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SWITCHING BETWEEN THE L1 AND L2: TEACHERS' CORRECTIVE
FEEDBACK AND LEARNER UPTAKE

by

Md Nesar Uddin

A Dissertation

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Major: English

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Dedicated to my Parents:

A.K.M. Maulana Wali Ullah & Shajeda Begum

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In an academic journey, the accomplishment of the doctoral degree is a long-cherished goal the most talented travelers dream for. In the course of this perilous journey, their dreams fly on flapping wings, but are able to touch the blue only when their determination, painstaking labor, and divine gifts are assisted by some defining characters in life. At this point, I am speechless and groping for words to express how grateful I am to the great souls whose contributions made my dream come true.

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Abstract

Over the years, an interest in switching between the L1 and L2 in L2 classroom instruction has grown in SLA research in parallel with the uptick in corrective feedback (CF) research. Separate studies on CF (e.g., Shirani, 2019; Bryfonski & Ma, 2020) and L1 use (e.g., Iyitoglu, 2016) have found that CF and language switching promote L2 learning, with L1 use facilitating the accomplishment of cognitively demanding tasks. However, research has not considered how switching between languages in the provision of CF impacts learning opportunities. This dissertation combined CF and language switching and explored the role of CF practices in the L1 and L2 on learner uptakes in Arabic as a foreign language context in a lower intermediate (LI) and a higher intermediate (HI) level classes each comprising 15 students at a school in the mid-south USA addressing two main questions: CF in L1 and its relation to uptake.

The data were collected through a total of 20-hour observations in two Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL) classes. A total of 2 teachers and 30 students were observed. Ranta and Lyster's (2007) taxonomy of CF types and uptakes was modified to code and descriptively analyze the L1 and L2 use across CF types, as well as the uptake and repair moves. Both teachers were also interviewed in two phases after the observations to investigate their CF attitudes in relation to their CF practices in the classroom. The interview data were coded based on CF categories and different error types optimized from Lyster and Ranta (1997, 2007) and analyzed as attitude objects following Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) tripartite attitude model.

The results show that the amount of switching between the L1 and L2, and CF use significantly vary in the two proficiency classes. Ahlan uses greater CF frequency and almost equally switches between the L1 and L2 in her lower intermediate class whereas Faruq provides

far less CF and almost always uses the L2 during CF interactions in his higher intermediate class. Ahlan uses only explicit CF strategies such as explicit corrections, elicitation and metalinguistic cue, mixed feedback, and didactic recast (only in the L2), and Faruq also predominantly uses the explicit corrective feedback strategies. Mixed feedback with the L1 and L2 and recast only with the L2 are the most frequently used CF strategies in both classes. Whereas Ahlan focuses on learners' lexical errors and Faruq mainly addresses the grammatical errors. Ahlan's explicit correction and mixed feedback in the L1 lead to the highest repairs. Her mixed feedback, explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation in the L2 all effectively lead to high repairs. Likewise, Faruq's elicitation, mixed feedback, and recast in the L2 result in very high repairs.

Ahlan's positive attitudes toward CF types and language switching and her focus on learners' lexical errors are exemplified in her high CF frequency, especially prompts and her switching between the L1 and L2. However, her preference only for prompts and implicit CF types mismatches with her exclusive use of explicit CF types that included both reformulations and prompts. Faruq's less frequent use of CF and exclusive use of the target language conforms to his beliefs about CF and LI use showing that he is not a steadfast supporter of CF and language switching in L2 classroom.

The findings implicate that corrective feedback with language switching can be effective in leading to uptakes and repairs in low proficiency language classes where teachers alternate between the L1 and L2 in a balanced way to facilitate learners' better understanding and promote oral interactions. So, L2 teachers should opt to switch between the L1, and L2 during CF interaction based on learner proficiency levels and learner needs to engage learners in CF interactions and promote learner uptake. L2 teachers can go through a developmental transition

from switching between the L1 and L2 in the low proficiency level to using the L2 in the high proficiency level.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Overview

Corrective feedback (CF) is a pedagogical strategy adopted by SLA teachers in response to learner errors so that learners can modify the erroneous language production and develop new second language knowledge (Li, 2010, 2014). Learner errors and corrective feedback have been addressed in almost all theories and pedagogies of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2009). While earlier studies questioned the effectiveness of CF for L2 learning (Dekeyser, 1993; Brock et al., 1986; Chaudron, 1988; Schwartz, 1993), more recent research has consistently suggested that L2 teachers provide learners with scaffolding through CF interactions that promote L2 learning. (e.g., Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Ellis, 2009; Doski & Cele, 2018). Meta-analyses of current CF research (e.g., Lyster & Saito, 2010; Li, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007) also showed strong support for the effectiveness of CF interactions in L2 learning.

Primary empirical CF research includes observational and experimental studies in classroom and laboratory settings in different instructional contexts. The empirical research emphasized the types and frequency of CF with learner uptake (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 2001) and their overall effects, and differential effects on L2 learning (e.g., Sheen 2010; Haifaa & Emma, 2014; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2004). Some studies also demonstrated the benefits of peer feedback in L2 learning (Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 2002). However, whether teachers switch between learners' L1 and L2 languages in their corrective feedback, and if they do, how that impacts learners' uptake and L2 acquisition, has not been examined to date.

As the exclusive use of L1 in L2 classrooms as prescribed by the Grammar-Translation method ignored learners' speaking and listening skills development and resulted in learners' inefficiency to communicate in the target language, this practice consequently created a negative perception of L1 use in L2 classrooms. Subsequently, new SLA methods and approaches, such as the Audio-lingual method, the Direct Method, and the Communicative Language Teaching approach, followed the monolingual perspective and emphasized the exclusive use of learners' target language. As a result, the investigation into the use of L1 in L2 classrooms and its effects on L2 acquisition has received little attention from major SLA researchers who examined the use and effects of corrective feedback in L2 classrooms. However, currently, the trend is changing. Over the last few decades, some research has attempted to explore the use of L1 in peer interactions and classroom discussion in foreign language contexts; however, very little can be inferred from the current literature about the effects of corrective feedback given through switching between L1 and L2 on learners' L2 acquisition.

1.2 Background of the Problem

SLA educators' approach to corrective feedback has changed over the past decades based on their perception of learner errors. Corrective feedback received its momentum during the 1950s and 1960s when the Audiolingual method dominated SLA pedagogies. This method developed from two theoretical perspectives: behaviorism and structuralism. Behaviorists considered language learning as habit formations and errors as bad habits that should be immediately corrected. Structuralists maintained that learner errors resulted from the L1 negative transfer. When L1 structural features are different from those of L2, learners tend to transfer the L1 structures to L2 and commit the errors. So, they argued for prior identifications of structural differences that would likely cause learners to commit errors. This method emphasized both

preemptive measures that lead learners to repeated practices of the target structures and remedial actions that provide immediate and explicit corrective feedback.

Subsequently, Selinker's (1972) interlanguage theory held that errors derive from learners' internal factors rather than transfer from the L1. Henderickson (1978) argued that errors are systematic, rule-governed, and natural part of L2 learning, and they shed light on learners' current interlingual status. He stated that systematic analysis of errors would help SLA educators and researchers understand the language learning process. He raised five critical questions about error treatment: whether errors should be corrected, when they should be corrected, which ones should be corrected, how they should be corrected, and who should correct them. SLA educators and researchers attempted to find answers to these questions for many years. Consistent evidence for error treatment effectiveness turned SLA researchers from exploring whether errors should be corrected to which corrective feedback types led to learner repairs for the last couple of years. Researchers are yet to reach any consensus about which feedback type is the most effective and should be practiced by SLA educators, although a significant number of studies found that explicit corrective feedback is more effective than implicit one and that recast is the most used but least effective feedback type (e.g., Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2004; Ammar & Spada 2006; Nassaji, 2007; Ellis, Lowen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Previous studies addressed CF and switching between the L1 and L2 separately. Major studies investigated corrective feedback in ESL contexts (e.g., Lyster & Panova, 2002), EFL Contexts (e.g., Roothoof, 2014)) and immersion program contexts (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997;) mostly designed for adult L2 learners (e.g., Sheen, 2004). The studies addressed the issues of differential effects of different feedback types like repair, needs-repair, no uptake (e.g., Ellis et

al., 2006; Sheen 2007, 2010; Lyster, 2004), the timing of teachers' error treatment such as immediate or delayed (e.g., Fanselow, 1977; Quinn, 2014; Akay and Akbarov, 2011; Shabani & Safari, 2016), types of errors to be treated such as lexical, phonological or grammatical (e.g., Pedrazzini, 2017), implicitness or explicitness of feedback (e.g., Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006), feedback givers like teachers or students (e.g., Ferris, 2006) and the relationship between learner errors and teachers' feedback types (e.g., Roothoof, 2014). However, little research has investigated teachers' L1 and L2 use in corrective feedback and its effect on learner uptake. No prior studies also addressed corrective feedback in Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL) context in high school classroom settings, especially in the USA, where most of the students were heritage language learners. This present study addresses this gap by examining how AFL teachers at a K-12 school in the USA provide learners with corrective feedback with switching between the L1 and L2 in response to their erroneous utterances and how learners take up those corrective responses.

