peers. Three of them claimed that they did not feel capable to offer correction because they did not think that their English was good enough. The other three learners said that offering feedback to peers was totally out of their comfort zone. According to them, it was not only because they were unsure about their own ability in offering correct feedback but also because they were not used to performing the role of providing feedback to fellow students (see Extract 47).

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[13] There were 14 Year 8 learners participating in the interviews, but three of them were not asked this question. Thus, the findings of interviews relating to providing feedback to peers were only based on the responses from 11 Year 8 learners.

[14] There were 14 Year 8 learners participating in the interviews, but three of them were not asked this question. Thus, the findings of interviews relating to the learners views on the feedback they provided to their peers were only based on the responses from 11 Year 8 learners.

Extract 46

> R: What do you think of the feedback you provided to your peers?
> MS: I just told him you should say 'that and that'.
> R: Did your feedback work?
> MS: Yes, he said 'Yes, I got it', and he corrected it [his error] as well.
> R: Do you think you're confident at correcting your peer's error?
> MS: Yes, because you just tell him where the error is and how to correct it. That's it. If you find him mispronouncing some words, you just need to show him how to pronounce those words [properly].

Extract 47

> R: What do you think of the feedback you offered in the English speaking lessons?
> MS: Not sure really.
> R: Do you mean you are not sure about the effectiveness of your feedback or whether you were happy doing it [correcting peers]?
> MS: I am not used to correcting my peers and my English is not good enough.
> R: What do you mean that you're not used to doing correction?
> MS: It is awkward for me to do the correction. It's awkward. I still think it's awkward to do that. Just awkward. I feel weird and uncomfortable about doing it.

Regarding the comparison between teacher feedback and peer feedback, nine out of 14 Year 8 learners claimed that they preferred to receive feedback from their peers for the following reasons. First, their peers tended to understand their learning difficulties well. Second, receiving peer feedback was less stressful and less embarrassing compared with receiving teacher feedback. Third, teacher feedback tended to be accompanied by admonition and scolding; thus receiving teacher feedback was seen by the learners as receiving punishment (see Extract 48). Lastly, the feedback technique adopted by fellow learners was preferred by the learners over those adopted by their teacher (see Extract 49).

Extract 48

> R: Are there any differences between teacher feedback and peer feedback?
> MS: Yes. The teacher would scold you.
> R: So which one do you prefer to receive? And why?
> MS: Peer feedback. It's less embarrassing and more relaxing. When my teacher spotted my errors, she would think that it is her responsibility to correct my errors. She would think that the reason why I made the error was because she did not make me understand the lesson that I should have understood. Then she would scold me. So I prefer to receive correction from peers. It's much less stressful, and because they are your friends. They are there to help you not to admonish you.

Extract 49

> R: Are there any differences between teacher feedback and peer feedback?
> MS: The teacher tends to use a variety of ways to correct you, but peers would just use the direct way to correct you. They would tell you directly that you're wrong. They would tell you the answer right away.
> R: So do you prefer to get teacher feedback or peer feedback?
> MS: Of course, it's peer feedback. I like my classmates correcting me in a direct way.

On the other hand, two other learners preferred teacher feedback as they were worried to receive incorrect correction from their peers. The remaining three learners claimed no preference for either teacher feedback or peer feedback and emphasised that as long as they received the feedback on the error they made, it did not matter who provided the feedback. The findings above suggest that learners noticed a difference between the nature of teacher feedback and that of peer feedback. Because of this difference, peer feedback appeared to be more popular with the Year 8 learners (not aligned with the results of the pre-and post-questionnaires shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figure 6.8).

As for the question of whose correction, teacher correction or peer correction, learners would like to see to be provided to a student who makes an error, 10 out of

14 learners chose teacher correction in their interviews (similar to the results of the pre- and post-questionnaires shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figure 6.10). These 10 learners revealed their concerns regarding their limited ability to offer accurate correction to peers and also considered 'offering feedback' to be teachers' responsibility (see Extract 50). The other four learners answered no preference to this question. They claimed that they were willing to help each other with English learning and hence they were happy to see both teacher feedback and peer feedback to be provided to the student who makes an error (see Extract 51).

Extract 50

    FS: I prefer my teacher to provide feedback as correcting errors is the teachers' responsibility.

    MS: I prefer my teacher to provide feedback as I might be unable to provide correct feedback.

Extract 51

    MS: I do not prefer one over the other because we [students] should help each other [with learning].

Regarding whose feedback has most effect on English learning, nine out of 14 learners agreed on teacher feedback (in line with the results of the pre-and post-questionnaires shown in Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figure 6.12). According to these nine learners, they felt obliged to pay special attention to their teacher's feedback because of the teacher's authoritative status in the classroom. This sense of obligation pushed them to remember teacher's correction, which, despite indirectly, influenced their interpretation of the effect of teacher feedback. In addition, they also believed that teacher feedback must be accurate (see Extract 52).

Extract 52

    MS: Teacher feedback has most effect on my learning because she is the teacher so I have to listen to her.

    MS: Teacher feedback has most effect on my learning because she

provides additional English knowledge relevant to the errors I make when she corrects me. My classmates would just provide me with the answer.

MS: Probably teacher feedback has most effect because peer feedback might be incorrect. But teacher feedback must be correct.

Another two learners who claimed peer feedback to be more effective said that they appreciated the fact that their peers understood their learning difficulties (see Extract 53).

Extract 53

MS: My classmates seem to know where my [language] problem is, but my teacher seems to have no idea why I make the error.
R: I don't quite understand.
MS: My classmates understand why I don't understand this or that and why I make the error. So I think peer feedback has most effect.

The other three learners who could not differentiate effect between teacher and peer feedback claimed that both had their own benefits and thus made such comparison difficult (see Extract 54).

Extract 54

FS: I can't say whose feedback has most effect. I mean both have their own good points. Teacher feedback might be more accurate and peer feedback is much less intimidating.

In summary, oral corrective feedback seemed to be appreciated by both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners in spite of its shortcomings (e.g. making learners embarrassed). According to both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners, receiving feedback from either the teacher or their peers was appreciated because both teacher feedback and peer feedback had different effects on their learning. For them, although teacher feedback seemed to embarrass them more than peer feedback, teacher feedback provided them

with accurate correction and additional linguistic knowledge. Peer feedback made them less stressed and seemed to meet their needs more effectively.

Overall, according to the learners, teacher feedback differed from peer feedback in a few ways. First, the teacher was considered to represent authority in the classroom; thus teacher feedback appeared to be more stressful, which then pushed learners to study harder to avoid being corrected by their teachers again. Second, their teachers seemed to utilise a variety of methods to correct their errors, compared with a more direct way that their peers employed. Lastly, learners seemed to understand each other's learning difficulties so that they could provide the feedback that suited each other's needs.

Regarding both the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' views on providing feedback to their peers, most of the learners expressed their willingness to offer their feedback as they saw offering correction as being a form of mutual support. However, most of them did not seem confident enough about their own English ability to provide accurate and appropriate feedback to their peers. Hence, most of the learners would like to see their peers receiving feedback from the teacher rather than from fellow learners, including themselves.

7.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has summarised the main factors that may have contributed to the difference in learners' speaking performance between the pre- and post-tests. It has also summarised the main factors pertaining to the changes in learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English. Furthermore, the chapter has presented the learners' views on receiving feedback from both teachers and peers, as well as on offering peer feedback. Overall, the findings of interviews reveal that the English speaking lessons (the intervention of the quasi-experiment) seemed to play a significant role in contributing to the changes in learners' speaking performance and their evaluation of their own ability to speak English. Most interviewees from both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes attributed these changes to speaking opportunities offered by the English speaking lessons. In addition, the opportunity of experiencing

peer feedback was also mentioned by the learners to have impacted on their English improvement as well as on their self-confidence in speaking English.

According to the learners from both classes, the positive changes that they perceived after the quasi-experiment include the development in accuracy, interactive skills as well as self-confidence in oral communication. For those who claimed to perceive negative changes in their development of English speaking after the quasi-experiment, the unpleasant experiences of receiving oral feedback they had encountered in the English lessons might be one of the main causes.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION

This chapter contains a discussion about the results of the present study, exploring types of peer feedback used by adolescent L2 learners of English as well as the impact of such feedback on their English learning. The chapter starts with a summary of the results obtained in response to the six research questions, followed by a discussion about the key findings made by this study. The seven types of peer feedback used by the Year 7 and Year 8 learners are considered, as are the motives behind their feedback behaviours. Next, there is an examination of the factors that may be associated with changes in the learners' speaking performance in the pre- and post-tests, the learners' evaluation of their ability to speak English and their views on corrective feedback. The chapter concludes with a consideration of potential limitations of this study.

8.1 Summary of the Research Findings

The summary of research findings in response to the six research questions is as follows:

1. **What feedback techniques are used by adolescent learners of L2 English in peer-led correction in two Taiwanese classrooms?**

   The adolescent learners (n=69) in this study used seven different feedback techniques: 1. translation; 2. confirmation; 3. completion; 4. explicit indication; 5. explicit correction; 6. explanation; and 7. recasts. The first three techniques are assistance-oriented, with a focus on providing support in order to facilitate communication flow. The remaining techniques (4-7) are correction-oriented, with particular attention paid to the replacement of errors with correct forms.

2. **Do these adolescent learners of L2 English favour particular feedback techniques in peer-led correction and, if so, why?**

    Yes: 'translation' and 'explicit correction' were two most frequently used feedback techniques in both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes, appearing in the 105 peer-led feedback episodes. According to the learners, providing peer feedback in a direct, explicit way helped to solve the communicative breakdown efficiently because such feedback left little room for misunderstandings. In addition, some learners also attributed their choice of using explicit correction to their personalities.

3. **What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' speaking performance after a peer-led correction treatment?**

    Overall, after the 12-week quasi-experiment, both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes performed better in the post-test than they did in the pre-test. The Year 7 learners' performance in Task One (an information-gap task) was significantly enhanced in terms of both analytic and holistic scores. In Task Two (a picture-based description task), a significant improvement was shown in holistic scores but not in analytic scores. The Year 8 learners' performance in Task One (an information-gap task) was significantly improved in both analytic and holistic scores. However, there was no significant improvement in their performance in Task Two (a sequential-pictures story-telling task) in either analytic or holistic scores.

4. **What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' perceptions of their own ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?**

    a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English after a peer-led correction treatment?

    b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' own assessments

of their ability to speak English after a peer-led correction treatment?

a. Changes in the learners' levels of self-confidence in speaking English

For both Year 7 and Year 8 classes, the results show no significant difference in their levels of self-confidence in speaking English between pre- and post-questionnaires.

b. Changes in the learners' own assessments of their ability to speak English

The Year 7 and Year 8 learners ranked their overall speaking ability higher after the quasi-experiment. However, a significant change was only demonstrated for the Year 8 class ($z = -2.08$, $p < .05$, $r = -.26$).

5. **What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on oral corrective feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?**

   a. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on peer feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

   b. What changes, if any, can be identified in these learners' views on teacher feedback after a peer-led correction treatment?

a. Changes in the learners' views on peer feedback

Overall, there was no significant change in either the Year 7 or Year 8 learners' views on peer feedback after the quasi-experiment based on the statistical results shown in Chapter 6. Based on the findings of interviews, learners from both Year 7 and Year 8 classes seemed willing to provide their peers with feedback but did not feel sufficiently confident about their own capacity to offer accurate feedback. Regarding the receipt of peer feedback, the learners' opinions varied. Some learners held positive attitudes towards getting peer feedback as they found it helpful to their English progress (e.g. to avoid making the same error again). Other learners did not find peer feedback useful nor liked the embarrassment they experienced upon receiving it.

b. Changes in the learners' views on teacher feedback

The results of pre- and post-questionnaires reveal no significant change in either the Year 7 or Year 8 learners' views on teacher feedback after the quasi-experiment. According to the learners, although receiving teacher feedback was stressful, teacher correction helped to reduce the chance of making the same errors repeatedly. In addition, teacher feedback made them study harder as they did not want to experience constant embarrassment by being corrected by their teachers. Compared with peer feedback, teacher feedback was prioritised by most of the interviewed learners from both classes because they thought that it may be more accurate. Moreover, and largely for the same reason, teacher feedback was also considered by most learners to have a more profound effect on their English learning.

6. **What may contribute to any changes in relation to Research Questions 3-5?**

a. Factors that may be associated with the difference in the learners' speaking performance between the pre- and post-tests

Learners from both classes attributed their improved speaking performance in the post-tests primarily to their experiences of having speaking practice in the English speaking lessons, peer feedback and familiarity with the tasks in the post-test.

b. Factors that may link to the differences in the learners' own assessments of their ability to speak English and in their levels of self-confidence in English speaking

English speaking lessons that provided opportunities for learners to experience peer feedback and speaking practice were considered by learners from both classes to be a major factor pertaining to their improved self-confidence. Based on the learners' responses in the interviews, there appear to be an intertwined relationship between their levels of self-confidence and their assessments of own ability to speak English. It seems that, owing to the

English speaking lessons, the learners' self-confidence in speaking English increased, which contributed to generate higher opinions about their own speaking skills. It may be possible that the learners perceived their progress in speaking English; as a result, they became more confident at doing so.

c. Factors that may lead to the difference in the learners' views on corrective feedback

Having experienced peer feedback in their English speaking lessons, some learners from both classes seemed to change their views on making errors as well as providing feedback to their peers. Other learners appeared to notice differences between the teacher feedback and peer feedback they had received. For a variety of reasons, both teacher feedback and peer feedback were welcomed by the learners. On the whole, teacher feedback was preferred by most of learners and was considered to have a more profound effect on learners' English learning because it was deemed to be more accurate than peer feedback.

There are several points in relation to the findings made by this study that are worthy of further discussion. These points include: 1) the characteristics of the feedback provided by the Year 7 and Year 8 learners to their peers in English speaking lessons; 2) the difference between the learners' perception of their own progress in speaking English and the statistical results of the pre- and post-English speaking tests; and 3) the learners' attitudes towards corrective feedback in general, as well as teacher feedback and peer feedback specifically.

8.2 Peer feedback provided by the Year 7 and Year 8 Learners

The results of this study regarding learners' feedback behaviours accord with findings made by previous studies (e.g. Morris, 2005; Ohta, 2000) which indicate that the learners were willing to help each other with the provision of feedback in the classrooms. The present study identified 105 dialogues that involved the provision of peer feedback from 12 English speaking lessons. The results show that the adolescent learners were not only willing but also capable of correcting one another. In line with

the findings made by Ohta's (2000) research with college-level learners and Morris's (2005) research with primary school learners, the study suggest that the adolescent learners may also be able to support each other with effective correction. Taking the evidence provided by these three studies into account, a trend can be identified that the offering of peer feedback in communicative tasks might not be uncommon practice for learners at primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

8.2.1 The comparison between types of teacher feedback identified in the literature and types of peer feedback identified in the present study

Although the 105 feedback episodes identified in this study might not reflect a reasonable ratio of correction and non-correction in the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' conversations, the figure appears sufficient to support a suggestion that there were seven categories of feedback types used by the learners. By comparing the feedback techniques used by the learners with the types of teacher feedback classified by previous research (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997), several interesting points have emerged. Of the seven types of peer feedback, two types of peer feedback 'recasts' (see Chapter 5, Extracts 13-14, p. 86) and 'explicit correction' (see Chapter 5, Extracts 9-10, p. 85), are considered to be similar to the teacher feedback types developed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) (see Table 8.1 on next page). Apart from these two types, it is difficult to juxtapose the remaining peer feedback types with teacher feedback types. The 'explanation' peer feedback type (see Chapter 5, Extracts 11-12, p. 85-86) best illustrates this point. Although the 'explanation' technique shares most of its characteristics with the 'meta-linguistic feedback' teacher feedback type, there is an important nuance that divides them. It is true that both 'explanation' and 'meta-linguistic feedback' provide grammatical meta-language that identifies the nature of the error. But 'meta-linguistic feedback' is delivered by teachers in an attempt to elicit the correct forms from the students (Lyster & Ranta, 1997), whereas 'explanation' offered by the learners does not appear to be undertaken with the same intention. Rather, 'explanation' seems to be used by the learners primarily in order to convince their peers to believe that what they have said is correct but not to elicit

further information or learner uptake. Simply put, the learners were inclined to use longer explanations to reassure their peers of the credibility of the feedback offered.

Table 8.1 Students' feedback techniques versus teachers' feedback types

Teacher feedback types from Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study	Student feedback types from the study
1. Recasts 2. Explicit correction	1. Recasts 2. Explicit correction
3. Meta-linguistic feedback 4. Elicitation 5. Repetition 6. Clarification	*No precise correspondents*
No precise correspondents	3. Explanation 4. Completion 5. Explicit indication 6. Translation 7. Confirmation

Discrepancy between the types of peer feedback used by the learners and the teacher feedback classifications provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997) may result from the different rationale applied by learners and teachers respectively when offering their feedback. Teachers appear to take into account their students' level of L2 proficiency in choosing the type of corrective feedback to use (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Yoshida, 2008). Moreover, teachers' choices of feedback types also involve practical constraints, such as time limitation or hectic teaching schedules (Yoshida, 2008). However, the findings of the study suggest that the adolescent learners paid less attention to the aforementioned practical constraints.

The learners in this study regarded provision of feedback as being a responsibility of their teachers (see Chapter 7, Extract 50, p. 156). Hence, they might not take into account the same considerations as their teachers when offering feedback. One of the Year 8 learners (see Chapter 7, Extract 45, p. 153), seemed to consider herself as having a right to offer feedback but being under no obligation to do so. Her response suggests that the learners may have no difficulty with the idea of offering peer

feedback but were not enthusiastic about doing so. Also, since the learners' skills in offering feedback were not fully-developed, they were unable to pay particular attention to the effects of the technique that they used in order to do so. Even though they considered the elicitation of learner uptake to be important, they might not be able to elicit their peers' modified output as skilfully as a teacher.