1.4 Purpose of the study

This study aims to examine how teachers provide and students respond to oral CF in lower intermediate Arabic class and a higher intermediate Arabic class at a school in the USA. The study investigates learners' grammatical, lexical, and phonological errors in their utterances, teachers' switching between the L1 and L2 in error treatment in response to these errors, learner uptake in response to CF, and teachers' attitudes toward corrective feedback interactions and L1 and L2 use during the interactions in Arabic classrooms. This study also focuses on the relative effects of teachers' use of different corrective feedback strategies with L1 and L2 use in response to different error categories. The present research employs multiple data collection methods such as longitudinal structured classroom observations and semi-structured teacher

interviews. The observations include video-record of teacher-student corrective feedback interactions and how teachers provide learners with feedback, and how learners respond to it. Through structured interviews, the study collects teachers' beliefs and perceptions of teachers' corrective feedback their use and preference of particular feedback strategies. The present study answers the following four research questions.

1.5 Research questions

In AFL classrooms:

1. What are the CF types provided by AFL teachers with L1 and L2 use?
2. Do AFL teachers provide CF differently for different error types using the L1 and L2?
3. Which CF types with L1 and L2 use most frequently lead to learner repairs?
4. What are teacher beliefs and perceptions of CF and switching between the L1 L2 during CF?

1.6 Significance of the study

CF has become an essential part of the learning process in foreign and second language classrooms. Major empirical studies on CF (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Ellis, 2009; Doski & Cele, 2018; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, 2007; Adams, 2007, McDonough, 2007; Lyster and Izquierdo, 2009) have consistently demonstrated that CF plays facilitative roles in L2 learning process though current research is yet to reach consensus as to relative effectiveness of different CF strategies. All these studies occurred in either adult EFL or ESL contexts or immersion programs. How CF feedback works in the AFL context, especially in high schools, is still an unexamined area. On the other hand, growing studies on the use of L1 and L2 in L2 classrooms show that SLA teachers largely switch between languages in the classrooms for different

instructional purposes such as defining vocabulary, explaining grammar, and clarifying difficult concepts (Cianflone, 2009; Bouangeune, 2009; Bhooth, Azman and Ismail, 2014; Paker and Karaagac, 2015; Iyitoglu, 2016; Alrabah et al., 2016). Their practices foster L2 learning. Since L1 use along with target language in the L2 classrooms has been common, and since studies show that L2 teachers use CF in classrooms and their exploitation of feedback strategies foster L2 learning, it is likely that L2 teachers also switch between the L1 and L2 while giving CF in classrooms. However, the switching between the L1 and L2 in CF and learners' response to this practice is yet to be examined in instructed SLA research. This study combined CF practices and switching between the L1 and L2 in the AFL context in high school classroom settings. The study will add to the knowledge of the role of corrective feedback with language switching.

Before I start the study, I run a pilot study observing a few classes of two proficiency classes in the research setting and examining the study's feasibility and find that the teachers provide students with CF and one teacher broadly switches between the languages while giving CF.

1.7 Organization of the Chapters

Along with this introduction, the dissertation project comprises seven chapters. Chapter 2 defines CF types, error categories, and learner uptake and discusses the theoretical perspectives of CF and L1 use in L2 classrooms. Chapter 3 reviews the major empirical studies on CF and L1 use with the L2 and their effects on L2 development and discuss the research gap leading to this current dissertation project. Chapter 4 outlines the research designs and methods and the theoretical framework used to code and analyze the data in order to answer the research questions. Chapter 5 reports the research findings in answer to the four research questions. The answers to the first three questions were derived from the quantitative data and the qualitative

data were analyzed to report the findings as to the fourth research question. Chapter 6 analyzed the research findings based on the prior studies reviewed in Chapter 3. Finally, Chapter 7 contains the conclusion of the study, theoretical implications, pedagogical implications, limitations, and contributions of this project and directions for future research.

1.8 Chapter Summary

While earlier SLA research focused more on error analysis to identify the sources and patterns of learner errors, recent research focused on CF and its role in L2 development, that consistently found a positive relation between teachers' CF and learners' L2 development. In parallel, over the last few decades, SLA research has developed a growing interest in the enquiry into the L1 use along with the L2 in L2 classrooms and its effect on learners' second language learning, and hence, investigated the pedagogical purposes of switching between languages in the L2 classroom. However, this dissertation project combines both CF practices and the L1 use during CF interactions in L2 classrooms to identify how CF with the L1 and L2 differentially affects L2 learning. This current study seeks answers to the four research questions, the first three examining the use and effects of CF with the L1 and L2 and the last being about the teachers' attitudes toward CF and L1 and L2 use in the L2 classroom.

The following chapter includes definition of the CF types, error categories, and learner uptake, L1 and L2, and a review of the theoretical perspective of CF that influenced the previous empirical research on CF.

Chapter 2

CF and Theoretical Perspectives

CF refers to responses to the errors made by L2 learners in their second language production; that is, CF is teachers' comments on or responses to learners' L2 productions that are linguistically incorrect (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Sheen & Ellis, 2011). Over the years, CF has gained considerable attention in SLA research, and it has been investigated in terms of negative feedback (Long et al. 1998; Oliver, 1995; Song, 2016), negative evidence (Leeman, 2003; Kang, 2010), corrective feedback (Fanselow, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Saito & Lyster, 2012; Doski & Cele, 2018), error treatment (Beretta, 1989), and focus-on-form (e.g., Spada & Lightbown, 1993). The increasing recent evidence of the effectiveness of corrective feedback has led SLA research to switching from investigating whether CF promotes second language learning to which CF type works best (Ellis, 2009). For the last two decades, SLA researchers conducted observational and experimental studies to identify which CF types effectively contribute to L2 learning; however, teachers' language choices in CF as a determining factor have not received focus in any studies. This chapter defines the CF types, error categories and learner uptakes with examples from the dissertation data.

2.1 Evidence and Feedback

Every SLA theory and pedagogy acknowledge that input plays a significant role in second language learning. During classroom teacher-student interactions, L2 learners are exposed to linguistic evidence that can be positive or negative (Long, 1996). L2 learners can receive positive evidence from everyday oral interaction with native speakers in linguistically natural environments, or they can be provided with spoken language by their teachers or classmates in language classrooms. When learners receive the possible linguistic form in a

second language, that is positive evidence. Positive evidence comprises examples of target language features with no indication of drawing attention to them. Gass (1997) defines positive evidence as "the input that comprises the set of well-formed sentences to which learners are exposed" (p. 36). On the contrary, negative evidence gives information on what is not linguistically possible in the target language (White, 1990; Long, 1996; Gass, 1997). Sometimes the term negative evidence is used interchangeably with negative feedback and corrective feedback to refer to "the type of information that is provided to learners concerning the incorrectness of an utterance" (Gass, 1997 p. 37).

Feedback refers to teachers' or peers' responses to learners' L2 production. Interlocutors can respond to learners' word choices, pronunciation, word orders, sentence structures, as well as grammatical aspects. Kulhavy and Stock (1989) categorized feedback into *verification* and *elaboration*. Whereas verification confirms whether the utterance is linguistically correct or incorrect, elaboration shows learners clues to help learners make the correct choice. Ellis (2009) said that feedback could be positive or negative. Positive feedback is a response to learners' correct utterances. It affirms that the learner's utterance is correct. In SLA, positive feedback has not received much attention, partly because positive feedback like 'good' 'yes' or 'fine' does not always carry a certain meaning; that is, it does not say for sure that the utterance is correct. Negative feedback, in contrast, signals that the utterance is linguistically incorrect. Iwashita (2003) defined negative feedback as "an interlocutor's interactional move that indicates explicitly or implicitly any nontargetlike feature in learner's speech" (p. 2).

Scholars of different disciplines have coined different terms for corrective feedback in their studies: for example, psychologists called it *negative feedback*, SLA teachers and researchers termed it *corrective feedback*, *error feedback* or *error treatment*, and linguists called

it *negative evidence* and discourse analysts *repair*. However, Su and Tian (2016) made subtle distinctions among negative feedback, negative evidence, and corrective feedback. They held that negative feedback informs learners that there are linguistic errors in their sentences, and this feedback does not locate where the errors are and is not intended to correct the errors, whereas CF locates the errors and is intended to correct the learner production. Both are from teachers' perspectives, while the former was used in the field of psychology and the latter in SLA and language pedagogy. On the other hand, negative evidence refers to information used from learners' perspectives and used in psycholinguistics and second language acquisition fields. Feedback, either positive or negative, occurs in a context and follows a process.

According to Yun (2011), CF involves three steps: trigger (nontarget-like L2 production), feedback (responses by teachers or peers), and uptake (learners' verbal reaction to teachers' responses). Lyster & Ranta (1997) defined uptake 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" (p. 49).

2.2 Categories and Types of oral Corrective Feedback

Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorized the corrective feedback data of their descriptive study of teacher-student interactions in French immersion classes into six oral corrective feedback types: explicit correction, recasts, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition. Later, Ranta and Lyster (2007) divided the CF types into two broad categories: reformulations and prompts. Reformulations involve explicit corrections and recasts that provide learners with correct forms of their erroneous utterances, while prompts include clarification requests, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition, that push learners to produce target-like utterances. Based on the categories used in previous studies, Sheen and Ellis

(2011) presented a similar taxonomy of CF strategies such as reformulations vs. prompts and explicit vs. implicit CF. Explicit CF includes explicit corrections, metalinguistic feedback, and elicitation, while implicit CF strategies are recasts, clarification requests, and repetitions. Li (2010) defined implicit feedback as any response that does not intend to overtly draw learners' attention to their erroneous language production and explicit feedback as any indication that overtly shows that the L2 production was erroneous. Through explicit corrections, learners receive both positive and negative evidence, whereas, through prompts, they receive only negative evidence. Learners can receive negative evidence from recasts when they can perceive the corrective indication in the feedback move.

Although recasts are considered an implicit CF strategy (Long & Robinson, 1998; Long, 2007), they can also be explicit based on their characteristics and contexts (Sheen & Ellis, 2011; Sato, 2011). Sheen & Ellis's (2011) taxonomy distinguished between conversational recasts (implicit CF) and didactic recasts (explicit CF). During the conversation, teachers provide conversational recasts, usually in the form of confirmation checks, to resolve communication breaks, whereas didactic recasts are intended to correct learner errors. Their taxonomy of CF distinguished a. between explicit corrections with reformulations (such as didactic recasts and explicit corrections) and explicit corrections with prompts (such as metalinguistic feedback and elicitation) and b. between implicit corrections with reformulations (conversational recasts) and implicit corrections with prompts such as clarification requests and elicitations.

Based on different criteria, Su, and Tian (2016) divided CF into various categories. For example, based on its giver (teachers, peers, or oneself) CF can be *other-offering* or *self-giving*. Based on its purpose, CF can be either *form-focused* where grammatical correction is intended

or *meaning-focused* where mutual understanding and successful communication is the goal.

Based to its modes, CF can be *oral*, *gestural*, or *written*.

2.3 Definition of CF Types, and Uptake

Current studies of CF mainly follow Lyster and Ranta's (1997, 2007) taxonomy of CF. Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorized the teachers' CF strategies that they observed in their descriptive study in French immersion classrooms into six types: explicit correction, recasts, metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, elicitation, and repetition. The following definitions of CF types are now widely used in CF studies. The examples for the CF types below are taken from my dissertation project.

Explicit correction refers to the direct provision of the correct form with additional comments or statements that inform learners that they have made errors and where they have made the errors (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Excerpt 2.1: Explicit Correction

T: 'indaha camerat....

[She has cameras.... (The teacher pauses for the learner to add adj.)]

S: kathi:ra*

[many (needs a more adj.)]

T: Kathira, au you can say 'indaha camerat kabira kathira

[many or you can say 'she has many large cameras]

S: kathira

[many (she did not use the adj. the teacher was looking for 'large')]

Recasts refer to the reformulation of learners' L2 utterances or only of the utterances' erroneous part. Long (1996) defined recasts as "utterances which rephrase a child's utterance by changing one or more sentence components while still referring to its central meanings" (p. 434).

Excerpt 2.2: Recasts

S: Ismail, Ziyad wa Mohammad kana* fil khair

[S: Ismail, Ziad and Mohammad was well]*

T: **kaanu** fil khair

[They were well.]

Metalinguistic feedback is used to inform learners that there is a linguistic error, and learners receive some grammatical or linguistic cues in the forms of comments and questions to uptake properly. They are intended to elicit correct utterances from learners (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Excerpt 2.3: Metalinguistic Feedback

S: fa:za fauz*

[S: He made a success (not using right objective form)]*

T: haza laisa maf`ul mutlaq

[T: This is not mutlaq object.]

T: This is not a cognate object form.)

Clarification requests indicate some problems in the L2 production either in mutual understanding/meaning making or in grammatical accuracy (Spada & Frohlich, 1995). Teachers

use this feedback in response to learner utterances that contain problems in either accuracy or comprehensibility (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Excerpt 2.4: Clarification Request

S: li sharqil* wasat

[S: for the middle east (shrqil needs 'the' and wasat should be ausat)]

T: **what?**

Elicitation involves three techniques used to elicit information or correct form directly from learners. For example, teachers extract information by pausing for learners to fill the gap. Or some metalinguistic statements may be used to prompt learners to self-repair. Or teachers may also use questions to elicit information from their learners. Teachers may also explicitly ask learners to reformulate their production (Panova & Lyster, 2002).

Excerpt 2.5: Elicitation

S: Hal anti ta'mal* fi hazal maktab

[S: Do you work in this office? (The verb 'ta'mal' needs to agree with the subj. 'anti')]

T: **hal anti...**

[T: Do you... (the teacher pauses to elicit the right form of verb from the learner)]

Repetition refers to teachers' repeating learners' erroneous utterances. In the case of repetitions, teachers usually highlight the error by customizing the intonation, especially by emphatic stress (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis, 2009).

Excerpt 2.6: Elicitation

T: maza naqul ba'da Muhammad, Jiad wa Ismail?

[T: What (pronoun) should we say after Mohammad, Ziad and Ismail?]

S: Huma*

[S: They (dual form)]

T: Huma?

T: They [dual form]?)

Uptake refers to learners' responses to teachers' CF. Lyster & Ranta (1997) borrowed the term from Austin's (1962) speech act theory to refer to a discourse move that does not necessarily indicate learners' language acquisition. Uptake can be successful or unsuccessful. Lyster and Ranta (1997) coded successful learner uptake as *repair* and unsuccessful uptake as *needs-repair*. Knowing both learner repair and needs-repair is important because they indicate learners' interlanguage state.

Excerpt 2.7: Uptake

S: fa:za fauz*

[S: He made a success (The object does not agree with the verb)]

T: haza laisa maf'ul mutlaq

[T: This is not a cognate object form.]

S: Fa:za fauzan azima (repair)

[S: He made a huge success.]