Comparing the types of peer feedback used by the participants with the types of teacher feedback classified by Loewen and Nabei (2007), the differences between them are readily apparent. Based on Loewen and Nabei's (ibid) classification, four types of peer feedback fall into the other-repair category, whereas only one type of peer feedback fits into the self-repair category (see Table 8.2 below). Therefore, there are two remaining types of peer feedback (translation and confirmation) classified by this study that do not fit into Loewen and Nabei's (ibid) classification. By looking at the frequency of different types of peer feedback, this pattern is shown more clearly. 55% of peer feedback (n=57) belongs to the other-repair category, whereas only 5% of peer feedback (n=5) belongs to the self-repair category. According to the findings based on the interviews, this overwhelmingly disproportionate occurrence of different peer feedback types might result from the learners' intentions in delivering feedback.

Table 8.2 The comparison between types of teacher feedback and types of peer feedback

Types of teacher feedback classified by Loewen and Nabei (2007)	Types of peer feedback classified from the study
1. Other-repair: (recasts & explicit correction) providing learners with correct forms in an either explicit or implicit manner	1. Recasts (n= 5, 5%) 2. Explicit correction (n=34, 32%) 3. Explanation (n=8, 8%) 4. Completion (n=10, 10%)
2. Self-repair: (meta-linguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, and clarification) allowing learners to reformulate their utterance after receiving feedback	5. Explicit indication (n=5, 5%)
No precise correspondents	6. Translation (n= 29, 27%) 7. Confirmation (n=14, 13%)

The findings from the interviews reveal that the learners preferred not to spend time negotiating meanings but were instead eager to solve communication problems immediately with a quick, short, one-off response (see Chapter 5, Extracts 17-18, p. 91). Some learners attributed this to their 'rush' personality (see Chapter 5, Extract 25, p. 93) or to their previous unpleasant and unsuccessful experience of being offered implicit correction (see Chapter 5, Extract 24, p. 93). Other learners ascribed it to their belief in the effectiveness of quick, direct feedback in triggering noticing (see Chapter 5, Extracts 15-16, p. 90-91). From their responses, we can see that the learners tended to deal with communication breakdowns in a hurry, partly due to their personality and partly to their belief, in quick-fix solutions to communication problems. In this vein, it is not surprising to find that 'other-repair' feedback techniques, which provide correct forms to others, were highly prioritised by these learners.

In light of SLA theories, the learners in this study appeared to have awareness that noticing is an important element in comprehension (Schmidt, 1990) and, in turn, for modified output (Swain, 1995) (see discussion in Chapter 2, Section 2.6). This implies that the learners knew, albeit not completely, what worked and what did not work in terms of providing peer feedback. Most importantly, their awareness does not seem to remain in mind only but appears to reflect their choice of feedback type during communicative interaction. In contrast with Morris's (2005) findings that fifth-grade American L2 learners of Spanish (n=46) used more implicit feedback than explicit feedback, this study discovered that explicit feedback (95%)[15] occurred far more frequently than implicit feedback (5%) [16] in the learners' peer-peer interaction.

There are three ways to explain the discrepancy between the findings made by Morris's study (2005) and the present research. One explanation may be the varying demographic characteristics (e.g. age) of the participants in the two studies. Another reason for the difference could be individual differences between the participants in

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[15] ('translation' (n=29) + 'confirmation' (n= 14) + 'completion' (n=10) + 'explicit indication' (n= 5) + 'explicit correction' (n= 34) + 'explanation' (n=8)) / 105= 95% (See Chapter 5, Figure 5.1, p. 87).
[16] 'recasts' (n=5) / 105= 5% (See Chapter 5, Figure 5.1, p. 87).

the two studies, for example, different personalities. A third possible explanation could be provided by the difference between their language learning contexts. In Morris's (2005) study, the learners were enrolled in a private Spanish immersion school in the USA and their teachers were all English-Spanish bilingual speakers, whereas the participants of this study have been learning English in an EFL learning context with their monolingual Chinese-speaking English teachers. With limited target language exposure in the FL context (Ellis, 1994), using English in communicative conversations could present a real linguistic challenge for the participants of this study. It may also challenge their confidence: a great level of confidence is needed to attempt to make conversations in a language that the speakers are not accustomed to in their communication. Furthermore, a cognitive challenge was also presented by the fact that the learners were asked to work on the task and, simultaneously, were encouraged to use the English language as a communicative tool to complete the task. It was as though they were given two tasks at once: the first being 'the task itself' and the second being 'the use of English language'.

Given that the learners might face all these challenges simultaneously during peer-peer interaction, it is understandable that most of their feedback and conversations were short and brief. In addition, we must not forget that, as Bygate (1987) said, when difficulty is perceived, learners may adopt speaking strategies to tackle the problem. For instance, they may shorten their output into single words or phrases in order to avoid errors (see Chapter 3, section 3.2.1). Both the challenges mentioned in the previous paragraph and the learner strategies discussed by Bygate (1987) may be factors related to the learners' feedback behaviours in the English speaking lessons. These factors could also be used to account for the facts that most types of peer feedback used fall into other-repair category and that a high frequency of other-repair peer feedback (55%, n= 57) was found in the 105 episodes.

The findings also reflect themes emphasised by socio-cultural theories: the impact of motives, goals and experiences on human mediated minds and actual actions (Lantolf, 2006) (see Chapter 2, Section 2.6 and Chapter 3, Section 3.2). For instance, one of

the Year 7 learners' interview responses (see Chapter 5, Extract 15, p. 90) suggest how her motives influenced her actual action when she was correcting her peers. According to the learner, her motive for providing correction was triggered by her recognition that an error had been made by her classmate. This motive was subsequently turned into the goal of making her classmate understand the correction she was going to offer. To achieve this goal, she then started to consider different kinds of strategies (the process of mediation), before finally settling on a strategy of offering her correction in a direct, explicit manner (actual action). This example shows how a link is forged between motives, goals and actions.

In terms of the link between previous experiences and actual actions, the same example (see Chapter 5, Extract 15, p. 90) can be used again to elucidate how learners' previous experience might influence their choice of techniques for giving feedback. The example shows that the learner found straightforward feedback to be successful in terms of triggering noticing and promoting comprehension based on her own previous experiences. Because of this, she decided to use the same feedback technique continuously. The example shows congruence between motives and actions and provides evidence that this adolescent learner also contemplated how to scaffold their peers effectively in interlanguage development, despite the fact that their motives might not be aligned with those of their teachers as discussed above. Applying a social-cultural perspective to the findings of this study facilitates our understanding of the complex, multi-layered thinking behind learners' feedback behaviours. It also reinforces the notion of how important it is to explore the motives and thinking processes behind actions in order to better understand peer-peer interaction.

By comparing the findings of this study with those made by Ohta (2001) and Foster and Ohta (2005), which were also derived from studies conducted in EFL contexts, some interesting similarities and differences can be seen to emerge. Ohta (2001) found that learners seem to know the right timing for delivering feedback and are willing to wait for peers to repair their errors. The present study found that most peer feedback was provided by the learners in a direct manner. According to the learners,

this was because they considered direct feedback to be more effective than indirect methods. This suggests that, despite the learners appearing to know how to make their feedback effective, they did not wait for their peers to self-repair their utterances. Moreover, although this study reveal that the learners appeared to wait for their peers to reformulate utterances, given the results that most learners' reformulated utterances were short and segmented, these results only allow the study to suggest that the learners might be happy to wait for their peers to reformulate short modified utterances but not necessarily lengthy ones.

In accordance with Foster and Ohta's study (2005), the study suggests that the learners proactively helped each other to select correct forms in the meaning-based conversations. However, the study provides little evidence to support Foster and Ohta's (2005) finding that learners support each other by expressing interest in their peers' communication. The learners of this study showed their support by assisting each other to complete their incomplete utterances by searching for Chinese-English translations and by responding to each other's confirmation requests. These forms of support appeared to be offered mainly in a responsive, rather than a pre-emptive, manner. This is unlike Foster and Ohta's (2005) observation that college-level students pre-emptively created a 'want-to-know-what-you-are-saying' atmosphere during their peer-peer conversations. Instead, in the present study, feedback interaction among the learners was mainly focused on answering the requests made by their peers.

8.2.2 Types of peer feedback that seemed to be preferred by the Year 7 and Year 8 learners

In addition to preference for the 'explicit correction' type of peer feedback (n=34, out of 105), the results of the present study also indicate that the 'translation' feedback type (n=29, out of 105) was the second most commonly used technique by the Year 7 and Year 8 learners. Of the 29 translation requests (17 from the Year 7 class and 12 from the Year 8 class), 27 were focused on lexical requests, compared with just two requests for syntactic translations. Based on the 29 peer-peer dialogues,

the learners from both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes were found to seek help with immediate Chinese-English translation constantly during their conversations. After receiving feedback from peers, the learners seemed to fill lexical gaps in their vocabulary temporarily and were then able to express further what they wanted to say. Despite the fact that the simulated real-life tasks undertaken in the English speaking lessons were tailor-made for the learners according to their linguistic abilities, some learners appeared to struggle with a significant lexical burden. This suggests that the high occurrence in the use of the 'translation' technique in peer-peer dialogues could be due to the learners' wide lexical gaps.

Regarding the types of peer feedback that the learners least preferred to use, the study reveal that 'recasts', 'explanation ' and 'explicit indication' were the three techniques employed on the fewest occasions by the learners. In the Year 7 class, 'recasts' (n=1), 'explanation' (n=1) and 'explicit indication' techniques (n=1) techniques all occurred equally infrequently. In the Year 8 class, 'recasts' and 'explicit indication' techniques (n=4) were both least used. Conversely, the evidence shown in the literature (e.g. Ellis, et al., 2001; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Zyzik & Polio, 2008) suggest 'recasts' to be the most frequently used technique by teachers. Such findings again emphasise the difference between the provision of peer feedback and teacher feedback (see Section 8.2.1). The findings of this study suggest that the adolescent learners did not tend to use the same feedback techniques that were used frequently by teachers as reported in the relevant literature (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997) (see discussion in Section 8.2.1). Moreover, even when the learners adopted a technique (e.g. recasts) commonly used by teachers as reported in the literature (e.g. Lyster and Izquierdo, 2009), they tended to use it far less frequently than the latter.

8.2.3 General discussion about the learners' feedback behaviours

The comparison between types of peer feedback and types of teacher feedback drawn above suggests that, although several types of peer feedback appear to be 'unique', the remaining types of peer feedback are similar to types of teacher feedback. This similarity might result from the fact that the learners were introduced to the types of

teacher feedback classified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) at the beginning of each of their English speaking lessons. The similarity might also be due to the learners encountering these types when receiving teacher feedback. Simply put, the similarity might result from the learners employing the same techniques that they had previously experienced while being given feedback (see Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, for their suggestion about human beings having capacity for learning the things that they have encountered).

Nevertheless, we should not interpret the learners' feedback behaviours merely as an act of mimicry. As Lantolf (2006) interprets Vygotsky's theory (1978) (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3 for more discussion), humans are able to mediate the goal with the relevant means of accomplishing an activity (referred to as "limitation") (Lantolf, 2006, p. 91). Indeed, if we do not overlook the crucial element, mediation, in the human learning process (see Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1), it becomes clear that the learners may have not simply copied the types of teacher feedback that they had been constantly reminded of during the English speaking lessons. Instead, the learners appear to have adjusted the types of feedback to suit their roles as well as their intention when deciding which feedback techniques to use. As such, the findings of the study provide us with possible insight into how the learners fine-tune their knowledge about feedback techniques, as well as into how may be applying this knowledge to practice.

Comparison between the findings of this study and those made by previous research (e.g. Foster & Ohta, 2005; Morris, 2005; Ohta, 2000, 2001) regarding learners' feedback behaviour (as discussed in Section 8.2) suggests two implications. First, the provision of peer feedback appears to be a common practice in peer-peer dialogues during group discussions. Second, there appears to be a variety of factors contributing to the learners' feedback behaviours, these factors being both culturally and socially relevant. Through such forms of interaction, the learners appear to have practised not only their English language skills but also their socialising skills. This reflects Ohta's (1994) opinion that "the classroom is viewed as a crucial language

socialising space in which students are not only acquiring grammatical competence, but also being socialised into particular norm on interaction" (p.303).

8.3 The Learners' Progress in Speaking Skills after the Quasi-experiment

8.3.1 Potential factors for the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' development in speaking skills

Echoing previous research (e.g. Mackey, 2006; Mennim, 2007; Muranoi, 2000), the findings of the present study suggest that interactive feedback may have an impact on learners' interlanguage development. The results of pre- and post-English speaking tests show that both classes performed better in the post-tests, especially in Task One and, to a lesser degree, in Task Two. The findings of the interviews with the learners, as presented in Chapter 7, reveal that peer feedback provided in the English speaking lessons might be one of the explanations for this improvement in speaking English.

Most of the learners claimed during their interviews that they appreciated peer feedback and agreed on its effectiveness in terms of preventing them from making the same mistakes again. For instance, a learner expressed her appreciation of peer feedback by saying that it made her so embarrassed that she would not want to make the same mistake again. For this reason, she concluded that receiving feedback from her classmates was effective in helping her to remember the correct form and, in turn, stopped her from repeating the same errors (see Chapter 7, Extract 39, p. 150). Interestingly, another learner considered peer feedback to be effective for the opposite reason. This learner said that receiving peer feedback was more relaxing, less embarrassing and less stressful than receiving teacher feedback and, thus, he regarded peer feedback as being effective (see Chapter 7, Extract 48, p. 155). These two examples show that even though both learners saw peer feedback as a helpful resource for their English learning, they had different explanations for supporting this claim. The first example also helps us to see that peer feedback could be considered a useful tool because of its potentially negative impact (e.g. bringing embarrassment) on the learner. In other words, the drawback of corrective feedback (e.g. embarrassment), as stressed in the literature (e.g. Truscott, 1999), is not

necessarily agreed by a learner (in the first example) in this study, who instead interpreted this drawback as a positive stimulus to her learning.

Such finding reminds us, first, that evaluation of the negative and positive effects of peer feedback requires not only the making of objective observations (e.g. looking at the test scores) but also consideration of the learners' subjective accounts. Second, it appears to be important to know how learners define negative, as well as positive, effects to ensure that such factors are not classified based solely on predefined categories provided by the literature. Finally, although the findings of this study seem to support Ohta's (2001) claim that the positive impacts of peer feedback outweigh the negative, further research on learners' views of peer feedback is still required in order to reveal the multi-layered nature of peer-peer interaction.

In addition, the findings of the interviews suggest that 'affective factors' and 'practice effects' played an influential role in the learners' speaking performance in their post-tests. In terms of affective factors, the findings echo Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model (see Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2) by showing that, in actual language use, speakers' emotional responses to the situation can affect their performance. According to the learners, being less nervous due to becoming familiar with the interlocutor (the researcher) and the tasks (see Chapter 7, Extract 1, p. 130 and Extract 7, p. 132) helped them to perform better in the post-tests. In terms of practice effects (see Chapter 7, Extract 11, p. 133), the findings align with the statement that language is learnt through experiences with others in either direct or indirect contact (Luoma, 2004). Further, the findings support the claim that learners achieve improved results when performing repeated tasks (Bygate, 2001; Lynch & Maclean, 2000). Despite this, it must not be forgotten that the practice effects have been seen as a common limitation in quasi-experiments because such experiments are likely to obscure the treatment effects (Cook & Campbell, 1979) (see Section 8.7 for further discussion about limitations of the study).

Furthermore, the findings derived from the interviews do not seem to suffice in answering the question as to why the learners performed significantly better for Task

One (an information-gap task) but not Task Two (a picture-based description task) in the post-tests. With hindsight, a potential explanation may be that the two tasks are different in nature. Task One requires learners to interact with an interlocutor (the researcher), whereas Task Two requires learners to work on their own. When the learners performed Task One, they were likely to receive certain forms of support from the interlocutor[17] (e.g. linguistic hints, emotional support), which may have made successful completion easier for them. In contrast, the learners completed Task Two by themselves without any assistance from the interlocutor. The learners also needed to produce longer utterances that involved fuller sentences, extended vocabulary and so on in order to complete Task Two. Because fulfilment of each task requires different speaking skills, it is not so surprising to find that the learners only performed significantly better in Task One, rather than in both.

The significant improvement shown in learners' performance in Task One may also have something to do with the tasks that were employed for their English speaking lessons. As most of the tasks used in the speaking lessons were designed to focus on interactive communication and demanded a great deal of group discussion, the learners encountered more opportunities to polish their communication skills and to practice forming interrogative questions. The disproportionately high emphasis on communicative tasks over descriptive tasks in the speaking lessons may help to explain why the learners did not perform significantly better in Task Two.

Another reason for the differing results could be that the three raters may have been overly harsh when assessing the learners' performance in Task Two, despite two standardisation meetings for each class being conducted before the marking process. As Task Two requires the learners to produce a narrative based on the pictures(s) without any interaction with the interlocutor, the narrative produced was the only thing that the raters focused on. As a result, the raters had more time and opportunity to notice weaknesses in the learners' utterances than when marking their

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[17] Owing to unexpected incidents occurring during the English speaking tests (see Chapter 4, Section 4.2.6), the interlocutor failed to demonstrate completely consistent behaviour throughout all the tests. To compensate for this weakness, the three raters agreed that the interlocutor's excessive support to the learner during the test would lead to score deduction for the criterion of 'interaction' in the analytic rating scheme as well as for holistic scores.

performance in Task One. Moreover, Task Two marking was completed after Task One had been marked. It is likely that the raters made a comparison between the learners' performance in Task One and Task Two but were not aware of the interlocutor's effect on the learners' better performance in Task One.

To sum up, the English speaking lessons that served as the intervention of the quasi-experiment may have contributed to the learners' better performance in the post-tests. Peer feedback, speaking practices and the effects of using repeated types of tasks were the main factors mentioned by the interviewed learners to have certain impacts on their improvement in speaking English. However, owing to the quasi-experimental design of the study, it is unlikely to exclude other factors, either expected (e.g. the increase in hours of study) or unexpected from contaminating these results. Thus, the results regarding the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' development in speaking performance must be interpreted with due caution.