2.4 Early Theoretical Perspectives and CF

Theoretically, corrective feedback has long been a contentious issue. Over the last few decades, the study of learner errors and CF has received paramount attention in SLA research influenced by linguistic perspectives. A number of early theoretical perspectives such as Contrastive Analysis, Universal Grammar, Error Analysis, Krashen's Monitor Model stood opposed to CF use in L2 classrooms and questioned its effectiveness in L2 development.

Contrastive Analysis (CA), a dominant theoretical approach in the 1950s and 1960s, received its theoretical footings on Behaviorist theory that claimed that L2 learning takes place through target-like habit formations and that learner errors prevent learners from forming those habits. Behaviorism argued for modeling language structures as preemptive measures for learners to practice avoiding committing errors rather than in corrective feedback for learners to avoid repeating the errors. CA believed that learner errors result from the learner's L1. So, CA emphasized the root causes of errors through comparing and contrasting the L1 and L2's linguistic aspects to enable L2 teachers to predict and explain learner errors beforehand so that learners can avoid errors. However, empirical evidence (e.g., Selinger, 1969) debunked the validity of this theoretical position, showing that learner errors did not always generate from the L1. At the same time, emerged Chomsky's generative grammar (1959) that propounded the creative nature of language and his Universal Grammar theory (1965) that emphasized learners' internal factors for language learning and ruled out the role of CF. Chomsky's Nativist theory of language acquisition transferred the idea of innateness from L1 acquisition to L2 acquisition. The position held that language acquisition takes place by Universal Grammar, a biologically equipped innate linguistic mechanism that creates and restructures the second language grammar with exposure to positive evidence.

Dismayed by the CA's failure to predict learner errors, and encouraged by new developments in linguistics, SLA research turned to a systemic examination of learner errors that came to be known as Error Analysis (EA). This theory held that learner errors are mostly learner-internal rather than they come from learners' L1. This position looked at learner errors positively as a sign of learners' interlingual state passing developmental phases rather than as a sinful act to be prevented (Corder, 1976). However, this standpoint soon received criticism because it could not account for learners' internal workings during language learning and determine whether the learner errors generate from the L1 or are influenced by learners' language learning process (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012).

While the early SLA research was more concerned with the analysis of errors, SLA research in the last quarter of the twentieth century turned attention to CF and its effects on L2 learning largely influenced by Krashen's (1985) Monitor Model that comprised five hypotheses downplaying the role of CF in L2 acquisition. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis distinguishes between acquisition and learning, and, as per this hypothesis, explicit instructions and CF have no role in L2 learners' language acquisition. According to his Monitor Hypothesis, explicit instructions and CF activate learners' monitors that acts as barriers and force them to focus more on accuracy than on language acquisition, hence indicating a restricted role of CF in L2 acquisition. His Natural Order Hypothesis held that learners acquire linguistic aspects or rules in a systematic order which cannot be changed by CF intervention. The Input Hypothesis that is central to his theory rejects the role of corrective feedback arguing that positive evidence or what Krashen called comprehensible input alone contributes to L2 acquisition implicating that formal grammar instruction or CF has nothing to do with L2 acquisition. His final component, the Affective Filter Hypothesis, also rejects the role of CF in L2 acquisition holding that it may

hinder L2 development by aggravating the learner's affective filter. Overall, the Monitor Model theory downplayed the role of CF in L2 acquisition, but it recognized the editing role of CF in L2 learning. However, Krashen's Monitor Model came under attack when cognitive to sociocultural perspectives influenced subsequent empirical research that found that CF contributes to L2 development and that L2 learners' interlanguage was grammatically flawed even after years of exposure to mere positive evidence.

2.5 Cognitive Perspectives and CF

The last three decades have observed the emphasis of the cognitive as well as the sociocultural value of corrective feedback in L2 acquisition. Cognitive theories assert that CF contributes to language acquisition when learners focus on meaning, receive error treatment, and recognize it as corrective. So, when learners receive CF, they are aware of language structures and meaning through negotiation. Research inspired by these theories attempts to determine which feedback strategies are most effective in L2 acquisition and explain how CF helps develop language acquisition in interaction. The primary cognitive theories include the Output Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, and the Noticing Hypothesis. Besides, Johnson (1996) developed Skill Acquisition Theory that focused on how learners grasp feedback in real-life situation.

Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis claims that interactional modifications that result from the negotiation of meaning provide L2 students with language learning input. So, teacher-learner interactions as a response to learner errors make learners aware of the meaning along with the targeted forms in the language. Through the negotiation of meaning during interactions, learners receive the opportunities to control and have better access to the input likely to be integrated to learners' interlanguage. Interactionists such as Gass (2003) emphasized the

language learning context and how L2 learners use their linguistic environment to create their L2 knowledge. In support of the Interaction Approach, Gass & Mackey (2006) hold that language learning takes place through learners' output, teachers' feedback, and learners' uptake. Doughty (2001) suggests that teachers' immediate error treatment can trigger learners' cognitive awareness for L2 acquisition. To interactionists, CF plays a catalytic role in second language acquisition. The interactionist approach insists on the learning tasks resembling contextualized events in real life situations so that learning acquired through CF interactions can be transferred to oral production in real life contextualized contexts (Lyster & Saito, 2010).

Swain's (1985, 1995) Output Hypothesis argues that mere comprehensible input is not enough for learners' L2 development. She claims that learner output in response to teachers' feedback contributes to L2 acquisition. Swain claims that for learners' language to be fluent and accurate, teachers' input alone is not adequate; learners must produce output, in response to teacher's input or corrective feedback. Her resolution came from her studies, which showed that learners failed to acquire aspects of the L2 even if they received extensive comprehensible input. This hypothesis supports teachers' use of output-pushing CF arguing that learners should be provided with a lot of prompts to push learners to produce output that manifests learners' L2 developmental process.

Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis argues that mere positive evidence is not enough for L2 acquisition because learners are not aware of the linguistic gap between interlanguage and the target language. So, noticing (awareness of the meaning and linguistic features) is a precondition to SLA, and it helps learners decipher the gap between their current linguistic state and the target language form. Researchers such as Gass & Varonis (1994) and Schmidt (1990) recognize the role of CF in L2 acquisition, arguing that CF helps learners attend to the correct

form. When learners notice the gap, they internally process the corrective feedback into intake. Similarly, Skill Acquisition Theory of Anderson (1983) and DeKeyser (2003) asserts that skill learning is a process that involves the development of declarative (controlled) knowledge and procedural (automated) knowledge. CF helps learners acquire declarative knowledge and monitor incorrect information to not get into learners' procedural knowledge (Chen et al. 2016). This theory stresses the pivotal role of CF interactions in contextualized practices, systematically leading a learner from an effortful to more automatic L2 use (DeKeyser, VanPatten, & Williams, 2007).

2.6 The Sociocultural Theory and CF

The sociocultural theory developed from the Russian psychologist Vygotsky (1896-1934) argues that language learning is manifested in social interaction rather than in learners' mental awareness. Researchers (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2002; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000; Park, 2005; Lightbown and Spada, 2006) extended Vygotsky's theories to second language acquisition and observed CF from a different point of view, claiming that language learning becomes possible through social interactions between learners and peers. This theory argues that language learning takes place through participation in the interaction within *the zone of proximal development* for individual L2 learners, a zone in between learners' present language levels and the potential levels, defined in terms of what learners can do individually and what they can do with help. When learners are assisted (through scaffolding, one form of which can be CF) by their peers or interlocutors to perform linguistic features within the zone of proximal development, this other-regulation enables learners to eventually gain control of emergent linguistic features, allowing them to produce them on their own (Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

There is no one-size-fits-all characteristic in the social interaction that creates unanimous affordances for all learners. What seems to be facilitative corrective feedback for one learner might not be the same for another one. So, affordances, the sociocultural theory suggests, should be tailored to individual learners' developmental level. In sociocultural theory, CF's purpose is to help learners develop self-regulation by correcting their errors without assistance from others. When it comes to sociocultural theory in relation to CF, it is important to bear in mind at least two points. First, Sociocultural theory rejects the cognitive perspective that it is possible to identify the most effective CF strategies for L2 learning. Instead, the sociocultural theory emphasizes the relative effectiveness of varying strategies suitable to individual learners' developmental levels. Second, CF, in the sociocultural theoretical framework, mostly applies to language learning in oral settings.