8.3.2 The differences between the learners' perceptions of improvement in their ability to speak English and the results of the pre- and post-tests

When triangulating the results from the English-speaking tests, the interviews and the checklists, incongruence can be seen. This incongruence was found between the results of pre- and post-tests for Task Two (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.3) and the results of the pre- and post-checklists (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6). In the Year 7 class, the results of the pre- and post-tests for Task Two show no significant improvement for analytic scores (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.3, Table 6.7). In the Year 8 class, the results of pre- and post-tests also reveal no significant improvement (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.3, Table 6.8). However, the results of pre-and post-checklists for both classes suggest that the learners perceived significant progress in their descriptive skills in speaking (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6, Table 6.15). The interviews findings (see Chapter 7, Section 7.2.1) also suggest that most of the interviewed learners were positive about their progress in speaking performance in the post-tests. Basically, the learners seemed to perceive their own improvement in speaking skills after the quasi-experiment but their perceptions regarding their

improvement did not match entirely with the statistical results of the pre- and post-tests.

There are at least two stances that can be taken to interpret this incongruence. Based on the stance in favour of the statistical results of pre- and post-tests, the incongruence might be due to issues in using self-reported assessment. It is arguable that the learners' responses to the self-reported checklists may not be as accurate as the results of the tests. The learners may have overestimated their own progress in speaking skills. Besides, the incongruence might be due to imprecision in the interview questions. The interview question 'What do you think of your performance in the test?' could be too general to elicit specific responses to the question of whether the learners perceived progress in their own descriptive skills in speaking after the quasi-experiment. With hindsight, the interviewer (i.e. the researcher) should have asked more specific questions regarding the learners' perception of their own progress in order to obtain more detailed information. The incongruence might also be due to the limitation in sampling the interviewees. As only 28 learners were invited to the interviews, the interview findings may be inadequate to represent the views of all the learners (n= 69) from both classes.

Alternatively, based on the stance favouring the results of pre- and post-checklists and the learners' own accounts, the incongruence may result from under-evaluation of the learners' performance in the post-tests by the three raters. As discussed in Section 8.3.1, it is likely that the raters' expectation of the learners' descriptive skill in the story-telling task was too high. As a result, the learners received lower marks than they perhaps should have for their performance in the task. However, the three raters appeared to agree with each other on the marks assigned to each participant as a good level of inter-rater reliability has been demonstrated (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.2). Also, in the group discussion after the whole marking process was completed, the raters did not raise any major issues or concerns regarding either the marking schemes or the marking process.

The incongruence may also be related to the use of non-parametric methods of analyses (e.g. the Wilcoxon Signed Rank test) on the pre- and post-tests. Unlike parametric methods, non-parametric tests are less sensitive in terms of detecting a statistically significant effect (Field, 2009). In other words, it is possible that the statistical figures do not truly reflect the learners' improved performance in the post-tests.

Taken together, the findings show that there is incongruence between the learners' perception of their development in speaking English and the results of their pre- and post-tests. The incongruence suggests two possibilities. One possibility is that either the learners' subjective perceptions or the pre- and post-test assessments have misrepresented the learners' development in speaking practices. The other possibility is that both findings are valid manifestations of the learners' English development but each of them reflects only one side of the reality regarding the learners' speaking enhancement.

8.4 The Learners' Perceptions of their Progress in Speaking English Based on the Results from the Pre-and Post-Questionnaires, the Pre-and Post-Checklists and Interviews

According to the interviewed learners of both classes, the English speaking lessons were considered a positive factor in promoting their confidence for speaking English. Most of the interviewees appreciated the 'peer correction' and 'speaking practice' offered by the English speaking lessons for development of their speaking skills as well as for boosting their confidence (see Chapter 7, Extracts 15-16, p. 136). More interestingly, the provision of peer feedback as well as opportunities for modified output appear to merge to make an intertwined contribution in the change as to how the learners self-evaluated their ability and confidence in speaking English (see Section 8.7 for discussion about limitations of the study).

However, the learners' accounts do not align with the statistical results derived from the pre- and post-questionnaires nor with the pre- and post-checklists regarding the

change in the learners' self-confidence in, and self-evaluation of own ability to, speak English. The results of the pre-and post-questionnaires reveal no significant change in either class in their levels of self-confidence in speaking English (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6, Table 6.13). The results from the pre- and post-checklists show only a significant change in Year 8 learners' perceptions of their own speaking ability but not for Year 7 learners' (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6, Table 6.14).

The seemingly contradictory findings between the questionnaires, checklists and face-to-face interviews might be due to the timing of conducting the questionnaires and checklists for both classes. As the learners completed the questionnaires and checklists before taking the post-tests, they might not have realised at that time how much their English speaking ability had developed. If the learners had filled in the questionnaires and checklists after taking the post-tests, the results of the former may have reflected more accurately the learners' perception of their own progress in speaking English.

Although there is no significant improvement shown in both classes' perceptions of their own ability to speak English following the quasi-experiment, the learners seemed to self-evaluate their own English-speaking ability slightly higher in either the post-checklists or the post-questionnaires. The Year 7 learners' own assessments of their speaking ability seemed to change slightly ($z = -1.8$, $p = .07$) after the quasi-experiment. The Year 8 learners' perceptions of their confidence in speaking also slightly increased ($z = -1.9$, $p = .06$). Given that Asian students appear to be characteristically shy and humble when it comes to expressing individual achievement (Onoda, 1976), the aforementioned trend towards a significant difference shown for both classes respectively may be because the learners underestimated their own ability.

8.5 The Learners' Views on Corrective Feedback

8.5.1 The learners' views on corrective feedback in general, teacher feedback and peer feedback

By and large, no significant difference was identified in the pre- and post-questionnaires regarding the learners' views toward oral feedback, teacher feedback and peer feedback for both classes. These results match most of the learners' accounts in the interviews (see Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3). The results derived from both the questionnaires and the interviews suggest that the quasi-experiment did not change largely the learners' perception of corrective feedback, despite some learners stating that the opposite was true (see Chapter 7 Extract 27, p. 143 and Extract 42, p. 152). One explanation for these results may be that the 12-week quasi-experiment was not a sufficient duration to influence most learners' opinions on corrective feedback. Given the fact that the learners had only six English speaking lessons in which they experienced peer feedback, it is understandable that most of them retained similar views on corrective feedback in general and teacher feedback and peer feedback in particular.

The results from pre- and post-questionnaires show that the learners from both classes gave a good rating for the idea of receiving feedback in general, teacher feedback and peer feedback. As presented in Chapter 4 (Section, 4.2.5), a five-point Likert scale was employed to measure the learners' views of corrective feedback on a continuum from strongly disagree '1' to strongly agree '5' with the positive view of corrective feedback. The results reveal that, for the Year 7 class, an average rating of 'three' out of five was given to each sub-question about oral feedback in general, 'four' to those on teacher feedback and 'three' to those on peer feedback in both the pre- and post-questionnaires respectively (see Table 8.3 on next page). For the Year 8 class, an average rating of 'four' out of five was given to each sub-question about oral feedback in general as well as to those about teacher feedback and peer feedback respectively in both pre- and post-questionnaires (see Table 8.3 on next page).

Table 8.3 The mean values of the learners' responses to the questions regarding their views on oral feedback, teacher feedback and peer feedback respectively

	Oral Feedback	Oral Feedback	Teacher Feedback	Teacher Feedback	Peer Feedback	Peer Feedback
	(13 items; range:13-65)		(4 items; range 4-20)		(4 items; range 4-20)	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Year 7 (n=36)	44.6[a]	42.4[a]	15.4[b]	14.6[b]	13.1[c]	12.9[c]
Average rating on each item	3^	3^	4^	4^	3^	3^
Year 8 (n=33)	47.3[a]	47.2[a]	15.3[b]	15.9[b]	15.1[c]	15.8[c]
Average rating on each item	4^	4^	4^	4^	4^	4^

Note. [a] The number represents the mean value of the composite scores which result from summing the learners' responses to 13 questions regarding their views on oral feedback in the questionnaire.
[b] The number represents the mean value of the composite scores which result from summing the learners' responses to four questions regarding their views on teacher feedback in the questionnaire.
[c] The number represents the mean value of the composite scores which result from summing the learners responses to four questions regarding their views on peer feedback in the questionnaire.
^ The number is rounded to the nearest whole number. On the five-point Likert scale, '1' refers to a strong disagreement with the idea of thinking highly of the feedback whereas '5' refers to a strong agreement with the idea of think highly of the feedback.

Table 8.3 shows that, basically, the learners from both classes valued highly the merit of receiving error correction. This is corroborated by interview findings, which show most learners appreciated oral feedback from both teachers and peers for its positive effect on English learning (see Chapter 7, Extract 26, p. 142). This positive effect mentioned by the learners corresponds to the findings of Schulz (1996, 2001) and Shin (2008) that FL students are eager to receive correction in order to improve their accuracy in the target language. As language classrooms may be the only environment in which FL learners are able to immerse themselves in the target language (Ellis, 1994), receiving correction may be seen by them as one of the most

important ways to avoid interlanguage fossilisation. In addition, the grammar-focused instruction method received by the learners may be another factor in explaining why the learners were so keen to produce accurate output. These two explanations have been suggested by Loewen et al. (2009) to have impacts on learners' views about corrective feedback after they found that SL learners were less keen than FL learners to receive error correction.

Table 8.3 above also shows that the learners rated peer feedback almost as highly as they valued teacher feedback. This suggests that the learners, particularly the Year 8 learners, seemed to appreciate peer feedback as much as they appreciated teacher feedback (see Section 8.5.2 below for more discussion). Such findings suggest certain implications. One is that more trust should be given to adolescent learners' ability to deal with peer feedback. Adolescent learners may in fact be more capable of offering useful feedback to each other than expected. They may also be more mature than might be expected in terms of handling embarrassment while receiving correction. The other implication is that more time and more opportunities should be given to students to allow them to learn from each other's feedback. In so doing, teachers could spend less time and energy in correcting their students and, at the same time, the students become trained in knowing how to provide feedback to someone without causing hurt feelings.

8.5.2 The learners' views on the comparison between teacher feedback and peer feedback

Despite there being no significant change in the learners' preference between teacher feedback and peer feedback following the quasi-experiment, a trend can be identified revealing their accumulated preference for teacher feedback over peer feedback. The results of post-questionnaires for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes reveal an increase in the learners' preference for teacher feedback and a decrease in the learners' preference for peer feedback (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.7, Figures 6.7 & 6.8). According to the Year 7 learners' accounts in the interviews, such findings may have something to do with their unpleasant experiences of receiving peer feedback during their English speaking lessons. For instance, one learner claimed that he was

laughed at by his classmates because of the errors he made (see Chapter 7, Extract 35, p. 147). Another Year 7 learner said she was shocked by her classmate's loud and sudden correction (see Chapter 7, Extract 39, p. 150). Conversely, the increase in the Year 8 learners' preference for teacher feedback over peer feedback after the quasi-experiment was associated with mistrust of their peers' abilities to provide accurate feedback. For instance, one Year 8 learner mentioned that he was concerned about the accuracy of his classmate's feedback but considered the feedback from teachers to be decidedly accurate (see Chapter 7, Extract 52, p. 156). This concern regarding the accuracy of peer feedback was also raised by other learners from both classes. These learners doubted students' abilities (including their own ability) to offer accurate feedback to their classmates and thus claimed that they preferred to see correction done by teachers rather than by other learners or themselves (see Chapter 7, Extract 30, p. 145 for Year 7 learner's account and Extract 50, p. 156 for Year 8 learner's account).

It is worth noting that most of the learners (nine out of 13 learners: three Year 7 learners and six Year 8 learners) who claimed to lack confidence in providing correct feedback to peers were low-proficiency learners (based on the results of their term exams and the evaluation by their homeroom teachers). These low-proficiency learners tended not to believe that they were able to contribute useful feedback to their group discussions (see Chapter 7, Extract 30, p. 145). They did not seem to consider the interaction that involved the provision of peer feedback to be a part of language learning (See Chapter 7, Extracts 47, p. 154). Such findings suggest that learners with low English proficiency may be more likely to feel demotivated to engage in peer-peer communication due to low self-confidence in their language ability. Accordingly, special attention should be paid to low-proficient learners when conducting activities that involve peer-peer communicative interaction. This special attention may include, for example, ensuring that 1) low-proficiency learners get opportunities to contribute to their group discussion and 2) building up low-proficiency learners' self-confidence (see the fourth key research finding in Chapter 9, Section 9.2).

Another interesting finding is that most of the interviewed learners from both classes identified a variety of differences between the teacher feedback and peer feedback that they had encountered (see Chapter 7, Extract 37, p. 149, Extract 48, p. 155 and Extract 49, p. 155). In addition to the effectiveness and correctness of feedback, the learners noticed other fundamental differences between teacher feedback and peer feedback (see Chapter 7, Section 7.2.3). For instance, the status differences in classrooms between teachers and fellow students seem to have direct impacts on the learners' affective feelings when receiving feedback and, in turn, impose indirect impacts on the effectiveness of their uptake. Such a finding indicates that it is improper to restrict the comparison between teacher feedback and peer feedback to a single dimension (e.g. effectiveness of the feedback) because factors contributing to the results often appear to be interrelated and inseparable.

8.6 Differences in Researching Findings between the Year 7 and Year 8 Classes

As stated in Chapter 4, this study treats the Year 7 and Year 8 classes as two individual cases and has no intention to make a direct comparison between these two cases. However, when juxtaposing the two sets of research findings from each class, some interesting points arise that merit further discussion. The first point relates to frequencies of the learners' feedback behaviours in their English speaking lessons. The number of peer-feedback dialogues occurring in the Year 8 (n=67) class was almost twice that occurring in the Year 7 class (n=38). The 'explanation' feedback type occurred more often in the Year 8 learners' dialogues (10%) than in those of the Year 7 learners (3%). The 'translation' feedback type occurred far less frequently in the Year 8 class (18%) than in the Year 7 class (45%). Given the argument made in the literature (e.g. Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Oxford & Lavine, 1992; Skehan, 1989) that age, learning experience and language proficiency may impact on learners' language learning, such a finding seems reasonable.

Most of the Year 8 learners were one year older than the Year 7 learners and had one more year of learning experience than the Year 7 learners. Hence, presumably the

Year 8 learners were more advanced learners of English in terms of proficiency and skill in communication. The Year 8 learners probably had a relatively larger vocabulary and were more experienced in communicative interaction with peers than the Year 7 learners. In this vein, it appears that a finding that the Year 8 learners produced much more peer-peer conversation and needed less help with Chinese-English translation during their conversations compared with the Year 7 learners could be expected. Also, it seems reasonable to find that the Year 8 learners were more capable of providing detailed and lengthy feedback than the Year 7 learners. In other words, when offering peer feedback, the Year 8 learners were perhaps more capable of giving longer explanations to each other than the Year 7 learners. Similar findings were also revealed in Hong, Wei, Guanghua and Wanxia's (2011) study of scaffolding in teacher-student interaction in a Chinese university. They found that more advanced learners interacted with one another (e.g. to provide explanation or to request help) more frequently than less advanced learners in the problem-solving task. They further suggest that learners with higher language proficiency and more English learning experiences seem to take more responsibility for their own learning than those with lower language proficiency and less learning experiences.

The second point worth discussing relates to the difference between the Year 7 learners' and Year 8 learners' self-evaluation of their abilities to speak English after the quasi-experiment. Overall, the Year 8 learners' perceptions of their ability to speak English, including their perceptions of confidence in speaking English and their assessments of their own ability to speak English, showed a far greater improvement than the Year 7 learners' perceptions of their own ability to speak English (see Chapter 6, Section 6.2.6 for the results of the pre- and post-questionnaires and the pre- and post-checklists). As highlighted in Section 8.5.2, some of the interviewed Year 7 learners described unpleasant experiences in receiving peer feedback, such as being mocked by their classmates. In contrast, when the Year 8 learners recalled the peer feedback they had received, most had positive comments about it. It seems that receiving peer feedback is a more pleasurable experience for the Year 8 learners but a more embarrassing experience for the Year 7 learners. The responses from the learners of both classes suggest that their

experiences of receiving feedback impacted on how they perceived their own linguistic skill and self-confidence in speaking English. That is, it is possible that the Year 7 learners felt frustrated by being corrected in an overly-straightforward way by their peers, which resulted in diminishing their self-confidence. On the contrary, it is possible that the Year 8 learners gained more confidence in themselves thanks to their positive experiences of receiving constructive peer feedback.

The learners' experiences of receiving peer feedback also seem to be associated with how they self-evaluated the feedback they offered to their peers. There seems to have been a concern among the Year 7 learners about upsetting their peers while making correction. For instance, one learner mentioned that he would not correct his classmates because he did not want to destroy their self-confidence (see Chapter 7, Extract 32, p. 145). However, the Year 8 learners do not seem to have such strong concerns about affecting their classmates' confidence negatively. Most of the Year 8 learners seemed to focus on how to help each other effectively with feedback when they were asked to evaluate the feedback they had provided in the English lessons. All in all, the findings of this research suggest that the Year 8 learners held a more optimistic view both on receiving and providing peer feedback than the Year 7 learners after the quasi-experiment. One possible explanation for such a finding may be the positive nature of the peer feedback that the Year 8 learners received in the English lessons, compared to the less positive peer feedback that the Year 7 learners experienced.

Having juxtaposed two sets of research findings from the Year 7 and Year 8 classes respectively, it can be seen that the Year 8 learners seemed to engage relatively in peer-peer dialogues more than the Year 7 learners. The Year 8 learners recognised how to use peer feedback more appropriately (e.g. to avoid upsetting peers) to facilitate communication and, simultaneously, also knew better how to deal with the frustration that comes from peer correction. Unlike some of the Year 7 learners who took peer correction personally, the Year 8 learners appeared to be better at handling the embarrassment from receiving peer feedback. This implies that perhaps the research design of the study, which encouraged the learners to correct one another,

may not be completely suitable for interaction among young adolescent learners. The young adolescent learners may be cognitively able to do the tasks that required them to offer and receive peer feedback but may not be linguistically and affectively ready to tackle the challenges that emerged during peer-peer interaction. Comparing such findings with the results in previous studies (e.g. Ohta, 2001), it is worth noting that most of these studies focused on college-level or adult learners. In these studies, the researchers reported little information about confrontations between their participants during peer correction. Instead, harmony and rapport built up among their participants were usually reported as a salient finding in such research. Accordingly, more preparation for rapport building is needed when assigning tasks involving interactional feedback to young adolescent learners.