Although CF, from theoretical and pedagogical perspectives, has been a controversial issue in SLA for the last couple of decades, recent major studies, and meta-analysis of CF in instructed SLA consistently show that CF assists second language learning (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007, Li, 2010, Rusell & Spada, 2006; Doski & Cele, 2018). Hence, current SLA research on CF has shifted from examining if CF fosters L2 learning to investigating which feedback works best for promoting L2 learning.

2.7 Chapter Summary

In L2 classrooms teachers provide linguistic evidence, both positive and negative. While positive evidence refers to teachers' provision of possible linguistic features in the target language, negative evidence shows what is not linguistically possible in the L2. Sometimes negative evidence is interchangeably used for CF that refers to provision of information about the erroneous utterance (Gass, 1997). CF is characterized by teachers' or peers' response to

learner errors in order to modify their errors. This dissertation project adapts Lyster and Ranta's (1997, 2007) taxonomy CF and error categories and learner uptake. The CF types include reformulations (explicit correction, recasts) and prompts (metalinguistic feedback, clarification requests, elicitation, repetition, and mixed feedback) and mixed feedback (either reformulations or prompts). In terms of explicitness, explicit CF covers explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and mixed feedback, and implicit CF comprises recasts, clarification requests and repetition. Learner uptake refers to learners' responses to teachers' CF. The learner response becomes 'repair' when learners correct the error, and it becomes 'needs repair' when the error has not been corrected. The study looked at three categories of errors that the learners committed during CF interactions.

The early theoretical linguistic perspectives such as Contrastive Analysis, Universal Grammar, Error Analysis and Krashen's Monitor Model debunked the contributory role of CF in L2 acquisition. However, cognitive perspectives such as the Output Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, the Noticing Hypothesis, the Skill Acquisition Theory, and the Sociocultural Theory recognized the abundance of CF in social interactions and its positive role in L2 development.

The following chapter reviews the major empirical studies on CF and the L1 use in the L2 classroom and their effect on L2 development.

Chapter 3

Literature Review

The academic establishment of CF's role has preceded many empirical studies that examined different CF patterns and their effects on L2 learning. Except for a few early observational studies, the results of the major studies consistently showed that corrective feedback positively affected L2 learning. In most studies, corrective feedback was examined in terms of implicit and explicit feedback. Implicit feedback refers to feedback that does not involve any overt indication that the learner's utterance is erroneous, whereas explicit feedback includes the indication that the utterance has an error (Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006). Ellis (2009) categorized recasts, repetition, and clarification requests as implicit feedback strategies whereas explicit correction, metalinguistic explanation, elicitation, and paralinguistic signal as explicit feedback strategies. Observational research shows that teachers predominantly used implicit feedback in the form of recasts. Teachers use recasts because this type of feedback reformulates the target form non-intrusively in a context that connects both form and meaning (Long, 2007). As to the L1 use in L2 classrooms, prior studies found the L1 use in L2 classroom in order to give the meaning of and explain new words, clarify grammatical structure, and socialize, and to introduce new topics, translate sentences and give CF feedback (Paker & Karaagac, 2015; Al-Nofaie, 2010; Senel, 2010; Moghadam et al., 2012). This chapter provides a review of the prior observational and interventional studies on CF and LI use in L2 classrooms.

3.1 Observational Studies on CF in SLA.

Over the years, descriptive studies of CF have examined interactional CF characteristics and learner responses to different feedback types to uncover CF's role in L2 acquisition. Lyster and Ranta's (1997) seminal study on CF included all types of verbal acknowledgments (uptakes)

rather than mere learner repairs to understand learner intake. Subsequently, a body of empirical studies followed their study and examined interactional CF characteristics and learner responses to different feedback types to uncover CF's role in L2 acquisition. Studies have used uptake and repair (e.g., Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Mackey et al., 2003, 1998; Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Roothoof, 2014; Shirani, 2019) and corrective feedback noticing (e.g., Mackey et al., 2000; Philip, 2003; Egi, 2010) to measure the effectiveness of L2 learning.

Early studies (e.g., Chaudron, 1977; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998; Oliver, 2000; Mackey et al., 2003) found that L2 teachers provide their learners with CF in response to learners' non-target like utterances during classroom interactions. Some early studies (e.g., Chaudron, 1977; Brock et al., 1986) suggested that L2 learners did not always produce repair in response to CF. Mostly, learners were unlikely always to incorporate recasts in the following turns. Chaudron's (1977) study of French immersion classes shows that learners receiving recasts without metalinguistic explanations led to more repairs than recasts with additional information. In contrast, Slimani's (1992) study of classroom feedback interaction showed recasts with metalinguistic comments were more likely to be incorporated with learner repair.

Lyster & Ranta (1997) considered that only target-like modified output (learner repair) does not reflect learners' intake. So, they analyzed all types of verbal acknowledgment (uptake) of L2 learners in response to interlocutors' feedback. Lyster and Ranta analyzed four French immersion classrooms' teacher-student interactions to identify the relation between six different types of feedback—recasts, explicit correction, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and repetition—and learner uptake. The study found that teachers provided CF on 62% learner errors, where recasts constitute the highest used CF type (55%). Recast was the least

successful feedback type compared to elicitations and clarifications that led to a higher uptake rate regarding the repair rate.

Several studies (e.g., Suzuki, 2004; Jimenez, 2006; Yoshida, 2008; Shirani, 2019) measured L2 development through learner repair. They focused on L2 teachers' feedback and learners' immediate repair. Most studies reported the preponderant practices of recasts in CF interactions with their effects on uptake and repair. For example, Suzuki's (2004) study of adult ESL intermediate learners suggested that recasts contributed to language development because the study found that recasts' frequency rate accounted for 60% of the total feedback types and led to 66% learner repairs. Jimenez's (2006) study observed two Italian EFL classes of two distinct proficiency levels. The findings showed that recasts were the most frequently used CF type with a considerable learner repair rate. Yoshida's (2008) study of teachers' CF choices and learners' feedback preferences in Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) classrooms showed that teachers extensively used recasts during CF. The teachers explained that recasts were less intimidating for learners and proved effective in limited time period classes. Along the same line, Choi & Li's (2012) study of 6 child ESOL classes in a primary school in New Zealand found that teachers mostly used recasts and explicit correction that led to relatively high uptake rates. Besides, Fu & Nassaji (2016) and Shirani's (2019) study also showed that explicit recasts connect with higher uptake and repair rates. Learner repair in response to recasts rests on many factors such as learners' proficiency level (Mackey and Philip, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002), instructional context (Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Sheen, 2004), learners' orientations to feedback (Ellis & Sheen, 2006), and selection of target items (Kim & Han, 2007).

The number of studies showing the ineffectiveness of recasts is not insignificant. Panova and Lyster's (2002) study of corrective feedback in an adult ESL classroom showed that the most

frequent feedback types were recasts and translation (CF in learners' L1), the former being more than half of the total feedback moves, and both totaling 77% of the feedback moves. However, these feedback types led to the lowest rate of repair. Similarly, Parvin's (2013) study of adolescent EFL learners found the highest recast use with the least uptake and repair while explicit correction, clarification request, and elicitation resulted in a much higher uptake rate. Esmaeili & Behnam's (2014) study of three elementary EFL classes in an Iranian language institute found that recasts were the most frequently used feedback type, but elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and clarification request received a greater rate of learner repairs. Similar findings are also reported by Niopour & Zoghi (2014), Shirani (2019), Demir, and Ozmen (2017). Regarding learners' less uptake or repair in response to recasts, Long (1996) held that learners might interpret recasts as an alternative way to say the same thing and thus fail to understand that their utterance was not linguistically acceptable.

By re-analyzing CF data of Lyster and Ranta (1997), Lyster (1998) examined teachers' specific feedback strategies in relation to learners' specific error types. The analysis of recasts, explicit correction, and the negotiation of form (metalinguistic clues, elicitation, repetitions, and clarification requests) showed that teachers used negotiation of form more in response to lexical errors. In contrast, they used recasts more in response to grammatical and phonological errors. The analysis revealed that recasts resulted in greater repair for phonological errors whereas the negotiation of form resulted in greater repair for lexical and grammatical errors. Lyster suggested that teachers correct grammatical errors with the negotiation of form because it prompts learners to notice the gap between interlanguage and the target form and pushes them to output.

Focusing on the role of attention to and awareness of linguistic form in L2 development led some studies (e.g., Roberts, 1995; Mackey et al., 2000; Philip, 2003; Egi, 2010) to methods

other than analyzing uptake to assess learners' noticing CF and the gap between their current linguistic status and the target form because noticing reflects the effectiveness of CF. These studies usually employed retrospective verbal protocols to collect data in that L2 learner participants watched back their classroom interactions and identified teachers' CF moves. Whereas Roberts' (1995) study showed that more than 46% of corrective feedback went unnoticed by the learners, learners noticed more than 85% of feedback in Mackey et al.'s (2000) laboratory study. This discrepancy in noticeability can be due to the two different research contexts and the two studies' methodologies. One common finding in both studies was that the participants frequently noticed and identified the target form when instructors used the negotiation of form to address lexical errors. It means that the error type and the feedback type are likely to interact in determining the salience of CF. Mackey et al.'s study also revealed that recasts were most frequently used for morphosyntactic errors least often noticed by learners. One interesting finding of Mackey et al.'s and Philip's (2003) studies was that the participants often produced target-like form in response to CF even though they overlooked the CF. However, the analysis of participants' stimulated recall reports in Egi's (2010) study suggests that learners produce more repairs when they were able to perceive recasts as corrective feedback. The study also showed that the learners were able to recognize recasts and notice the gap between their erroneous utterances and the target form where they modified their output correctly. For Long (2007), learners attend to form and keep focused on meaning during interactions when they receive recasts. Explicit recasts or what Sheen & Ellis (2011) named didactic recasts comprise their characteristics, such as their linguistic focus and part of and stress on the reformulation to the erroneous utterance. Interactionist hypothesis ascribed important role to recasts saying that recasts provide learners with opportunities to notice the gap between the interlanguage and the

target form without communication interruptions (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Whether learners receive negative evidence from recasts or not depends on the contexts' role to enable learners to perceive that the recasts are didactic intended to correct learner errors, not conversational to propel the communication. Bower and Kawaguchi's (2011) argument that learners' modified output and interlocutors' reformulated input interact in helping learners notice the gap better in their interlanguage and the target form supports Schmidts' (1995) claim that CF promotes noticing in L2 acquisition.

SLA teachers should consider contexts, instructional setting, and learner orientation while deciding their CF strategies in the classroom because the extent to which CF is effective depends on many factors such as contexts (e.g., Sheen, 2006; Ellis & Chang, 2009; Oliver & Mackey, 2003), and instructional setting (Sheen, 2004), learner orientations (Rassaei, 2014). A range of classroom, learner, teacher, and contextual variables impact the use and effectiveness of feedback in classroom settings. For example, Sheen (2006) showed differential effects of recasts based on four different contexts: ESL classrooms in New Zealand, a French immersion class, EFL classrooms in Korea, and ESL classrooms in Canada. The study showed more frequent use and a larger effect of recasts in EFL contexts than in ESL contexts. Mackey and Goo's (2007) meta-analysis also showed larger effects for recasts in EFL contexts. Oliver and Mackey (2003) found discourse contexts in SLA classroom greatly determine whether recasts elicit immediate uptakes. They showed that recasts produced higher uptake rates when used explicitly in language-focused contexts. For Sheen (2004), the effect of recasts on learner uptakes varies based on instructional setting and context. Simhony & Chanyoo (2018) found that teachers in public school classrooms in Thailand used recasts most in the EFL classes, whereas metalinguistic feedback was most common in classes in a private international school. The

research suggests that the much smaller class size and the teacher's greater confidence in the student's ability to correct their errors may have led to this difference. This finding echoes Li's (2014) study of corrective feedback and learner uptakes in university-level Chinese classrooms in the United States. The results showed that recast was the most common CF type used by the teachers. However, learners' language proficiency and their orientation into classroom communication were affected by learner uptakes, not just feedback type. Rassaei's (2014) study showed that high anxiety learners benefited significantly more from recasts than from metalinguistic feedback. Demir and Ozmen's (2017) study of 55 hours of instructions of 7 native English-speaking teachers (NEST) and seven non-native English-speaking teachers (NNEST) in EFL classrooms at three universities in Turkey followed by interviews showed that NESTs provided far more corrective feedback (59% of the learner errors) than the NNESTs (41% of the learner errors). Recasts were the most used corrective feedback type by both the NESTs and NNESTs (NEST provided 81% recasts as CF where NNESTs gave 73% recasts of their respective total CF). Both teacher types rarely used explicit correction as their CF. The observational studies shed light on CF use and learner uptake in the classroom. However, experimental studies on the use of specific CF types and learner uptake provide a better understanding of the role of CF interactions in L2 learning.

3.2 Meta-analyses of CF Studies

Meta-analyses (e.g., Russell & Spada, 2006; Li, 2010; Lyster and Saito, 2010; Mackey and Goo, 2007) synthesized the overall effect of CFs in instructed SLA and found that the results indicated a significant role of CFs on assisting second language learning. For example, Mackey and Goo (2007) analyzed 22 studies on interaction to see its effect on L2 learning. Since CF became an integral part of L2 teaching, the meta-analysis also examined CF's impact on L2

learning in those studies. The analysis showed that the immediate posttests resulted in a smaller mean effect size (0.71) than short-term posttests (1.09), meaning that the feedback went through an increased effect over a short term. The CF type analyses showed that the mean effect size for recasts was 0.96, for negotiation .52, and metalinguistic feedback 0.47. Lyster and Saito (2010) conducted a meta-analysis of fifteen classroom-based studies to examine CF's pedagogical efficacy on L2 development. The analysis discussed if the differences in CF types, timing, outcome measures, instructional contexts, learners' age, and treatment length have differential effects on learner uptake and L2 learning. The analysis showed that CF significantly affected L2 learning, and prompts elicited more constructed responses than recasts. Instructional contexts did not prove a contributory factor.

In contrast, short and medium treatments were found less effective than long treatments, and younger learners benefited more from CF than older learners. Li (2010) analyzed 33 oral CF studies published between 1988 and 2007 and found that CF's overall effect on L2 acquisition was medium over time. However, CF's effect was found much stronger in laboratories than in classrooms. The effect also varied across instructional contexts, such as CF's effect in foreign language contexts was more significant than in second language contexts. Another finding of the analysis was that explicit feedback was more effective than implicit feedback in the immediate posttest, while implicit feedback outperformed explicit feedback in long-delayed posttests. Overall, meta-analyses of CF studies supported a positive role of CFs in instructed SLA. There has developed a consensus in SLA research that CF is helpful to SLA learners. CF, both input-providing and output-pushing and both implicit and explicit, facilitates L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2017), although many factors determine CF's nature and effectiveness (Bao, 2019).

3.3 Intervention Studies of CF

Classroom intervention studies investigated the effects of explicit CF strategies vs. implicit CF strategies or prompts vs. recasts, on L2 learners' learning process and showed overall positive effects for CF and outperformance of prompts and explicit corrections over recasts. (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2004; Ellis et al. 2006; Sheen, 2007; Ellis, 2007, Kang, 2009; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Li, 2009; Yang & Lyster, 2010; Saito & Lyster, 2012; Lyster & Izquierdo, 2009; Guchte et al., 2015; Doski & Cele, 2018). Treatment groups receiving CF outperformed the control groups that did not receive CF but prompts and explicit corrections proved more effective than recasts.