8.7 Limitations

The findings of this study are expected to be able to contribute to the understanding of peer feedback in language classrooms. However, owing to the quasi-experimental design and small sample size [n= 69 (Year 7 class, n=36 + Year 8 class, n=33)], due caution must be exercised when interpreting the research findings. The following sections will discuss the limitations of this study regarding the research design and findings.

8.7.1 Limitations of the quasi-experimental design of the study

Studies employing one-group *pretest-posttest* quasi-experimental design have three major weaknesses according to Cook and Campbell (1979). The first of these is the difficulty in purifying contributing factors. That is, it is difficult to preclude other events that might take place inside and outside the research setting (ibid). Thus, although ideally any difference between the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' speaking performance as shown by the pre- and post-tests should be associated with peer feedback, other contributing factors (e.g. an abrupt increase in home-tutoring hours) cannot be obviated.

The second major weakness is the difficulty in controlling for random fluctuations (Cook & Campbell, 1979). It is likely that random fluctuations in the learners' speaking abilities affect the association between peer feedback and their speaking performance in the post-tests. That is, it is likely that, when the learners took the pre-tests, their speaking abilities reached a consistently low point for random factors, such as a sharp reduction in studying hours. What could be expected to happen next is that their speaking performance would be perceived better in the post-tests. In other words, if a researcher either intentionally or accidentally picked a timing to do the pre-tests when both classes' speaking abilities were at low points, he or she could then capitalise upon random fluctuations to find significant differences between the pre- and post-tests. Following the same reasoning, the random fluctuations in the learners' assessments of their own ability to speak English may also be likely to have contaminated the results from pre- and post-questionnaires or pre- and post-checklists.

The third major weakness is the difficulty in avoiding the maturation effect (Cook & Campbell, 1979). The maturation effect refers to a linear relationship, either positive or negative, between the number of times of measuring things and the results of the measurement (ibid). In this vein, the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' better performance in the post-tests could be due to the positive maturation effect but have little relevance to peer feedback or speaking practice in the English speaking lessons.

Taken together, the limitations discussed above reveal the major limitations of the quasi-experiment used in this study. These limitations lead to a difficulty in suggesting a strong relationship between the English speaking lessons (the intervention) and the results of the pre-and post-measures, including the pre- and post-tests, the pre- and post-questionnaires and the pre- and post-checklists. Given the limitations, it is even more difficult to disentangle the puzzle regarding the impact of the intertwined factor (speaking practice and peer feedback) on the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' speaking progress, as well as their evaluation of their own ability to speak English (see Section 8.4). Thus, the findings of the study may be more suitable to suggest the idea of using activities involving peer correction in

language classrooms, as Cook and Campbell (1979) claimed that quasi-experimentation is commonly considered useful to introduce new ideas.

8.7.2 Limitations of data collection methods and data collection procedures

Pre- and post-tests

The use of pre- and post-testing design is controversial, although such design is commonly used in quasi-experiments (Cook & Campbell, 1979). According to Cook and Campbell (ibid), a pre-test may trigger learners' motives to learn more about the test. As a result, the learners will presumably deliver better performances in their post-tests. Following this reasoning, the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' improved performance in the post-tests may be linked to a deliberate effort to explore the tests following the pre-tests but, if so, has little to do with the English speaking lessons themselves (the intervention of the quasi-experiment).

When considering the validity of tailor-made pre- and post-tests, the nature of using one-to-one speaking tests created a threat. Since the tests for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes were conducted in a one-to-one manner, some learners took the tests after the others. These who came later to the pre-tests had opportunities to ask other classmates about their content, enabling them to come to the tests better-prepared than those who had taken the tests already. This means that it is likely that the pre-tests failed to elicit the learners' speaking performance because they did not take the pre-tests under the same circumstances.

Regarding the reliability of the tailor-made pre- and post-tests, several practical constraints made it difficult to maintain consistency while conducting them. For instance, owing to the learners' strict school time schedules, no regular time slot was allocated in which to conduct the pre-and post-tests for both the Year 7 and Year 8 classes[18]. This resulted in the fact that the learners took the tests at different times on

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[18] Some of the pre- and post-tests were conducted during weekday mornings (07.35-08.15) before the learners started their school days. A few tests were conducted during weekday afternoons (16.05-17.00), straight after the learners finished their school lessons for the day. The remaining tests were conducted during the weekday nap time at noon (12.35-13.15).

different days. Furthermore, the interlocutor with whom the learners interacted during the tests was found by the test raters to be inconsistent in providing support to the learners. For instance, the interlocutor was found to offer a great deal of support to less proficient learners, as if the interlocutor was keen not to break the communication between them. Although the interlocutor did not intend to behave inconsistently during the tests, as a consequence of her uneven support the learners did not take the tests under equal circumstances. The aforementioned inconsistencies in the implementation of the tests suggest that the test results should be interpreted with due caution. With hindsight, the researcher should have set a regular time slot (e.g. every weekday morning) within an expanded period of time for conducting the tests, instead of having three different time slots in order to have all the learners examined within two weeks. The researcher should also have had much more training about how to be a consistent interlocutor before coming to the tests.

Pre- and post-questionnaires and pre- and post-checklists

The exploratory self-completed questionnaires and checklists used in the study also have a couple of limitations. First, as both the questionnaires and the checklists were designed by the researcher, the construct validity as well as the internal reliability of both requires special scrutiny. It is possible that the questions included in either the questionnaires or the checklists were not able to reflect the concepts that the researcher intended to explore. With hindsight, the researcher should have spent more time validating the questionnaire and the checklists so that the findings from each could be used to draw inferences with much greater confidence.

Second, since the researcher was not with the learners when they completed the questionnaires and checklists, some of the questions in either may not have been fully understood by the learners. This may partly help to explain why the learners' responses to the five-point Likert-questionnaire items were clustered at the mid-point 'three'. That is, if the learners did not really understand the questions, they may have opted to choose the mid-point for convenience or to avoid being regarded as extremists (see Cohen et al., 2000). Nevertheless, the results of two pilot studies

suggested that the participants had no problem in understanding the questions in either the questionnaire or the checklists.

Third, the use of five-point Likert scales in the present study has a couple of limitations. Likert scales provide only limited information in response to Research Question 4 because the learners' responses to the questions in both the questionnaires and checklists were categorised in a crude manner. Moreover, as Likert scales do not guarantee equal intervals between the categories, the intensity of the feeling between categories cannot be inferred accurately. It is possible that one learner's 'agree' may correspond to another learner's 'strongly agree'. With hindsight, the researcher could have organised a meeting with the learners before conducting the questionnaire and the checklists. In the meeting, the researcher could have invited the learners to discuss the scale, for example, to invite the learners to consider the difference between 'agree' or 'strongly agree'. In this way, the researcher could have obtained a clearer idea of the learners' viewpoints regarding the enquiries of this study.

Interviews

As a first-time interviewer, the researcher encountered some anticipated, as well as unexpected, challenges when conducting the semi-structured interviews with the Year 7 and Year 8 learners. The first challenge arose in ensuring the smooth progress of the interviews, as pre-planned, when the learners constantly provided short, categorical answers to the questions (e.g. 'Yes', 'No', and 'I don't know'). Those learners either showed no willingness or had no idea of how to elaborate their responses. Even though probing questions were used, the effort was not rewarded with fuller answers; instead, the provision of various probing questions presented the danger of putting words in participants' mouths.

The second challenge was to be consistent at each interview, asking similar questions. Interviewing is an "evolving process" during which the interviewer may develop new insights into the phenomenon that further affects the follow-up questions (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004, p. 110); therefore, each interview with a learner was different from the others. Not all the learners were asked the same number of questions or

exactly the same questions as, where the same questions were asked, their wording was not completely identical. As the wordings of the questions varied, the questions were understood by the learners more or less differently. Hence, these interviews ended up producing slightly ambiguous answers to the interview questions and, in turn, caused trouble during the subsequent coding of the interview transcripts.

The third challenge was time management during the interviews. As mentioned above (see footnote 18, p. 190), a few post-tests were conducted after the learners' school time. The interviews that took place right after these post-tests had given very limited time for completion. This led to a situation in which the researcher rushed through the interview questions, giving inadequate time for the interviewees to contemplate before answering. In addition, there were a few cases where the learners spent too much time providing irrelevant responses to the questions, which left little time for the questions that the researcher needed to ask.

These challenges encountered by the researcher during the interviews identify the weaknesses of the interviews with regard to validity and reliability. With hindsight, to improve validity, more probing questions should have been asked. The wording of the questions should have been more precise. To improve reliability, more time for each interview should have been allocated so that both the interviewer and the interviewee could take their time completing the process. The interviewer could have written down all the questions that she improvised with during her talk with the interviewees so that she would have not forgotten to ask the remaining interviewees these questions.

Six English speaking lessons for the Year 7 and Year 8 classes respectively
The design of the six English speaking lessons for both Year 7 and Year 8 classes had two major limitations. The design encouraged the learners' communicative interaction as well as peer feedback but, at the same time, resulted in difficulty in separating the effect of the intertwined factor (peer feedback and speaking practice) on the learners' English improvement. Simply put, the design weakened the ability to identify the impact of peer feedback on the learners' English improvement. Another

limitation was revealed after observing a phenomenon occurring during the English lessons for both classes. During the lessons, several learners could be identified who appeared to struggle in finding a role during their group discussions, let alone in providing feedback to peers. These side-lined learners were primarily less proficient students, who found it hard to contribute in the group discussion. As a result, they seemed to lose their motivation and/or courage to try harder.

This observed phenomenon generated two reflexive thoughts. First, the peer feedback techniques observed during the lessons lacked equal contribution from the side-lined learners. In other words, the findings of the study regarding types of peer feedback may not exhaust all possible techniques that the learners as a whole may have used. This calls into question the internal validity of the peer feedback types that were classified. Second, these 'side-lined students' indicate their disinterest in continuing with the activities that they were given. With hindsight, the researcher should have proposed a 'timeout' when inspecting the phenomenon, so as to understand the problems and figure out the solutions. The researcher should also have asked those side-lined learners to consent for a second time to ensure their willingness to continue the research.

8.7.3 Limitations of data analysis techniques and data analysis procedures

Limitations of analyses for the pre- and post-tests, pre- and post-questionnaires and pre- and post-checklists

The rating schemes (analytic and holistic schemes) for the Year 7 and Year 8 learners' speaking performance were an adaptation of existing speaking models and rating scales (see Chapter 4, Section 4.3.1 for information about the rating schemes). Their tailor-made and exploratory nature made it hard to eschew criticism on the validity of the rating schemes employed in the study (internal validity) and the credibility of the test results to be applied to the wider population (external validity). Despite the results of standardisation meetings showing the raters' satisfaction with the applicability of the scales, more scrutiny will need to be exercised to ensure the practicality of the scales.

Non-parametric statistical tests used in the study to compare the differences between the pre- and post-measures (the tests, questionnaires and checklists) are relatively less sensitive than their parametric counterparts in detecting significant effects (Whitley & Ball, 2002). This characteristic avoids the danger of overstating the certainty of the effects of the data but may simultaneously present the risk that differences between groups, which do exist, may fail to be identified (Pallant, 2001). Thus, the discrepancies in the research data from different sources (e.g. interviews and checklists) might result from the insensibility of the non-parametric tests used in data analysis.

Limitations of content analysis for the English speaking lessons and the interview transcripts

The research data collected from the English speaking lessons and the interviews was scrutinised mainly using deductive content analysis. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classification of teacher feedback techniques was used as a guideline for classifying types of peer feedback in this study. The interview transcripts were mainly coded according to the pre-determined themes developed from the interview questions. With support from previous studies or theories, this approach helps to prevent the researcher from generating findings that have already been seen as 'common knowledge' in the field. That is, the approach makes it easier for the researcher to develop further the theory study based on previous research. However, with this top-down nature, the approach points to a danger of generating strong biased findings. There is a possibility that the researcher might be inclined to find evidence within the data in favour of the theory she follows. The researcher, even subconsciously, may be so preoccupied by the theory that she risks overlooking some important aspects of the phenomenon (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

8.7.4 Limitations of the researcher's involvement in the study

The involvement of the researcher in the study has a great amount of impact on the quality of the research findings as the research data was both collected and analysed by the researcher. As a first-time researcher conducting a quasi-experiment with the

variety of data-gathering methods involved, a few matters arose that admittedly could have been handled more appropriately (see Sections 8.7.2 & 8.7.3). Apart from the perceived limitations regarding data collection and analysis discussed above, the researcher's subjectivity that was built into the development of the study also limits the ability to conclude the research findings with certainty. In retrospect, there are two opposing thoughts on the role of the researcher as data collector as well as being the analyst of the study. One thought is that the researcher should have not been the teacher for the English speaking classes or the interlocutor in the pre- and post-tests. In this way, the researcher would have kept a distance from the data being collected, which has allowed the study to generate more objective evaluation of the research findings. The other thought is that, since the researcher collected data herself, she would presumably be more familiar with the data. Thus, she would be able to pay special attention to the details and, in turn, to reveal more fruitful information about the subject under investigation. Moreover, if we expect PhD graduates to be competent researchers who can conduct research with confidence, these experiences of collecting data may be seen as good research practice and training for the researcher.

8.8 Ethical Concerns

In addition to moral concerns raised by research associations (e.g. BERA), ethical concerns in the present study are seen as an integral part of the validity and reliability of the research for their potential positive and negative impacts on the research outcomes. Regarding positive impacts, ethical principles provide sufficient conditions for the achievement of validity and reliability in research (see International Language Testing Association, 2000)[19]. In terms of negative impacts, ethical issues may impose an obstacle to validity and reliability in research (Bridges, 2003). An incident that occurred during the pre-test process in the present study with a Year 7 student serves as a good example to explain this inextricable relationship.

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[19] According to codes of ethics and practices (International Language Testing Association (ILTA), 2000, 2005) , unethical research conduct would violate the quality of the test, that is, it is likely to lead to neither reliable nor valid results. For instance, a number of items in the codes revolve around reliability and validity, which extends the ethical issues from moral ground towards the whole quality of studies that involve language tests.

At the beginning of the pre-test with a particular Year 7 learner, the interlocutor noticed that she was extremely nervous; hence the researcher suggested a break. But the learner refused and expressed her willingness to continue the test. The test continued. This learner eventually finished the two tasks during the course of which her voice gradually became less shaky. This incident exposed the difficulty in striking a balance among ethical consideration, validity and reliability as well as showing the inextricable relationship between them.

In relation to ethical issues, with hindsight and regardless of the student's willingness to proceed, the interlocutor probably should have stopped the test in the interest of the student. This is because it might have been the case that the learner found it hard to refuse to continue the test (Wiles, Heath, Crow, & Charles, 2005). Regarding the validity of the learner's speaking performance, since the learner completed the test in a state of nervousness, the researcher cannot be certain that her speaking skills were truly demonstrated. In this sense, what was tested was simply the performance delivered by the participant under extreme and nerve-racking stress. Regarding the reliability of this test, since the test was stopped upon the interlocutor noticing that something was amiss and a break was proposed to the learner, the interlocutor's act of doing so, in itself, revealed this inconsistency; moreover, needless to say, for the remainder of the same test, the interlocutor felt obliged to pay special attention to her feelings. This special attention also might have reflected on the interlocutor's support to the learner during the reciprocal interaction, which may jeopardise further the validity of the test. Although there were only a couple of incidents like this in the dataset, it is worth discussing how easily the research could become unbalanced upon something unexpected happening. This example has shown that ethical concerns are not simply matters related to consent forms, confidentiality and the interests of the participants. Furthermore, the ethical issues in this study are closely linked to the quality of the research findings themselves.

8.9 Overall Evaluation on this Mixed-methods Study

The study aimed to explore the impacts of peer feedback on adolescent learners' development in English speaking by using a mixed-methods approach. Such an approach allowed the researcher to interpret the impacts of peer feedback from different perspectives and to appreciate its multifaceted reality (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). This approach also allowed the researcher to see the contradictory findings of the study as different pieces of a jigsaw puzzle that reflect the dynamics of peer feedback if they are pieced together in a proper way (Erzberger & Kelle, 2003). By using the mixed-method approach, the study was able to provide different interpretations for the impacts of peer feedback on adolescent learners' interlanguage development.

From a different perspective, the contradictory results found in this study raise the question of using more than one method to explore the reality under study. In a sense, no matter how assertive the researcher is about the belief in multifaceted reality requiring manifestations from diverse standpoints, at some point the researcher must make a decision on interpretation of incongruous findings. For instance, the study found incongruence between the results of pre-and post-checklists and the test results in the development of the learners' descriptive speaking skills (the results of the pre-and post-tests revealed a significant improvement in the learners' descriptive speaking skills but the results of pre-and post-tests showed no significant change in the learners' speaking performance in picture-description tasks). Here comes a decision-making point for the researcher, who needs to take either the side of subjective results derived from self-reported checklists or of objective statistical results. The eclectic attitude supported by the mixed-methods approach therefore begins to show its limitation in explaining the contradiction with full confidence. When it came to the decision of claiming whether or not the Year 7 and Year 8 learners made progress in speaking performance, the either-or choice is difficult to avoid. If a choice is made, it would contradict the original aim of the study to understand the educational phenomenon from a variety of viewpoints and not to make such a categorical judgement. By contrast, if a choice is not made, it would be difficult to justify the credibility of the study's results due to the incongruent findings

arising from use of different methods, which makes it hard to claim reliability and validity (see Hammersley, 2008).

To raise such concerns is not to find an ultimate solution but to show the dilemma faced by the researcher while making research decisions for the study. This does not mean that the stance taken in the study is indecisive. Instead, the stance of the study has been consistent in considering the educational phenomenon as a complex mixture that should not be interpreted merely in a certain fixed manner but should allow space for discussion about controversial, paradoxical findings. Besides, the study has consistently put forward the idea that understanding of the subject under investigation may not be achieved by a one-off attempt but may be enhanced through constant reflections and further enquiries. Admittedly, the aforementioned concerns constitute limitations to this study. However, if we view research as a work-in-progress process, the findings of the research should be able to provide useful information for further research on the role of peer feedback in the L2 classrooms.

8.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings of the study, exploring the possible explanations for both congruence and incongruence in the results generated by the different research methods (e.g. interviews and pre- and post-tests). The chapter has also evaluated the research findings by reflecting on limitations of the quasi-experimental design, which includes methodology, data collection and data analysis. An investigation of the ethical issues of the study has also been performed; these arose during the process of data collection that required face-to-face interaction between the researcher and the participants. Finally, it has been concluded that the contradictory findings revealed in the study can be seen as a reflection of multifaceted reality. The contradictory research findings allow us to see the impacts of peer feedback on English learning from a variety of perspectives.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSION

This chapter concludes the study and provides suggestions for future research on peer feedback in communicative interaction in the L2 classroom. The chapter starts with a review of the study, followed by an overview of the key points from the research findings. The chapter then indicates those research areas that are in need of further investigation and consideration.

9.1 Review of the Study

Most error correction studies have indicated the positive effects of corrective feedback on L2 learners' interlanguage development. From an SLA perspective, the positive effects include noticing (Schmidt, 1990), comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982), comprehensible output (Swain, 1985), proceduralisation (Anderson, 1982) and, in turn, automatisation (Anderson, 1982). From a socio-cultural perspective, the positive effects include triggering mediation (see Lantolf, 2006), eliciting scaffolding (ibid) and expansion of learners' ZPD (ibid). Such studies based on either SLA or social-cultural theories suggest many areas of intersection and overlap regarding the role of corrective interaction between teachers and students on learners' L2 development. However, few studies have experimentally explored impacts of peer feedback on learners' L2 development, while even fewer have documented individual learners' behaviours in great detail (see Chapter 2 for information regarding error correction literature).

The present study set out to investigate feedback behaviours among Taiwanese adolescent L2 learners and to relate such behaviours to their language learning. The investigation of the learners' feedback behaviours focused on exploring what feedback techniques they used in communicative speaking activities, how frequently such techniques occurred and why certain techniques seemed to be used more often by the learners. Investigation of the impacts of the learners' feedback behaviour focused on exploring changes in the learners' speaking performance after a quasi-

experiment, changes in the learners' self-evaluation of their own ability to speak English and changes in their attitudes towards corrective feedback after the quasi-experiment.

9.2 Key Research Findings

The findings of the study suggest the following key points. First of all, the study indicates that the Year 7 and Year 8 learners seemed to know the optimum condition required for making feedback efficient. The learners were found to have a clear idea of how to elicit successful uptake from their peers and tended to encourage their peers to reformulate the problematic output. Among the seven types of peer feedback classified in the study, 'other-repair' types (See Loewen & Nabei, 2007) were found to appear most frequently in the learners' communicative interaction. To put it more simply, the learners mostly tended to offer the form that they considered correct directly in response to their peers' errors. Some feedback types used by the learners were found to be similar to the types of teacher feedback classified by Lyster and Ranta (1997). However, the findings derived from interviews with learners suggest that the intention of the learners in using such techniques differed from the intention of teachers employing the same techniques (see, for example, Yoshida, 2008). Other feedback types (e.g. completion, explicit indication) used by the learners were interesting, as was the manner in which they were delivered (e.g. indicating peers' errors by shouting at them loudly or by making a joke of their peers). The reasons for the learners' feedback behaviours are varied. Individual personality triggers, the beliefs relating to effective feedback held by the learners and the state of mind of the learners at the moment that they provided feedback are all potential factors that may have contributed to the types of peer feedback employed by the learners. Such a variety of probable reasons for the learners' feedback behaviours reinforce the need to improve understanding of learners' thinking process involved in the provision of feedback. Also, it is important to become more aware of the variables that may lead to learners' choices of techniques for peer correction. With this understanding and awareness, we are then likely to be able to offer help that matches learners' needs with their learning.

Second, the study reveals complex findings regarding the effects of peer feedback on L2 learning compared with consistently positive results documented by previous empirical literature (e.g. Foster & Ohta, 2005). The findings of this study suggest that the learners' speaking performance was better in the post-test (in particular for Task One) than in the pre-test. This was supported by the learners' remarks in the interviews that they thought their speaking performance improved in the post-test. However, the results of the pre-and post-checklists, which required the learners to self-evaluate their speaking skills, reflect no significant improvement. Such discrepancies in the results between tests, checklists and interviews limit the confidence of the research to claim categorically the positive effects of peer feedback on L2 learning. A similar observation was also made when corroborating the results of the questionnaires regarding learners' self-confidence at speaking English with the findings of the interviews. The results of the questionnaires reveal that the learners perceived no significant confidence boost following the quasi-experiment. Interestingly, most of the learners' responses to the interviews suggest a positive change in their confidence level in speaking English. All in all, these aforementioned findings remind us that issues regarding the impacts of peer feedback in the L2 classroom are probably more complex than has been previously suggested by the relevant literature (e.g. Ohta, 2001). The findings also remind us to pay special attention to how we interpret 'usefulness' of peer feedback in L2 learning and, at the same time, to take a critical stance regarding the idea of promoting peer feedback in the L2 classroom.

Third, the study indicates that the learners had relatively positive attitudes towards corrective feedback in general, as well as teacher feedback and peer feedback. The learners appeared to appreciate opportunities to receive oral correction for accuracy enhancement in their English proficiency, despite the side effects (e.g. embarrassment, demotivation) of the feedback they received. When it comes to making a comparison between teacher feedback and peer feedback, the learners consistently preferred teacher feedback over peer feedback. This might result from some learners' unpleasant experiences of receiving peer feedback during the quasi-experiment, although this point was only verified by a couple of learners. Regarding

the learners' views on providing feedback to peers, the learners seemed very willing to provide their peers with feedback but were uncertain about the accuracy of the feedback they offered. Mostly for this reason, the majority of the interviewed learners considered teacher feedback to have the most effect on their learning compared with the peer feedback they had received. Such findings have two implications. One is that if we want to make peer feedback more linguistically and affectively effective, an important step in this process will be building learners' self-confidence to believe in the value of their feedback. The other is that, since peer feedback does not quite reach learners' expectations, compared with what was suggested in the literature (e.g. Swain, et al., 2002), this implies that peer feedback appears to remain supplementary to teacher feedback in language classrooms.

Fourth, according to the learners' narrative accounts provided during interview, the changes (either statistically significant or insignificant) between pre- and post-measures (including tests, questionnaires and checklists) were mostly due to speaking practices provided by the English speaking lessons. Such a finding overshadows the original purpose of the study, which sought to explore impacts of peer feedback on the learners' development of speaking skills. At the same time, this finding suggests that, for the learners who had been learning English in an EFL context, the opportunity to speak English offered by the lessons appeared to be a very interesting and unforgettable experience to them. It is then no surprise to find that the learners attributed their progress to speaking practice when they were asked to think retrospectively and reflectively about what might have contributed to their development in English speaking. The increase in opportunity to use English in communicative interaction appears to be a need that the learners may prioritise and pay special attention to. 'Peer feedback', which came along with the speaking practices in this case, then presumably became a secondary factor to the changes that they claimed they were able to perceive. Given that speaking practice was central to the needs of such learners, it becomes clear that the learners may have been able to pay closer attention to impacts of peer feedback on their learning if they had had more experience of speaking English beforehand. In this vein, learners who are more

advanced in terms of ability and experience in English speaking may benefit more from peer-peer communicative interaction.

9.3 Implications for Teaching and Learning in the EFL Classroom

The findings of the research conducted in two Taiwanese EFL classrooms suggest a number of implications for English teaching and learning in other L2 classrooms in a similar context.

First, the English speaking lessons which were employed as a treatment of the quasi-experiment could be integrated into the syllabus design for learners who have limited opportunities for speaking practices. Based on the findings of the interviews, the learners highly appreciated the opportunities provided by the lessons. Some of the learners even attributed their increased confidence and speaking enhancement to the speaking practices undertaken during the lessons. This positive feedback from the learners suggests that such English speaking lessons match the needs of the learners and may be beneficial to other L2 learners in similar learning contexts.

Second, the data collection techniques of this study (e.g. pre- and post-tests and pre- and post-checklists) could be used as supplementary methods to observe learners' learning in L2 classrooms. For instance, the pre- and post-tests on English speaking skills can be used to provide teachers with ideas as to how their students' speaking proficiency has been enhanced. Further, the pre-and post-checklists that require learners to self-evaluate their speaking ability can provide teachers with an opportunity to gain an insight into how their students perceive their own speaking skills. By using such assessment tools in addition to school examinations, teachers are able to see learners' language development in a more constructive manner. At the same time, learners gain the sense that they share responsibility for monitoring their own progress with their teachers. The data collected from these alternative assessment tools can then be viewed as learner portfolios, showing the process and product of their language learning.

Third, the findings from the interviews suggest a need to promote learners' confidence, awareness and autonomy in the EFL classroom. The findings reveal that most of the learners had neither sufficient confidence in their ability to boost their learning nor adequate awareness of the importance of being active learners in the process of language learning. Based on these findings, the learners took it for granted that planning what and how to learn was their teachers' responsibility. Some learners appeared unwilling to make any effort to share this responsibility, while the others appeared to feel unable to make any changes even though they clearly knew what changes would better suit their needs. This passive attitude by learners towards their own learning must change if we expect to see learners being positive, confident and proactive about their own studies. In order to achieve this, teachers should make an extra effort to enhance learners' confidence in their own ability to learn independently. Also, both teachers and learners should show willingness to co-construct a teaching-learning environment that allows teachers and learners to share their knowledge and opinions about teaching and learning in the classroom.

9.4 Recommendations for Further Research

In spite of the ongoing puzzle as to whether various factors contribute to the effectiveness of peer feedback in developing learners' oral communication skills, there appears to be little doubt that learners' views and reactions to the feedback are key determinants of that effectiveness. In order to suggest how learners can be made into successful communicators, we need to understand better exactly how the relationship between peer feedback, successful communication and learners' attitudes towards peer feedback in specific contexts contributes to enhancement in speaking ability. In order to achieve this, a number of areas that were not investigated in the present study need to be reviewed in future research.

First, there is a need for further research to investigate what types of errors in communicative interaction tend to generate learners' responses and what leads to these responses. In this way, the errors that learners consider necessary to be corrected to achieve effective communication can be identified. We would then be

in a better position to recommend how to tackle the mismatch between teachers' intentions and learners' needs regarding the provision of error correction (see Han, 2002).

Second, the study explored types of peer feedback used by lower secondary students only. In order to piece together the puzzle of peer-to-peer feedback behaviours, more extensive research on types of peer feedback used by learners across different age groups is needed.

Third, as the findings of this study suggest a concern about the side effects of learners' direct corrective behaviours towards their peers, another task for future research is to develop a scheme for training learners to deliver peer feedback in a more socially-appropriate manner. The scheme should centre not only on enhancing the positive effect of peer feedback on learner uptake but also on promoting various ways of encouraging peer feedback to suit the needs of different individuals. In so doing, learners might become more tactful at delivering feedback and be better aware of how to create a comfortable context for offering support to each other. Also, it may then be more likely that learners will take constructive peer feedback well without feeling too upset or embarrassed.

Fourth, as mentioned in Chapter 8, one of the main limitations of this study results from the tailor-made, exploratory data collection methods, for example, the English speaking tests, the questionnaires and the checklists. Thus, further effort will need to be placed on refinement of these data collection methods in order to elicit more accurate and detailed information regarding impacts of peer feedback on L2 learners' language learning.

9.5 Chapter Summary

In this final chapter, I have revisited the heated debates in relation to corrective feedback in the literature and argued the contribution made by this study by highlighting key points of the research findings in response to the debates within the literature. I have also suggested a number of research areas in need of further investigation and scrutiny so that the goal of helping L2 learners with their learning can be better achieved.

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APPENDIX A

DOCUMENTS OF THE RECRUITMENT PHASE

A1 Invitation Letters to Secondary Schools in Taiwan

A2 Invitation Letters to Parents

A3 Parental Consent Form

A4 Peer Feedback Research Leaflet

Appendix A1 - Invitation Letters to Secondary Schools in Taiwan

December 2009

To whom it may concern

My name is Rong-Xuan Chu, a PhD student at the Moray House School of Education in the University of Edinburgh, UK. I am writing this to invite you to participate in my research project. I am carrying out a research project under the supervision of Dr. Rosemary Douglas and Dr. Aileen Irvine. My research is concerned with impacts of peer feedback on adolescent learners' English speaking development in Taiwan. The purpose of my research is threefold. Firstly, my research aims to explore corrective feedback techniques used by students in their communicative interactions. Secondly, my research aims to examine the effectiveness of peer feedback on students' English speaking performance. Thirdly, my research aims to investigate what factors contribute to the results of first and second inquiries. I hope that the project would be of value to your school in the ways in which your school encourages students to practice English speaking for not only learning but social communication purposes.

The data collection for this research will consist of a quasi-experiment over a 12-week period, starting from April 2010 and ending in June 2010. I am hoping to invite both Year 7 and Year 8 classes to participate in this research. Both classes will be participating in pre-and post-English speaking tests, pre-and post-questionnaires, pre-, post-self-assessment checklists, and speaking workshops. Also, some of the students will be invited to one-to-one interviews.

The pre-and post-tests will take approximately 15 minutes per student. I am interested in exploring their speaking performance in the simulated communication tasks. I am NOT interested in judging their speaking performance. Also, I am NOT interested in focusing on 'right' or 'wrong' answers during the pre-and post-tests.

The questionnaire and the checklist will take approximately 10 minutes to fill in. The 45-minute workshop will be running on a weekly basis in which students will be given a speaking task and expected to have a short presentation at the end of each workshop.

I would like to seek your permission to use audio-recordings during the data gathering process. The collected data will be handled in a strictly confidential manner. All the participants will be kept anonymous in my research. An informed

consent form will be sent to the parents for approval for their children to participate in this research.

I appreciate your time in reading this letter and sincerely hope that you will participate in my research. Should you have any further inquiries, please contact me at my email: s0561426@sms.ed.ac.uk, or on my phone: 0968751867.

Your help is very much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Rong-Xuan Chu
PhD candidate
The Moray House School of Education
The University of Edinburgh
Room 1.14 St John's Land,
Holyrood Road
Edinburgh EH8 8AQ

Appendix A2 - Invitation Letters to Parents

March 2010

Dear Parent/Guardian,

Would you like to see your son/daughter having more opportunities to practice their English speaking in the junior high school? Are you interested to know how good your son/daughter is at helping his/her classmates' English speaking performance with oral feedback in the school? I am a PhD student in the Moray House School of Education at the University of Edinburgh. I am exploring the impacts of peer feedback on Taiwanese adolescent learners' English speaking performance in an attempt to understand students' corrective behaviour and thus to make suggestions for their English speaking enhancement. I hope I will have your approval for your son/daughter to participate in my research. The information of the research is as follows:

1. Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to explore impacts of peer feedback on Taiwanese learners' English speaking development. From a socio-cultural perspective, the research focuses on adolescent students' interaction for social communication purposes in the English-language classroom. From a second language acquisition perspective, the research focuses on the effectiveness of peer feedback on the students' development in English speaking performance. By conducting a quasi-experiment, I hope to better my understanding of (1) the association between peer feedback and students' learning progress and (2) their views on oral corrective feedback.

2. Procedures

The data collection for this research will consist of a quasi-experiment over a 12-week period, starting from April 2010 and ending in June 2010. The experiment involves pre-and post-English speaking tests, pre-and post-questionnaires, and pre-and post-self-assessment checklists, six English-speaking lessons and follow-up interviews. Your son/daughter will be invited to participate in the pre-measures in April and to join in the post-measures again in June. Also, some of the participants will be invited to one-on-one interview.

The pre-and post-tests will take approximately 15 minutes per student. I am interested in exploring their speaking performance in the simulated communication

tasks. I am NOT interested in judging their speaking performance. Also, I am NOT interested in focusing on 'right' or 'wrong' answers during the pre-and post-tests.

The questionnaire and the checklist will take approximately 10 minutes to fill in. The 45-minute workshop will be running on a weekly basis in which students will be given a speaking task and expected to have a short presentation at the end of each workshop.

I would like to seek your permission to use audio-recordings during the data gathering process. The collected data will be handled in a strictly confidential manner. All the participants will be kept anonymous in my research.

3. Potential Benefits

It is hoped that your child's participation in the research will provide beneficial information to the field of second/foreign language acquisition. This would also contribute to the development of English education in Taiwan. In addition, it is hoped that your child will benefit from the experience of participating in the speaking workshops. He/she is expected to have more English-speaking chances in the school so that he/she can polish his/her speaking skills. As the speaking tasks are in line with their school English learning schedule, the speaking workshops are hoped to help your child with his/her study.

4. Confidentiality

All the participants' information will be kept strictly confidential. The participants' replies to the questionnaires and checklists, their performance in the pre-and post-tests and their workshop performance will be anonymous. The participants' names will not be mentioned in any report of the completed study. All the collected data will be placed in a secure location and will be only used for my research.

5. Participation and Withdrawal

Your son's/daughter's participation in the research is completely voluntary. Apart from your approval, your child will be asked whether he/she would like to participate in the research before each data collection session. You and your child can withdraw from the study at any time without offering any explanations. If there is any discomfort caused to your child in any research session, I will end the session immediately. He/She can skip any task he/she does not wish to do. Also, he/she can skip any question he/she does not wish to answer.