The effectiveness of CF and the outperformance of prompts over recasts are substantiated by a number of experimental studies. For example, Doughty & Varela (1998) investigated the effects of 'corrective recasts' in two ESL classrooms. They defined corrective recasts as reformulations after repetitions of learner errors. The study showed that the group that received corrective recasts outperformed the group receiving no CF in the same tasks. Saito & Lyster's (2012) study of the effects of recasts on learners' acquisition of the sound /ɪ/ in adult ESL class showed the control group that received recasts for mispronunciation demonstrated considerable gains. And the students receiving recasts with explicit corrections showed significant improvement. Ammar & Spada's (2006) study examining the effects of prompts and recasts in learners' acquisition of possessive determiners in ESL classes showed that the groups receiving CF outperformed the group that did not receive CF, and prompts proved significantly more effective than recasts. More effectiveness of prompts than of recasts was manifested in Lyster's (2004) study that examined the role of CF and form-focused instruction in L2 learners' grammatical gender acquisition in French immersion classes. The study showed that in all eight

posttests, treatment groups receiving recasts and prompts outperformed the control group that did not receive CF, and the prompts group significantly performed better than the recast group. Yang & Lyster's (2010) study in EFL classrooms in China investigating the differential effects of prompts, recasts, and no CF on learners' acquisition of past tense forms showed that the groups that received recasts and prompts outperformed the no CF group, and the effects of the prompts were more significant than recasts on regular past tense forms accuracy tasks. In a private language school in New Zealand, Ellis et al. (2006) compared the effects of explicit feedback in metalinguistic explanations and implicit feedback in the form of recasts on ESL learners' acquisition of regular past tense. The study showed that metalinguistic feedback proved more effective than recasts overall, and the effect was more significant in the delayed posttest than in the immediate one. In the same vein, Sheen's (2007) study investigating the differential effects of metalinguistic feedback and recasts on ESL learners' acquisition of article use showed that the treatment group that received metalinguistic feedback performed significantly better than the recasts group and the control group. The explicitness of metalinguistic feedback in this study was strengthened by the explicit provision of correct forms along with metalinguistic explanations. Sheen (2010) suggested that metalinguistic feedback that provided both the correct form and grammatical explanations would be more effective than metalinguistic feedback that gave only grammatical explanations. Sheen's claim lent support to Carroll and Swain's (1993) study. Lyster and Izquierdo's (2009) study of the effects of prompts and recasts on the acquisition of grammar gender by L2 adult French learners showed that both treatment groups receiving recasts and prompts improved reaction time scores and accuracy significantly over time in the pretest, immediate and delayed posttests, but the group receiving prompts performed better than the recast group. Doski and Cele's (2018) study of the effects of recasts and prompts on English

article acquisition also found that both treatment groups receiving prompts and recasts respectively outperformed the control group that received no CF. However, in the delayed posttest, the treatment group that received prompts significantly outperformed the recast group and the control group, suggesting that prompts work more effectively in language acquisition and retention. Haifa and Emma's (2014) experimental study of English models by 36 pre-intermediate learners found that both the treatment groups receiving recasts and metalinguistic feedback respectively outperformed the control group in both the pretest and immediate/delayed posttest scores. Overall, studies showed that CF groups performed better than control groups and prompts proved more effective recasts.

However, laboratory classroom studies substantiated the effectiveness of corrective recasts as well as explicit corrections leading to the overall positive effects of CF in L2 acquisition (Mackey & Philip 1998; Leeman, 2003; Iwashita, 2003; McDonough & Mackey, 2006). Recasts in laboratory studies were mostly defined as explicit reformulations to draw learners notice to their corrective purposes. For example, Mackey & Philip (1998) compared the effects of recasts on the acquisition of question forms. The treatment group received intensive recasts, and the control group received no CF; rather, the researcher used negotiation instead. The results showed that in most cases, the interaction consisted of overlaps between recasts and negotiation that contributed to larger effects on learners' acquisition of question forms. Han's (2002) laboratory study of eight ESL learners found that intensive recasts helped learners notice their errors and develop their knowledge of syntactic and morphological features. The study identified four conditions for recasts to contribute to second language learning: individualized attention, developmental readiness, consistent focus, and intensity. Learners were found to attain metalinguistic awareness when learners were directed to a single structure and provided with

recasts explicitly. Loewen & Philip (2006) that compared the effects of recasts with different characteristics (linguistic focus, segmentation, number of changes and length) on adult ESL learners' uptake and L2 acquisition, showed that the effectiveness of recasts differed based on their characteristics, meaning that explicit linguistic focus evident in recasts contributed to uptake and learning.

In line with the results of classroom intervention studies, laboratory studies also have demonstrated the outperformance of explicit correction strategies over implicit ones in the L2 acquisition. For example, Carroll et al.'s (1992) laboratory study included 79 native English speakers learning French as a second language in intermediate and advanced proficiency levels. The experimental group received explicit correction on two rules of French suffixation. The study revealed that the treatment group who received explicit corrections outperformed the control group who did not receive CF. Carroll and Swain's (1993) subsequent study of dative alternation found that explicit feedback (in which learners were informed of their errors and provided the correct forms with explicit explanations) was more effective than indirect metalinguistic feedback and recasts. Lyster's (1998) study showed that explicit feedback led to more uptake with repair than implicit feedback. Overall, explicit CF or multiple feedback strategies within a feedback turn were likely to result in larger effects.

Although most classroom intervention studies support the larger effects of prompts on the acquisition of particular linguistic forms, caution should be taken while generalizing the supremacy of prompts over recasts because in most studies, prompts comprised more than one CF strategies such as in Ellis et al.'s (2006) metalinguistic feedback referred to both provisions of explicit correction and metalinguistic explanation. It is difficult to distinguish whether it is the explicit correction or metalinguistic explanation that resulted in the more effectiveness of

prompts. The presence of the multi-constituents within prompts has resulted in the criticism that studies of the differential effects of recasts vs. prompts are like those of one variable vs. multiple variables. Whereas implicit CF in the name of recasts is defined in a restricted way that may involve the mere reformulation of the target form, explicit feedback in the name of prompts or metalinguistic explanations include multiple feedback strategies within the same feedback turn such as linguistic explanation, corrective feedback, focused practice, and repetition (Lyster, Sato & Saito, 2013). Overall, CF has positive role in the process of L2 development and explicit CF strategies have proved more effective in both classroom and laboratory settings. However, from previous studies of CF so far, little is known about teachers' use of learners L1 in corrective feedback, although teachers' use of L1 in the L2 classrooms is now common, as evidenced by different studies.

3.4 L1 Use in L2 Classrooms

The failure of the Grammar-Translation method to produce communicatively fluent L2 learners led to the perception that L1 use in the L2 classroom was unproductive, boring, and irrelevant (Harmer, 2001). Consequently, the Direct Method and the Audio-lingual Method banned the use of L1 in L2 teaching. In line with these methods, Krashen's (1985) Input Hypothesis emphasized the maximum provision of comprehensible input in the target language, which, he claimed, would lead to language acquisition. Subsequently, in the 1970s and 1980s, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach focused on the communicative competence of L2 learners by the exclusive use of the target language in the classroom. The use of L1 was considered an impediment to learners' opportunities to experience and use the target language.

Currently, the negative perception of L1 use in L2 classrooms is changing. The use of L1 has started being a resource and pedagogical tool, facilitating L2 acquisition. The debate about the use of L1 in the L2 classroom is derived from two pedagogical perspectives: The Monolingual Approach and The Bilingual Approach. The proponents of the Monolingual Approach such as Pachler & Field (2001) hold that the medium of communication in the L2 classroom should be exclusively the target language because the use of L1 hinders language acquisition while the use of L2 facilitates the second language development by learners' exposure to the target language. Sharma (2006) argued that learners' exposure to the target language quickens their language learning because when they hear and use the language, they can internalize the language. The proponents of this approach argue that exposure to the L1 might lead to learner errors because of the negative transfer. Krashen and Terrel (1983) held that L2 learners learn the language following the L1 learning path suggesting that L1 use be minimized in L2 classroom communication. On the other hand, the Bilingual Approach is liberal and democratic in that it considers learners' cognitive and sociocultural perspectives. The advocates of this approach (such as Atkinson, 1987; Paker & Karaağaç, 2015; Bradshaw, 2006) hold that L1 can be a powerful resource if used in a balanced way. They argue that the use of L1 in the L2 classroom fosters L2 learning. This approach is based on some empirical studies that identified the effective use of L1 in language analysis, vocabulary translation and definition, grammar explanation, class management, checking for comprehension, and giving prompts.