6. Concerns

All the activities or tasks related to the research will offer no risk of any kind to your child. I anticipate neither mental nor physical discomfort to your son/daughter, but if the data collection process causes any stress to him/her for some reason, I'll stop the

data collection process immediately. Should you have any further questions, please contact me at email: s0561426@sms.ed.ac.uk or mobile: 0968751867

Your help is very much appreciated.

Yours Sincerely,

Rong-Xuan Chu
PhD candidate
The Moray House School of Education
The University of Edinburgh
Room 1.14 St John's Land,
Holyrood Road
Edinburgh EH8 8AQ

Parent/Guardian Informed Consent Form

Consent to Participate in the Impact of Peer Feedback on English Speaking Development Study

I, _____, the parent/legal guardian of the adolescent named below, fully understand the purpose of this research and acknowledge that the researcher, Rong-Xuan Chu, has offered to answer any questions I may have about the nature of my child's participation. I voluntarily consent to my child's participation in this research. I give my consent for the use of audio-recording during the data-gathering process.

I understand that all information collected during this research will be kept completely confidential and that every effort will be made to preserve the anonymity in relation to the data. I also understand I am entitled to keep a copy of this consent form for my own information and to withdraw from the research at any time.

Child's Name: _____

Parent's/ Guardian's Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix A4 - Peer Feedback Research Leaflet

Speaking Beautifully (English side)

Purpose of the Study
With support from the Ministry of Education in Taiwan and the Godfrey Thomson Fund, the study explores impacts of peer feedback on Taiwanese learners' English speaking development. The research hopes to better my understanding of the associatio between peer feedback and learners' English speaking progress and their views on oral corrective feedback.

Who Am I ?
My name is Rong-Xuan Chu, a PhD student at the Moray House School of Education in the University of Edinburgh, UK. I am carrying out a research project under the supervision of Dr. Rosemary Douglas and Dr. Aileen Irvine. Please contact me at
speakingbeautifully@hotmail.com

Do you have these questions?
Q: My English is not good. Can I join in the research?
A: The aim of the research is NOT at assessing your English ability. Rather, it aims to help you develop your speaking skills by receiving and offering your peers corrective feedback. No preparation is required for your participation in the research.

Q: I am worried about my personal information leaking out and my withdrawal from the study…
A: Your personal information will be kept strictly confidential. Your replies to the study will be anonymous. Your name will not be mentioned in any report of the completed study. Your participation is completely voluntary and you can withdraw from the study at any time without needing to provide any explanation.

Potential Benefits
Your participation in the research is hoped to provide beneficial information to the field of second language acquisition and contribute to the development of English education in Taiwan. Also, it is hoped that you will benefit from the experience of participating in speaking workshops and enhance your speaking skills.

2010 Apr to 2010 Jun

Venue:

XXJunior High School

Supported by:

1. The ministry of Education in Taiwan
2. The Godfrey Thomson Fund

TEL:0968-XXX-XXX
speakingbeautifully@hotmail.com

讓我們把英文說的更漂亮 (Chinese side)

本研究簡介
感謝台灣教育部及英國 Godfrey Thomson 基金會的支持,本研究探討英語老師及同學們相互間的糾正行為對學生口語能力的影響。英語會話課與訪談為主要的資料收集活動,期在完成研究後,深入瞭解老師及學生對英文錯誤糾正的看法,並為增進英語口說能力提出建言。

研究者簡介
您好! 我是朱容萱。英國愛丁堡大學英語教學碩士,現為該校之博士候選人。在以往的教學經驗中發現同學們總是重複地犯同樣的口語錯誤,這引起了我研究錯誤糾正的興趣。若您想得知更多訊息,請寫信至:
speakingbeautifully@hotmail.com

您有以下的疑問嗎?
Q: 我的英文不好可以參加嗎? 需要事先準備什麼嗎?
A: 這項研究重心不在測驗您的口語能力,而是在幫助您增進英語會話能力,所以不需要事先準備或複習英文。

Q: 我的基本資料該不會外流吧? 如果我後悔參加了怎麼辦?
A: 請放心! 所有參加者的資料都是以匿名的機制處理的,且也只會以匿名的方式出現在我的博士論文研究中。如果您臨時想退出,只需要告知我,不需要說明任何理由喔!

參與此研究的好處
這項研究主旨在鼓勵學生正視自己的英語口說能力,並透過為期8週,每週的30分鐘的口語課強化開口說英語的自信,同時訓練口說的流利度與精確度以達到英語學習的實際成效。

2010年4月至2010年6月

地點:

XX國中

贊助單位:

◆ 台灣教育部
◆ 英國愛丁堡大學
The Godfrey Thomson Fund

TEL:0968-XXX-XX7
speakingbeautifully@hotmail.com

APPENDIX B

MATERIALS EMPLOYED IN PRE- AND POST-MEASURES

B1   Pre-and Post-English Speaking Tasks

a) Year 7 Class

   (1) Information-Gap Task
   (2) Picture Description Task

b) Year 8 Class

   (1) Information-Gap Task
   (2) Storytelling Task

B2   Pre-and Post-Questionnaires on Learners' Views about Corrective
     Feedback

a) Year 7 and Year 8 Questionnaire (in English)
b) Year 7 and Year 8 Questionnaire (in Chinese)

B3   Pre-and Post-Checklists on Learners' Self-evaluation of their Own
     Speaking Ability

a) Year 7 Class Checklist

   (1) Checklist (in English)
   (2) Checklist (in Chinese)

b) Year 8 Class Checklist

   (1) Checklist (in English)
   (2) Checklist (in Chinese)
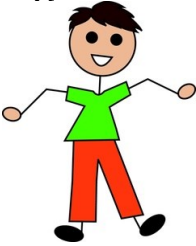
B4   Follow-Up Interview Schedule for Both the Year 7 and Year 8 Classes

Appendix B1 – Pre-and Post-English Speaking Task
(Year 7 Class - Task One)

a) Year 7 Class

(1) Task One: Information-Gap Task

Student's Copy

John's busy schedule on Mondays

Time	Monday
6.30 a.m.	wake up
7.30 a. m.	get up
7.40 a.m.	take a shower
8.00 a.m.	leave for work
5.00 p.m.	finish work
6.30 p.m.	start Art class
9.00 p.m.	take a bus home
11.00 p.m.	Go to sleep

Mary's busy schedule on Mondays

Time	Monday
7.00a.m.	?
8.00 a. m.	start work
1.00 p.m.	?
5.00 p.m.	meet with her friends
7.00 p.m.	go to a movie
10.00p.m.	?
11.00 p.m.	take a shower
12.00p.m.	?

Examiner's Copy

John's busy schedule on Mondays

Time	Monday
6.30 a.m.	?
7.30 a. m.	get up
7.40 a.m.	?
8.00 a.m.	?
5.00 p.m.	finish work
6.30 p.m.	?
9.00 p.m.	?
11.00 p.m.	go to sleep

Mary's busy schedule on Mondays

Time	Monday
7.00 a.m.	ride her bike to work
8.00 a. m.	start work
1.00 p.m.	eat lunch
5.00 p.m.	meet with her friends
7.00 p.m.	go to a movie
10.00 p.m.	go home
11.00 p.m.	take a shower
12.00 p.m.	go to sleep

(The pictures are taken from Google image.)

Appendix B1 – Pre-and Post-English Speaking Task
(Year 7 Class - Task Two)

a) Year 7 Class

(2) Task Two: Picture Description Task

[English Instruction for the Task]
Please have a look at the picture and the four questions below. I would like you to describe the picture. You are welcome to answer the questions based on the picture. Now please take 30 seconds to look at the picture and think about it. Please try to finish your description within 90 seconds. Do not begin your description until you are told to do so.

1. Where are those people?
2. What are they doing?
3. Do you think they are happy?
4. If you still have time, please describe what you can see in the picture.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
請參看下面的圖片及四個相關問題, 您有三十秒的時間看圖與構思如何描述以下的圖片。你可以根據圖片來回答問題。請在一分半鐘內完成所有的圖片描述與問題回答。請在被告知回答題目時再開始作答。作答時，請直接回答，不需將題號與題目唸出。

1. 這些人在哪?
2. 他們在做什麼?
3. 你覺得他們快樂嗎?
4. 如果尚有時間，請描述圖片中的景物。

(The picture is taken from Google image.)

Appendix B1 – (Year 8) Pre-and Post-English Speaking Task
(Year 8 Class – Task One)

b) Year 8 Class

(1) Task One: Information-Gap Task

Student's Copy

Mozart's personal information

Date of birth	27, January, 1756
Place of birth	Austria
Date of death	5, December, 1791
Year of travelling through Europe	1762
Number of brothers or/and sisters	1
Masterpiece	A little night music

Beethoven's personal information

Date of birth	?
Place of birth	Germany
Date of death	?
Number of children	?
Year of moving to Vienna	?
Masterpiece	Turkish March

Examiner's Copy

Mozart's personal information

Date of birth	?
Place of birth	?
Date of death	?
Year of travelling through Europe	1762
Number of brothers or/and sisters	?
Masterpiece	A little night music

Beethoven's personal information

Date of birth	16, December, 1770
Place of birth	Germany
Date of death	26, March, 1827
Number of children	1 son
Year of moving to Vienna	1972
Masterpiece	Turkish March

(The pictures are taken from Google image.)

Appendix B1 – (Year 8) Pre-and Post-English Speaking Task Two
(Year 8 Class – Task Two)
b) Year 8 Class

(2) Task Two: Storytelling Task

[English Instruction for the Task]
Please have a look at the five pictures below. I would like you to tell the story that the pictures show. You have 30 seconds to look at the pictures and think about the story. Please tell your story, starting with picture number 1 and going through to picture 5. Please begin the story with the sentence provided below, '**Last winter Kelly and Amy went skiing in Canada',** and try to finish the story within 90 seconds. Do not begin the story until you are told to do so.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
下面有五張圖片，請依照圖片(1) 到 (5) 說故事。您有三十秒的時間看圖與構思。請用 Last winter Kelly and Amy went skiing in Canada 為故事的開頭句，並在一分半鐘內完成所有的圖片描述。請在被告知開始描述圖片時再開始作答。

Last winter Kelly and Amy went skiing in Canada…

The pictures are taken from *YLE FLYER TEST*, Cambridge ESOL: Young Learners English (YLE). (2009). Young learners English. Retrieved Sep 21, 2010, from http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exams/young-learners/yle.html

Appendix B2 - Pre-and Post-Questionnaires on Learners' views about corrective feedback

a) For Year 7 & Year 8 Classes- (In English)

English Error Correction Questionnaire   Class: _____ , NO: _____

(i) Have you ever been corrected by your teacher on your oral errors? Yes ___ ; No ___
(ii) Have you ever been corrected by your peers on your oral errors? Yes___ ; No ___

If you answered 'Yes' to both of the questions above, please continue this questionnaire.

How much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements? On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 is strongly agree, please draw a tick after each statement below.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree				strongly agree

A. I do not mind…

I am comfortable with….	1	2	3	4	5
1) receiving teacher correction					
2) receiving peer correction					
3) providing my classmates with correction					
4) self-correction					
5) speaking English					

B. I am confident…

I am confident	1	2	3	4	5
6) at correcting myself					
7) at correcting my classmates					
8) at speaking English					
9) about making oral progress in the future					

C. Teacher Feedback and Peer Feedback

	1	2	3	4	5
10) Owing to teacher feedback, I've made progress in English speaking.					
11) Owing to peer feedback, I've made progress in English speaking.					
12) I don't know how to correct my classmates.					
13) I like peer correction.					
14) I like teacher correction.					
15) I don't trust teacher correction.					
16) I don't trust peer correction.					

17. Do you prefer to receive teacher correction on your oral error or to receive peer correction on your oral error in class?
    A: teacher correction   B: peer correction   C: neither   D: other _____

18. When one of your classmates makes oral errors in class, do you prefer to see the correction made by the teacher or made by other students (including you)?
    A: the teacher   B: the students (including you) C. neither   D: other _____

19. Which one do you think has most effect, teacher correction or peer correction?
    A: teacher correction B: peer correction   C. neither   D: other _____
                    Thank You Very Much for Your Time and Help!

Appendix B2 - Pre-and Post-Questionnaires on Learners' views about corrective feedback

b) For Year 7 & Year 8 Classes- (In Chinese)

英文口語錯誤評估問卷　　班級: _____ 座號: _____

(i) : 請問您有沒有被老師糾正過口語錯誤?　　　　　有 _____ ；　沒有 _____
(ii): 請問您有沒有被同儕糾正過口語錯誤?　　　　　有 _____ ；　沒有 _____

若以上的 A 和 B 題目您都回答有請繼續回答以下問題

請問你對以下的論述同不同意? 數字(1)代表非常不同意；數字(5)代表非常同意。請在格子內勾選最符合你的選項。謝謝您的幫忙。

1	2	3	4	5
非常不同意				非常同意

1. 我不介意以下的事情發生

我不介意	1	2	3	4	5
1) 我不介意老師糾正我的口語錯誤。					
2) 我不介意同學糾正我的口語錯誤。					
3) 我不介意糾正我同學的口語錯誤。					
4) 我不介意糾正自己的口語錯誤。					
5) 我不介意說英文。					

2. 我對以下的事情還滿有自信的

我對於____有自信	1	2	3	4	5
6) 對於糾正自己的口語錯誤還滿有自信的。					
7) 對於糾正我同學的口語錯誤還滿有自信的。					
8) 自己在說英文時還滿有自信的。					
9) 對於未來口語能力的進步還滿有自信的。					

3. 老師糾正與同儕糾正

	1	2	3	4	5
10) 因為老師的糾正，我的口語能力進步了。					
11) 因為同儕的糾正，我的口語能力進步了。					
12) 我不知道如何糾正同學。					
13) 我喜歡同儕的糾正。					
14) 我喜歡老師的糾正。					
15) 我不信任老師提供的糾正。					
16) 我不信任同學提供的糾正。					

17. 在課堂上時，你比較喜歡老師糾正你還是同學糾正你的口語錯誤? (請圈選答案)
　　　A:老師糾正　　　　B:同學糾正　　　　C: 都不喜歡　　　　D: 其他 _____

18. 在課堂上時，你比較喜歡老師糾正同學的口語錯誤還是其他人(包括你)去糾正那個同學的口語錯誤?
　　　A: 由老師去糾正　　B: 由同學去糾正　　C: 都不要去糾正　　D: 其他 _____

19. 妳覺得哪一個對你的學習影響較大?
　　　A: 老師糾正　　　　B: 同儕糾正　　　　C: 都沒影響　　　　D: 其他 _____

非常感謝您寶貴的時間與幫忙!

Appendix B3 – Pre- and Post-Checklists on Learners' Self-evaluation of their Own Speaking Ability

a) Year 7 Class Checklist

(1) Checklist (in English)

Self-Assessment on English Speaking Ability Checklist   Class: Year 7   No. : _____

Q: Have you ever communicated in English ? Yes_____ ; No _____

If you have ever communicated in English, please continue the checklist.

How much do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements related to English speaking ability? On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 means 'you cannot do it at all' and 5 means 'you can do it easily', please draw a tick in the box which suits your ability most.

1	2	3	4	5
cannot do it at all				can do it easily

In English, I can…

	1	2	3	4	5
1. start, maintain and end simple face-to-face conversation with others.					
2. ask people questions about what they do in their free time.					
3. describe my own interests.					
4. say what I like and dislike politely.					
5. agree or disagree with appropriate word choice, for example, to have an informal discussion with my friends.					
6. tell others about my daily life.					
7. describe how I feel.					
8 describe myself, my family and my friends.					
9. make few errors in most of my utterances.					
10. make few grammatical errors when speaking in sentences or narrating a story 。					
11. enrich my expression by using a variety of words.					
12. speak with clear pronunciation.					
13. choose appropriate English verb tenses to describe actions or state that I intend to say.					
14. describe or explain things with an appropriate selection of words.					
15 express myself with comprehensible pronunciation.					

Appendix B3 – (Year 7) Pre- and Post-Checklists on Learners' Self-evaluation of their Own Speaking Ability (In Chinese)

a) Year 7 Class Checklist

(2) Checklist (in Chinese)

<u>英文口語能力自我評量表</u>　　　班級: **Year 7** 座號: _____

<mark>**Q:** 請問您有英語會話的經驗嗎？ 有_____ ；沒有_____</mark>

<mark>若您有過英語會話的經驗請回答以下問題</mark>

請您評估自己在下列描述的情況下，說英文的能力？ **數字(1)**代表完全不能做到；**數字(5)**代表可以完全做到。請在每項口說能力描述的後方勾選最貼近您認為自己英語口說能力的選項。

1	2	3	4	5
完全做不到				可以輕鬆做到

在說英文的時候，我可以…

	1	2	3	4	5
1. 流利地和別人進行面對面的會話。					
2. 問別人在空閒時做什麼消遣。					
3. 向別人說明自己的興趣。					
4. 表達自己喜歡什麼和不喜歡什麼。					
5. 說明自己對事情的看法，例如和朋友進行一些非正式的討論。					
6. 描述自己的日常生活。					
7. 描述自己的感覺。					
8. 描述自己、家人或朋友。					
9. 幾乎沒犯什麼口語錯誤。					
10. 用幾乎沒有英文文法錯誤的句子說故事。					
11. 運用多種英文詞彙來表達。					
12. 用清晰的英語發音說話。					
13. 依 不同情況，使用不同的英語時態。					
14. 知道如何運用合適的單字來描述或說明事情。					
15. 用別人都能聽得懂的英文發音說話。					

Appendix B3 – Pre- and Post-Checklists on Learners' Self-evaluation of their Own Speaking Ability

b) Year 8 Class Checklist

(1) Checklist (in English)

Self-Assessment on English Speaking Ability Checklist   **Class: Year 8   No. : _____**

Q: Have you ever communicated in English ? Yes_____   ;   No _____

If you have ever communicated in English, please continue the checklist.

How much do you agree or disagree on each of the following statement related to English speaking ability? On a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 means 'you cannot do it at all' and 5 means 'you can do it easily', please draw a tick in the box which suits your ability most.

1	2	3	4	5
cannot do it at all				can do it easily

In English, I can…

	1	2	3	4	5
1. start, maintain and end simple face-to-face conversation with others.					
2. ask people questions about what they do in their free time.					
3. describe my own interests.					
4. say what I like and dislike politely.					
5. agree or disagree with appropriate word choice, for example, to have an informal discussion with my friends.					
6. describe my previous daily-life experiences.					
7. describe how I feel.					
8 describe events that have happened, for example, to describe something that happened at school.					
9. make few errors in most of my utterances					
10. make few grammatical errors when speaking in sentences or narrating a story.					
11. enrich my expression by using a variety of words.					
12. speak with clear pronunciation.					
13. choose appropriate English verb tenses to describe actions or state that I intend to say.					
14. describe or explain things with an appropriate selection of words.					
15 express myself with comprehensible pronunciation.					

Appendix B3 – Pre- and Post-Checklists on Learners' Self-evaluation of their Own Speaking Ability

b) Year 8 Class Checklist

(2) Checklist (in Chinese)

英文口語能力自我評量表　　　班級: **Year 8**　座號: _____

Q: 請問您有英語會話的經驗嗎？有_____ ； 沒有_____

若您有過英語會話的經驗請回答以下問題

請您評估自己在下列描述的情況下，說英文的能力? 數字(1)代表完全不能做到；數字(5)代表可以完全做到。請在每項口說能力描述的後方勾選最貼近您認為自己英語口說能力的選項。

1	2	3	4	5
完全做不到				可以輕鬆做到

在說英文的時候，我可以…

	1	2	3	4	5
1. 流利地和別人進行面對面的會話。					
2. 問別人在空閒時做什麼消遣。					
3. 向別人說明自己的興趣。					
4. 表達自己喜歡什麼和不喜歡什麼。					
5. 說明自己對事情的看法，例如和朋友進行一些非正式的討論。					
6. 描述自己之前的經驗。					
7. 描述自己的感覺。					
8. 簡單地描述一些事件的發生，例如校園內發生的事情。					
9. 幾乎沒犯什麼口語錯誤。					
10. 用幾乎沒有英文文法錯誤的句子說故事。					
11. 運用多種英文詞彙來表達。					
12. 用清晰的英語發音說話。					
13. 依不同的情況，使用不同的英語時態。					
14. 知道如何運用合適的單字來描述或說明事情。					
15. 用別人都能聽得懂的英文發音說話。					

Appendix B4 - Follow-up Interview Schedules for both the Year 7 and Year 8 Classes

Semi-Structured Interview Questions

Participants' Perception of Their Speaking Performance in the Post-tests

1. What do you think of your performance in the post-test that you have just finished?
2. Compared with your pre-test performance, what do you think of your performance in the post-test?
Sub-questions: How difficult did you find the tasks when you did the pre-test? How difficult did you find the tasks when you did the post-test?

Participants' Workshop Experiences

3. Can you describe your experience at the six workshops to me?
Sub-questions: unforgettable, happy, upset, interesting experience, why?
4. Can you say something about your group interaction in the workshops?
Sub-questions: How are you satisfied with the interaction between you and your classmates? Why? Please provide a couple of examples.

Experience of Providing Peer Feedback

5. Did you ever notice any oral errors made by your peers during group discussion in the workshops?
6. Can you describe the situation to me?
7. What was your reaction when you found your peer(s) made oral errors?
8. Did you provide feedback to him/her?
9. How did you provide your feedback?
10. What was your peer's reaction to your feedback?
12. How did you feel when you provided your feedback to him/her?
13. Do you think your feedback is or was helpful? Why? How? Why not?

Experience of Making Errors in the Group Discussion in the Workshops

14. Did you ever make errors during group discussion in the workshops?
15. How did you notice that you made an error?
Sub-questions: Did you notice it by yourself or by receiving your peer's feedback?
16. Did your classmates ever correct your oral errors in the workshops?
Sub- questions: Can you describe your experience to me? How did you find the peer feedback you received?
17. How did you find your peer's feedback technique(s)?
Sub-questions: Do you like it? Do you find it effective? Do you find it helpful? Why? Why not?
18. Did your peer ever use the six techniques that were introduced at the beginning of each workshop: recasts, explicit correction, repetition, elicitation, meta-linguistic correction, clarification?
19. Did your peer ever use the six techniques that were introduced at the beginning of each workshop? Why? Why not?

Teacher Feedback and Peer Feedback

20. Have you ever been corrected by your English teachers?
21. Can you tell me about your experience of being corrected by your English teachers?
22. What do you think of the teacher correction?
Sub-questions: Do you like it? Do you find it effective? Do you find it helpful? Why? Why not?
23. Would you like to receive teacher feedback? Why? Why not?
Sub-questions: What kind of impacts of teacher feedback you have noticed?
24. Would you like to receive peer feedback? Why? Why not?
Sub-questions: What kind of impacts of peer feedback you have noticed?
25. Are you willing to provide your peers with feedback? Why? Why not?
26. Compared with teacher feedback, what do you think of peer feedback?
Sub-questions: Do you prefer one over the other? Why? Why not? Do you prefer to receive one over the other? Do you prefer yourself or your classmates, or your teacher to provide feedback when one of your classmates makes an oral error?

What do you think about the 12-week quasi-experiment?

29. What do you think about the 12-week quasi-experiment?
30. Have you noticed any change in yourself after the quasi-experiment?
31. Is there any difference in your self-confidence in speaking English before and after the experiment?
Sub-questions: Can you tell me about it? What factors do you think contribute to the difference?
32. Is there any difference in the way you evaluate your own English speaking skills before and after the experiment?
Sub-questions: Can you tell me about it? What factors do you think contribute to the difference?
33. Have you changed the way you view teacher feedback after the experiment? Why? Why not?
34. Have you changed the way you view peer feedback after the experiment? Why? Why not?
35. Have you changed the way you view oral feedback in general after the experiment? Why? Why not?
36. Have you changed your views on the impact of peer feedback?
37. Have you changed your views on the impact of teacher feedback?

Is there anything you would like to tell me that I have not asked you?

Can I check your personal information again?

Thank you for your time and help!

APPENDIX C

SPEAKING TASKS EMPLOYED IN ENGLISH SPEAKING LESSONS

C1 Year 7 English Speaking Tasks

a) Task in lesson 1

b) Task in lesson 2

c) Task in lesson 3

d) Task in lesson 4

e) Task in lesson 5

f) Task in lesson 6

C2 Year 8 English Speaking Tasks

a) Task in lesson 1

b) Task in lesson 2

c) Task in lesson 3

d) Task in lesson 4

e) Task in lesson 5

f) Task in lesson 6

Appendix C1 - Year 7 English Speaking Tasks

a) Task in Lesson 1

How do you learn English?

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! can you share your experience of learning English with your peers? You have 10 minutes to discuss about your learning experience with your classmates. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 您們是如何學習英文的呢? 請與您的組員一同分享經驗。 請利用約 10 分鐘的時間進行討論(請試著全程以英語進行討論)。 10 分鐘後,各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中,請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法協助對方。以下有關學習技巧的例句,請同學們參考。

Discussion Points	Prompt Sentences
• What ways you use to learn English? • How good do you think your way of learning is? • Can you provide a couple of examples of the ways you learn English?	A: I learn English by watching English films. B: *Really? That sounds so interesting.* C: I learn English by taking notes in English. D: *Really? You are such a hard-working student.* E: I learn English online. F: *Really? What a good idea!*

b) Task in Lesson 2

To explore 5 things you don't know about your classmate(s)?

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! Do you know much about your peers? Is there anything you don't know about them? In this task, you are expected to explore at least five things you don't know about your classmates. You have 10 minutes to discuss with your peers. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 您們很了解彼此嗎? 有沒有什麼事情是您還不知道的? 請與您的組員一同進行討論,並找出至少五個您還不知道的秘密(每組請至少說出五件事)。利用約 10 分鐘的時間進行討論(請試著全程以英語進行討論)。 10 分鐘後,各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中,請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正彼此。以下相關例句,請同學們參考。

Discussion Points	Prompt Sentences
• What are the things you want to know about your peers? • How do you feel when you know different things about your peers? • What things do you want to share with your classmates?	➢ Are you secretly admiring someone? Tell me more about this. ➢ Do you take a shower every day? ➢ What do you do before you go to bed?

Appendix C1 - Year 7 English Speaking Tasks

c) Task in Lesson 3

Single-Picture Description

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! In today's task, you're expected to describe the picture below collectively with your peers. You have 10 minutes to discuss the picture with your classmates. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 請與您的組員利用約 10 分鐘的時間一同討論以下的圖片。10 分鐘後，各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台用英文描述此圖片。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正彼此。以下相關例句，請同學們參考。

Prompt Sentences
- In this picture I can see _____
- The girl _____ very _____.
- The girl _____ in her bed and _____.
- On the wall, _____.
- There is a beautiful _____.

(The picture is taken from Google image.)

d) Task in Lesson 4

The Shopping List

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! In today's task, you're expected to help Tom to complete his shopping list for his birthday party. You have 10 minutes to discuss what Tom needs to buy for the party with your classmates. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 請與您的組員利用約 10 分鐘的時間一同討論並完成 Tom 的生日派對購物單，想一想 Tom 會在不同的店內購買什麼物品? 10 分鐘後，請各組推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台用英文報告討論結果。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正彼此。以下相關例句，請同學們參考。

Tom's shopping list for his birthday party

London Bakery	Yo Yo Cosmetics	Penny's Flowers
(1)	Men's Cologne….. $ 700	2 Dozen Roses….. $ 120
(2)		10 lilies…..$ 350
_____	_____	_____
Total $	Total $ 700	Total $ 470
Cash $	Cash $ 1000	Visa $ 470
Change $	Change $ 300	
Max Music	**Stanley's**	**La La Pizza**
(1)	10 balloons $ 50	(1) $
(2)	(2) $	(2) $
_____	_____	_____
Total $	Total $	Total $
Visa $	Cash $	Check $
	Change $	

Prompt Sentences
- Every year Tom _____ 2 dozen roses and 10 lilies for his birthday.
- What _____ he buy?
- How much _____ it ? How much _____ they?

Appendix C1 - Year 7 English Speaking Tasks

e) Task in Lesson 5

Jigsaw Puzzle

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! In today's task, you're expected to tell a story based on the six-piece jigsaw puzzle provided. You're welcome to change the order of the pieces in the puzzle and try to work out the story which makes the most sense to you. You have 10 minutes to study the pictures and discuss them with your peers. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decided collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 請與您的組員利用約 10 分鐘的時間一同討論並創造以下的故事情節。您可隨意變動六張圖片的順序。10 分鐘後，請各組推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台用英文報告討論結果。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正彼此。以下相關例句，請同學們參考。

Prompt Sentences
➢ Tom _____ to eat snacks.
➢ Tom _____ happy when he _____.
➢ In Tom's free time, he usually _____.
➢ He _____ not like to _____.
➢ Tom _____ very chubby/ fat/slender/ fit/ healthy/ unhealthy.

(The picture is taken from Google image.)

---

f) Task in Lesson 6

Amber's Stuff

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! The items that have been distributed to your group belong to a Year 7 girl. Now, have a brainstorming on what Amber would do with the items. You have 10 minutes to discuss this with your peers. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 請想一想您手邊的東西和一位名叫 Amber 的女孩有什麼關係呢? Amber 可以如何運用這些東西的呢?（Amber 是一位國中七年級女生）請與您的組員利用約 10 分鐘的時間一同分享討論。10 分鐘後，各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正對方。以下相關例句，請同學們參考。

Discussion Point
• What does Amber do with the stuff? Why?
• Does Amber like the stuff? Why? Why not?
• What do you think Amber is like?

Prompt Sentences
➢ With the hair band, Amber _____ tidy up her hair.
➢ Amber _____ the wig when she…
➢ Amber _____ the bracelet before _____.Amber _____ the book to _____.

Appendix C2 - Year 8 English Speaking Tasks

a) Task in Lesson 1

What did you do last weekend?

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! What did you do last weekend? Did you do anything interesting that you would like to share with your peers? In this task, you are expected to talk about your weekend with your classmates within 10 minutes. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 上週末您們做了什麼有趣的事情呢? 請與您的組員一同分享經驗。請利用約 10 分鐘的時間進行討論。10 分鐘後，各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法協助對方。以下有關週末趣事的例句，請同學們參考。

Discussion Point	Prompt Sentences
• How was your weekend? • Describe what you did last weekend to your peers. • Was your last weekend like the weekend you usually have?	A: I played online computer games in the internet cafe all day last Saturday. B: *That sounds great!* C: I did a lot of homework last Sunday. D: *Really? You're kidding!* E: I picked up NT$ 500 in the street. F: *Wow! You're so lucky!*

b) Task in Lesson 2

Communication – In the past vs. In the present

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! In today's task you're going to discuss the different forms of communication between the past and the present. You have 10 minutes to discuss about this with your peers. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 您知道以前和現在的溝通方式有什麼不同嗎? 請與您的組員一同腦力激盪，想想過去與科技發達的現在，人與人之間的互動是否有變化? 有什麼變化?請利用約 10 分鐘的時間進行討論。10 分鐘後，各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正對方。以下相關例句，請同學們參考。

Discussion Points
- What are the differences in communication forms between the past and the present ?
- advantages and disadvantages of different forms of communication

Prompt Sentences
➢ In the past, people _____ letters to _____.
➢ In the present, people _____ phones to _____.
➢ In the past, people _____ more time _____.   (The pictures are taken from Google image.)
➢ In the present, keeping in touch with people _____.

Appendix C2 - Year 8 English Speaking Tasks

c) Task in Lesson 3

When I was a little boy/girl…

* **In preparation for the workshop, students were asked to bring the photos of themselves when they were little.**

[English Instruction for the Task]

Hello, everyone! Do you still remember what you looked like when you were a little kid? In this task, you are expected to talk about yourself when you were little (e.g. interests, looks, dreams). You have 10 minutes to complete the task. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]

同學們! 您還記得自己小時候的模樣嗎? 請與您的組員一同分享小時候的趣事與比較小時的照片和現在的長相、個性、喜好等。請利用約 10 分鐘的時間進行討論(請試著全程以英語進行討論)。10 分鐘後，各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正對方。以下相關例句，請同學們參考。

Discussion Points

- Do you look different now? Describe what you looked like and what you look like now.
- Talk about yourself when you were a kid.

Prompt Sentences

➢ When I __ a little boy/girl, I __ much shorter.
➢ When he/she ___ young, he/she ____ like a prince/ princess.
➢ You _____ long hair, but now you _____.
➢ The photo reminds of _____.
➢ Ten years ago I ___, but now I ___ another goal to achieve.

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d) Task in Lesson 4

Story Telling Task

[English Instruction for the Task]

Hello, everyone! In today's task, you're expected to make up a story based on the pictures below with your peers. You have 10 minutes to discuss with your peers about the pictures. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your story with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]

同學們! 請與您的組員一同討論以下的圖片，並根據以下的圖片編造出一個故事。請利用約 10 分鐘的時間進行討論(請試著全程以英語進行討論)。10 分鐘後，各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中，請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正對方。以下相關例句，請同學們參考。

Prompt Sentences

➢ Yesterday _____ Tom's birthday.
➢ Tom's parents _____ a birthday party for him.
➢ Tom's parents _____ Tom's friends and classmates to their home.
➢ They _____ Tom a lot of presents.
➢ Tom _____ very happy about his birthday present(s).
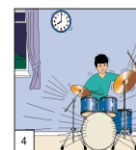
The pictures are taken from *YLE FLYER TEST*, Cambridge ESOL: Young Learners English (YLE). (2009). Young learners English. Retrieved Sep 21, 2010, from http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exams/young-learners/yle.html

Appendix C2 - Year 8 English Speaking Tasks

e) Task in Lesson 5

To describe an impressive piece of news

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! In today's task you're going to discuss a piece of news you heard recently. You have 10 minutes to discuss about this with your peers. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 最近有沒有聽到或是看到什麼令你印象深刻的新聞? 請與您的組員利用約 10 分鐘的時間一同分享討論(請試著全程以英語進行討論)。10 分鐘後,各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中,請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正對方。以下相關例句,請同學們參考。

Discussion Point
- Describe the impressive news you heard
- When and where did you hear the news?
- How did you feel when you heard the news?

Prompt Sentences
➢ I _____ the news on TV.
➢ I _____ excited/scared when I _____ the news.
➢ The news _____ me because …
➢ According to the headline/ breaking news, …
➢ The news _____ about a young man…

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f) Task in Lesson 6

Amber's Stuff

[English Instruction for the Task]
Hello, everyone! The item that have been distributed to your group belong to a Year 8 student. She used the items when she was a little girl. Now, have a brainstorming on what Amber did with the items when she was younger. You have 10 minutes to discuss with your peers about this. After your 10-minute discussion, you are expected to decide collectively who (at least two students) in your group are going to share your discussion with the class. During your discussion, you're welcome to provide each other with corrective feedback and to adopt a variety of corrective types as introduced at the beginning of the lesson. Here are some prompt sentences that you might find useful.

[Chinese Instruction for the Task]
同學們! 請想一想您手邊的東西和一位名叫 Amber 的八年級女生有什麼關係呢? Amber 小時候是如何運用這些東西的呢? 請與您的組員利用約 10 分鐘的時間一同分享討論。10 分鐘後,各組可推派兩位代表(或全組員)一同上台發表討論結果。討論的過程中,請同學們相互協助對方說出完整且適當的英文句子。同學們可參考所介紹過的六種糾正協助法或採用自己的方法糾正對方。以下相關例句,請同學們參考。

Discussion Point
- What would Amber do with the stuff when she was little? Why?
- Did Amber like the stuff? Why? Or Why not?
- What do you think Amber was like when she was a kid?

Prompt Sentences
➢ With the hair band, Amber _____ tidy up her hair.
➢ Amber _____ the wig when she…
➢ Amber _____ the bracelet before _____.
➢ Amber _____ the book to _____.

APPENDIX D

MATERIALS EMPLOYED IN DATA ANALYSES

D1. Coding Scheme for Peer Feedback Techniques

a) Year 7 Class Coding Scheme Example
b) Year 8 Class Coding Scheme Example

D2. Rating Forms for Pre-and Post-English Speaking Tests

a) Rating Scheme for Task One for both the Year 7 and Year 8 Classes
b) Rating Scheme for Task Two for both the Year 7 and for Year 8 Classes

D3. An Example of Content Analysis Coding Scheme for Interview Data

D4. The Focus Group Interview Schedule

Appendix D1 - Coding Scheme for Peer Feedback Techniques- Part 1
(For both the Year 7 and Year 8 Classes)

同儕糾正法 (Peer Feedback Technique)	範例 (Example)	編碼 (code)
1. 尋求幫忙，中翻英 / 英翻中(Translation): Students ask for help with Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation of what they intend to say.	M2: 小孩怎麼說? F1: children	1
2. 尋求幫忙，以確認自己不確定的部分(Confirmation): Students ask peers to confirm the correctness of what they say.	F1: on a trip? 對嗎? F2: on a trip. 恩!	2
3. 幫對方完成未完成的詞句(Completion): Students help their peers to complete the incomplete sentences when they notice that their peers need help.	M1: I played online game and… F2: watched TV	3
4. 直接指出對方說錯的部分，但不提供答案(Explicit Indication): Students explicitly indicated the problematic part of their peer's utterance and expected their peers to self-correct the error.	F1: In the past people discuss. M1: 用過去式。	4
5. 把對方念錯的地方直接糾正成對的(答案)，並用強調的語氣唸出來 (Explicit Correction): Students explicitly replace the problematic utterance made by their peers with correct utterance.	F1: I study all day yesterday. F2: studied.	5
6. 直接指出對方說錯的部分並直接提出糾正(答案)，最後再講解原因 (Explanation): Students not only offer the direct correction but also the grammatical explanation to their peers.	F1: Can you play basketball? M2: I don't know. M1: I can't. I don't know 我不知道。I can't 是我不能。	6
7. 用不經意的方法修復對方有問題的詞句，但不會直接的指出對方說錯的部分 (recasts): Students reformulate problematic utterances made by their peer in an unobtrusive manner.	M1: Yesterday is Garbage's birthday. F2: Yesterday was Garbage's birthday.	7

Appendix D1 - Coding Scheme for Peer Feedback Techniques- Part 2

(Year 7 Class)

a) Year 7 Class Coding Scheme Example

Year 7 Class- Peer Feedback Technique Coding Scheme, Observer: _____

[* MS refers to a male learner. FS refers to a female learner. Number after 'M' or 'F' indicates different or the same learner.]

糾正對話節錄 Peer-to-Peer dialogue extracts.	尋求幫忙，中翻英／英翻中(Translation) Students ask for help with Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation of what they intend to say.	尋求幫忙，以確認自己不確定的部分 (confirmation) Students ask peers to confirm the correctness of what they say.	幫對方完成未完成的詞句(Completion): Students help their peers to complete the incomplete sentences when they notice that their peers need help.	直接指出對方說錯的部分，但不提供答案(Explicit Indication): Students explicitly indicated the problematic part of their peer's utterance and expected their peers to self-correct the error.	把對方念錯的地方直接糾正成對的(答案)，並用強調的語氣唸出來 (Explicit Correction): Students explicitly replace the problematic utterance made by their peers with correct utterance.	直接指出對方說錯的部分並直接提出糾正(答案)，最後再講解原因 (Explanation): Students not only offer the direct correction but also the grammatical explanation to their peers.	用不經意的方法修復對方有問題的詞句，但不會直接的指出對方說錯的部分 (recasts): Students reformulate problematic utterances made by their peer in an unobtrusive manner.
F1: I learning English on TV [F1 intended to say ' I learn English by watching TV.'.]. F2: I am watching TV … F1: I'm watching TV learning English.							

b) Year 8 Class Coding Scheme Example

Year 8 Class- Peer Feedback Technique Coding Scheme, Observer: _____

[* M refers to male student. F refers to female student. Number after 'M' or 'F' indicates different or the same students.]

纠正對話節錄 Peer-to-Peer dialogue extracts.	尋求幫忙，中翻英／英翻中(Translation) Students ask for help with Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation of what they intend to say.	尋求幫忙，以確認自己不確定的部分 (confirmation) Students ask peers to confirm the correctness of what they say.	幫對方完成未完成的詞句(Completion): Students help their peers complete the incomplete sentences when they notice that their peers need help.	直接指出對方說錯的部分，但不提供答案(Explicit Indication): Students explicitly indicated the problematic part of their peer's utterance and expected their peers to self-correct the error.	把對方念錯的地方直接糾正成對的(答案)，並用強調的語氣唸出來 (Explicit Correction): Students explicitly replace the problematic utterance made by their peers with correct utterance.	直接指出對方說錯的部分並直接提出糾正(答案)，最後再講解原因 (Explanation): Students not only offer the direct correction but also the grammatical explanation to their peers.	用不經意的方法修復對方有問題的詞句，但不會直接的指出對方說錯的部分 (recasts): Students reformulate problematic utterances made by their peer in an unobtrusive manner.
M1: What did you do last weekend? F1: I am… M1: I was							

Appendix D2 – Rating Forms for Pre-and Post-English Speaking Tests (Task One)

a) Rating Scheme for Task One for both the Year 7 and Year 8 Classes

Marker:_____

Task One- Information-Gap: Description and criteria

Examinee: Year _____ No. _____

Analytic Criteria

Grammar (e.g. accuracy and appropriacy)**Vocabulary** (e.g. accuracy, appropriacy, and range)**Pronunciation** (e.g. accuracy of individual sounds, stress, intelligibility)**Fluency** (e.g. hesitation, pausing, repetition, self-correction and length)**Interaction** (e.g. maintenance of interaction, turn-taking).

Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Fluency	Interaction	Marker's Notes
-Correct morphology and syntax. -Some grasp of more complex areas. -Errors are rare. [up to **2** errors of the target form] **5**	-Effective use of vocabulary. -Errors are rare. **5**	-Correct, intelligible and clear pronunciation. **5**	-Fluent and confident. -Very few hesitations and pausing. **5**	-Almost always effective interaction with the interlocutor. **5**	
-Morphology and syntax are fairly correct and adequate for the task. - A number of errors occur but do not affect comprehensibility. [up to **4** errors of the target form] **4**	-Adequate use of vocabulary. -A number of errors occur during interaction. **4**	-Pronunciation is fairly and consistently comprehensible. -Some listener effort required. **4**	-Adequate ability to formulate sentences without undue difficulty. -A number of hesitations or self-correction. **4**	-Good interaction with the interlocutor. -Some support from the interlocutor needed. **4**	
-An elementary grasp of morphology and syntax. - Some errors occur that slightly impede comprehensibility. [up to **6** errors of the target form] **3**	- Almost inadequate use of vocabulary. -Some errors occur during interaction. **3**	-Much unclear and incorrect pronunciation which impedes comprehension. -Much listener effort required. **3**	-Adequate ability to manage very short sentences with much pausing to search for expressions. **3**	-Interaction relies on the effort from the interlocutor. -Much support from interlocutor needed. **3**	
- Very limited control of simple grammatical structures. - Very limited repertoire of sentence patterns. [**7** or more errors of the target form occur **]** **2**	- Very limited ability to produce even isolated words or phrases. -Much support from the interlocutor required to produce the vocabulary. **2**	-Only isolated words or phrases intelligible. - Difficult for listener to tell what has been said. **2**	-No or a limited ability to formulate sentences. -Full of excessive pausing or false starts. **2**	-Almost no effective interaction with the interlocutor. -Speaker interacts with much effort or reluctance. **2**	
- No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	-No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	- No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	- No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	- No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	
- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	

Holistic Criteria

Description	Mark	Marker's Notes
Learners are able to handle the interaction effectively. They are able to ask and answer questions successfully. Linguistic errors and hesitations are rare and do not impede the conversation at all.	5	
Learners are able to maintain the interaction with some support from the interlocutor. They can respond in intelligible sentences even if a number of errors are made.	4	
Learners are unable to maintain the interaction with the interlocutor unless much support is provided. They frequently resort to repetition when participating in a conversation. Some linguistic errors occur that slightly impede the interaction.	3	
Learners have difficulty performing the task even though much support and time are provided and show very limited ability to participate in a conversational exchange. Many linguistic errors occur that cause difficulty in continuing the interaction.	2	
No evidence of ability to perform the task.	1	
No evidence of performing the task.	0	

Appendix D2 – (Task Two) Rating Forms for Pre-and Post-English Speaking Tests (Task Two)

b) Rating Scheme for Task Two for both the Year 7 and Year 8 Classes

Marker: _____
Examinee: Year ___No.___

Task Two- Picture(s0 Description: Description and criteria

Analytic Criteria

Grammar (e.g. accuracy and appropriacy)**Vocabulary** (e.g. accuracy, appropriacy, and range)**Pronunciation** (e.g. accuracy of individual sounds, stress, intelligibility)**Fluency** (e.g. hesitation, pausing, repetition, self-correction and length)**Discourse management** (e.g. coherence, cohesion, extent, comprehensibility).

Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Fluency	Discourse Management	Marker's Notes
-Correct morphology and syntax. -Some grasp of more complex areas. -Errors are rare. [up to **2** errors of the target form] **5**	-An Effective, rich range of vocabulary. -Errors are rare. **5**	-Correct, intelligible and clear pronunciation. **5**	-Fluent and confident. -Very few hesitations and pausing. **5**	-Full story development. -Subtle, strong details. -Good controlled use of cohesive device. **5**	
-Morphology and syntax are fairly correct and adequate for the task. -A number of errors occur but do not affect comprehensibility. [up to **4** errors of the target form] **4**	-Some varieties in vocabulary. - A number of errors occur when learners attempt to use various words to describe the pictures. **4**	-Pronunciation is fairly and consistently comprehensible. - Some listener effort required. **4**	-Adequate ability to formulate sentences without undue difficulty. -A number of hesitations or self-correction. **4**	-Moderate story organization. - Adequate, relevant details. -A limited number of cohesive devices. **4**	
-An elementary grasp of morphology and syntax. -Some errors occur and impede comprehensibility. [up to **6** errors of the target form] **3**	-A basic vocabulary. -No variety in vocabulary. - Some lexical errors occur. **3**	-Much unclear and incorrect pronunciation which impedes comprehension. -Much listener effort required. **3**	-Adequate ability to manage very short, sentence with much pausing to search for expressions. **3**	-Limited or rudimentary story organization. -Basic supporting details. **3**	
- Very limited control of simple grammatical structures. - Very limited repertoire of sentence patterns. [**7** or more errors of the target form occur] **2**	-An inadequate vocabulary, insufficient for picture description. **2**	-Only isolated words or phrases intelligible. - Difficult for listeners to tell what has been said. **2**	No or limited ability to formulate sentences. Full of excessive pausing or false starts. **2**	-Very limited ability to link words which is difficult to tell if the task is performed due to the lack of linguistic weakness. **2**	
- No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	-No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	-No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	-No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	-No evidence of ability to perform the task. **1**	
- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	- No evidence of performing the task. **0**	

Holistic Criteria

Description	Mark	Marker's Notes
Learners are able to perform the task successfully. They are able to describe the picture/story in a highly comprehensible and intelligible manner. Errors and hesitations are rare.	5	
Learners are able to perform the task satisfactorily with simple vocabulary and grammatical structures. Errors and hesitations sometimes occur when learners are in search for expressions of the pictures/story.	4	
Learners need much effort to be able to perform the task at a fundamental level. Their utterances are usually short, incomplete, hesitant or inaccurate. Some misunderstanding may arise but can be resolved with repetition or rephrasing.	3	
Learners have difficulty performing the task due to linguistic weakness. They are unable to produce comprehensible or intelligible utterances. Their description of the picture/ story is very limited and full of isolated words or phrases.	2	
- No evidence of ability to perform the task.	1	
- No evidence of performing the task.	0	

Appendix D3 - An Example of Content Analysis Coding Scheme for Interview Data

Date: _____ Class: Year _____
Theme 1: Impacts of Peer Feedback
Sub-theme: Usefulness of peer feedback
Interview Question (s): What do you think of the peer feedback you received? Do you think that peer feedback is useful or useless? In what way? Why?

No	S*	Coding Procedure 1 Extracts from the transcripts	Coding Procedure 2 Condensed extracts close to the original text	Coding Procedure 3 Condensed Extracts & brief interpretation of the underlying meaning	Coding Procedure 4 Sub-categories	Coding Procedure 5 Codes
1	S1	[After receiving peer feedback], I became aware of my error. I was also able to avoid the error when I wanted to make a similar sentence again. I corrected my error immediately after I was corrected. I also managed to avoid making the same error in my utterance afterwards.	[After receiving peer feedback], I became aware of my errors and able to avoid making the same error again. I self-repaired the errors right after receiving peer feedback.	Peer feedback helps the student to notice his/her own error, self-repair the error and avoid making the same error again.	Immediate self-repair Reduce the chance of making the same error again	1 Yes, useful
2	S2	[After receiving peer feedback], I did not really remember what they told me. I did not learn from it. Their feedback was too advanced for me to understand. The grammatical usages they were giving me feedback on were too difficult.	I neither learned from peer feedback nor remember my own errors after being offered too advanced peer feedback.	Peer feedback does not lead to immediate uptake. Peer feedback does not help him/her to understand his/her errors.	No learning taking place No occurrence of uptake	2. No, not useful
3	S3	I think peer feedback is useful. But, boys usually just laughed at my errors, which was really annoying. It [Boy's correction] is useless. Girls would point to my errors explicitly in a tender, polite way. I remembered my errors after receiving girls' correction.	Boys laughed at the student's errors while girls provided corrective feedback in an explicit way, which seems to be useful.	Boys' correction seems not so useful while girls' correction seems useful in terms of helping the correction receiver to remember his/her own errors.	Boys' correction is not so useful. Girls' correction seems to be useful.	3. It depends.
4	S4	I was not corrected by my peers during the discussion in the workshops.	No experience of being corrected in the workshops.	No experience.	No experience.	4. others

Note. * S refers to students participating in the interview.

Appendix D4 - The Focus Group Interview Schedule

Focus Group with Rater I and Rater II for Pre-and Post-Marking Process

1. What do you think about the experience of this marking process?

2. What do you think about the students' performance?
Sub-questions: How would you describe their performance? (e.g. quintessential, typical, atypical)

3. What do you think about the practicality of the holistic and analytic criteria for the speaking tasks after finishing the marking?
Sub-questions: What do you think about the practicality of setting cut scores on one of the analytical criterion, grammar, for example, the students can only miss up to 2 errors of the target form in order to achieve the top band, and up to 4 errors to reach the next lower band?

4. When you were marking the performances, which score did you give first, holistic or analytic score? Why?

5. Did you face the dilemma of how to mark the performance?
Sub-questions: What's your experience of that? What's the reason behind that?

6. How would you rate yourself on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 represents the least consistent marker and 5 represents the most consistent marker? Why?

7. What do you think could make the criteria more valid? Why?

8. What do you think could make the criteria more reliable? Why?

9. What do you think could make the criteria more practical? Why?

10. What do you think could make the marking process more successful? Why?

11. Is there anything you would like to share with me that I haven't come across?

Thank you for your time and help.

APPENDIX E

MATERIALS EMPLOYED IN THE REVIEWED LITERATURE OF THE STUDY

E1. Six Types of Corrective Feedback

E2. The List of Expected English Communicative Competence of Secondary School Students in Taiwan

Appendix E1 - Six Types of Corrective Feedback

Six Types of Corrective Feedback

The table below shows six types of common techniques classified by
Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Six types of corrective techniques	Examples
Explicit correction: The teacher indicates the student's error and provides the correct answer.	S: The day…tomorrow (lexical error) T: Yes. No, the day before yesterday. (explicit correction)
Recasts The teacher reformulates or expands an ill-formed or incomplete utterance in an unobtrusive way.	S: Taber? (phonological error) T: Yeah, good. Table. (recast) You remember ...
Clarification requests: The teacher asks the student for reformulation or repetition of his/her utterance.	S: I want practice today. (grammatical error) T: I am sorry? (clarification request)
Metalinguistic feedback: The teacher explains the grammatical rules when the student makes an grammatical error	S: He play tennis very well. T: Oh, but you have to put an "s" after "play".
Elicitation: The teacher pauses and lets the student complete the utterance	S: I live in B… (The student stammers) T: You live in Ber.. (elicitation) S: I live in Berlin. (repair)
Teacher's Repetition: The teacher repeats the erroneous part of the student's utterance with a change in intonation	T: What is this called? S: Comma. (lexical error) T: Comma (repetition with a different intonation) S: Period (repair)

Appendix E2 - The List of Expected English Communicative Competence of Secondary School Students in Taiwan

The list below is made by the Ministry of Education in Taiwan in 2004 and 2008.

Communicative Competence

1) Asking about abilities
2) Asking about ownership
3) Asking about prices
4) Asking about the time, the day, & the date
5) Asking about transportation
6) Asking for and giving advice
7) Asking for and giving directions
8) Asking for and giving information
9) Asking for and giving instructions
10) Asking for and giving permission
11) Asking how things are said in English
12) Asking how words are spelled
13) Asking people to repeat or clarify something
14) Checking & indicating understanding
15) Comparing things, people, etc.
16) Describing actions
17) Describing people's appearances
18) Describing emotions and experiences
19) Describing a sequence
20) Expressing agreement & disagreement
21) Expressing congratulations
22) Expressing gratitude
23) Expressing concern
24) Expression likes & dislikes
25) Expressing prohibition
26) Expressing wants and needs
27) Extending, accepting, and declining invitations
28) Getting attention
29) Giving reasons
30) Greeting people
31) Introducing friends, family and oneself
32) Making appointments

33) Making apologies
34) Making compliments
35) Making plans
36) Making requests
37) Making suggestions
38) Making telephone calls
39) Naming common toys and household objects
40) Offering and requesting help
41) Ordering food & drinks
42) Talking about location
43) Talking about daily schedules and activities
44) Talking about frequency
45) Talking about past, present, and future events