3.5 L1 Use in L2 Classrooms and CF

There is little controversy about the importance of input in the target language for L2 learners to acquire their language skills (Ghorbani, 2011), and so researchers (proponents of the Monolingual Approach) advised that L2 learners be exposed to the target language use in the

classroom to receive maximum input in that language. However, proponents of the Bilingual Approach suggest that a balanced use of the L1 in SLA classroom discourse has a contributory role as well (Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2005; Sharma, 2006; Garcia, 2009; Al-Nofaie, 2010; Machaal, 2012; Neokleous, 2017). Macaro (2005) held that L1 should be used in foreign language classes, especially for low proficiency learners, to lack linguistic knowledge. L1 use in group interaction facilitates L2 learning within the zone of proximal development (Anton & Dicomilla, 1999; Wells, 1999; Morahan, 2010). L1 use can be a great pedagogical strategy if used in proper time and proper ways (Atkinson, 1993; Jadallah & Hasan, 2011).

Studies that explored the use of learners' L1 from cognitive perspectives show that the use of L1 provides learners with cognitive support to analyze the language and complete language tasks. Storch and Wigglesworth (2003) examined the use of L1 by 24 undergraduate ESL learners who were assigned in pairs a joint composition task and reconstruction task. The study found that most of the pairs used their L1 during collaborative composition for task management and task clarification. Most pairs used their L1 for vocabulary meaning and grammar explanation during their reconstruction task. They report that learners' use of their first language enables them to accomplish cognitively demanding tasks and verbal interactions. They also report that the L1 use helps them develop strategies to manage difficult tasks.

Research that examined the use of L1 in L2 teaching and interaction from a sociocultural perspective claims that L1 enables learners to work within the zone of proximal development (ZPD) as proposed by Vygotsky, and it helps them produce the language, especially in the peer work. Anton & DiCamilla's (1999) study of first language collaborative interaction investigated the role of L1 in the collaborative interaction of ten adult Spanish learners who were native English speakers. The use of L1 was found instrumental in providing peers with scaffolded help

and externalizing learners' inner voice. Learners achieved various linguistic forms and communicative moves through their use of L1. The study found that L1 use led them through their ZPD and helped them devise cognitive strategies in scaffolding. Their findings support the studies of Wells (1999) and Morahan (2010). Morahan maintained that learners' occasional use of L1 with L2 in pair or group work might help them better accomplish cognitively demanding tasks than merely using the L2 in the classroom. Swain and Lapkin (2000) studied the L1 use in two 8th grade French classes, one assigned to a dictogloss task in pairs and the other to jigsaw one. The results showed that the use of L1(English) contributed to the collective understanding of the text, managing the task, and enhancing interaction, and drawing attention on grammatical items and vocabulary. Swain and Lapkin suggested that the use of L1 might help L2 learners, especially the low proficiency ones, develop their language skills by facilitating classroom activities. Ghorbani (2011) studied the use of L1 in teacher-student interaction in L2 classroom activities. The study found that learners extensively used L1 in discourse initiation during pair/group work, and both teachers and students used L1 while giving and seeking information.

A consistent finding in previous studies was that the L1 was used to define novel vocabulary and explain grammatical structures effectively. Studies suggested that the judicious use of L1 can contribute to L2 learning. Cianflone's (2009) study of the L1 use in EFL context at a university in Italy found that both teachers and students appreciated the L1 use in defining vocabulary, explaining grammar, and clarifying difficult concepts. The researcher recommended the judicious use of L1. His study also showed that advanced EFL learners performed better when teachers used L1 in explaining new vocabulary and grammar. Some studies also found that low proficiency level EFL learners also benefited from L1 use in explaining vocabulary. Bouangeune (2009) conducted a case study at a university in Laos. The study found that

teachers' use of L1 in vocabulary teaching was effective. They taught the treatment group vocabulary through translation and dictation, and the results showed that the treatment group outperformed the control group in explaining and translating vocabulary. Sharma (2006) observed four high school EFL classes and questionnaire-surveyed twenty teachers and one hundred students to investigate the use of L1 in the classes in Nepal. The study showed that most participants preferred L1 in defining difficult words, explaining grammar, and establishing rapport between teachers and students. This finding was supported by Bhooth, Azman, and Ismail's (2014) study of how EFL students at a university in Yemen perceived L1 use in the classroom and what functions were accomplished by using L1 in their classrooms. The study showed that the L1 was used in the classrooms as a functional strategy to translate vocabulary, clarify new concepts, and interact with each other. These findings were consistent in other studies of L1 use in EFL contexts.

Further, research has suggested that L1 use by teachers can serve interpersonal functions such as building rapport, maintaining discipline, motivating students, and cognitive functions like clarifying and deepening conceptual understanding (Iyitoglu, 2016; Paker & Karaagac, 2015; Alshehri, 2017). Paker and Karaagac's (2015) study revealed that the use of L1 was an inseparable L2 teaching strategy at university in Turkey. The L1 use served different functions such as building rapport, topic clarifications, and concept explanation. Iyitoglu's (2016) ethnographic study of EFL teachers' and high school students' alternation between the first language and target language was found to serve for teachers seven functions such as "facilitating understanding of grammatical structures and vocabulary, maintaining discipline, motivating students, repetition for clarification, establishing effective communication, giving instruction" while for students three functions such as vocabulary learning, explaining grammar,

and demonstrating their attitude (p. 257). Alshehri (2017) surveyed 104 EFL teachers and interviewed five EFL teachers at a Saudi university to explore teachers' use of learners' first language in EFL undergraduate classrooms. The study showed that more than 50% of teachers never used Arabic (first language) while giving corrective feedback, assessing learners, and giving them information, and 30% of teachers sometimes used the first language to build up a rapport with students and explain grammar; however, all teachers in the interviews said that they used the first language to translate and define vocabulary. This study only collected teacher reports of their L1 use, and that teacher beliefs about how they provide feedback do not always match their actual feedback provision practice. However, direct observation of teachers is needed to see how the L1 is actually used in the classroom during CF provision. While research has made it clear that limited use of the students' L1 by the teacher can promote learning, prior research has not considered whether L1 use impacts CF interactions' effectiveness. Because L1 use is common in foreign language settings, and because CF is also common in language learning settings, it is likely that the students' L1 is used at times by teachers when providing CF. The purpose of the current study is to explore how teachers make use of feedback in an Arabic language classroom when they use their students' L1 (English) in feedback provision, and how this impacts learner responses to feedback by investigating the following research questions:

In Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL) classrooms:

1. What are the CF types provided by AFL teachers with L1 and L2 use?
2. Do AFL teachers provide CF differently for different error types using the L1 and L2?
3. Which CF types with L1 and L2 use most frequently lead to learner repairs?

4. What are teacher beliefs and perceptions of CF and switching between the L1 and L2 during CF?

3.6 Chapter Summary

Over the years CF has been investigated mostly in terms of explicitness where uptake and repair, and corrective feedback noticing were used to measure the effectiveness of L2 learning. Overall, the studies found that both implicit and explicit CF strategies facilitate L2 development. Most research that measured L2 development through learner repair found the predominant practices of recasts in CF interactions with varying degrees of effects on learner uptake and repair. Whereas some studies found the relatively low effectiveness of recasts, others found that the repair rates for recasts were significantly high. However, the effectiveness of recasts rests on learners' proficiency levels, instructional context, learners' orientations to feedback, selection of instructional items and most importantly, the nature of recasts (corrective or supportive). In most intervention studies, the treatment groups receiving CF were found to outperform the control groups that did not receive, and CF and prompts proved more effective than recasts in leading to learner uptake. Studies examining teachers' CF types in relation to learners' error categories found that teachers mostly used negotiation of meaning (metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetitions, and clarification requests) for lexical errors whereas recasts for phonological and grammatical errors. Studies using corrective feedback noticing to measure the effectiveness of CF presented varied results most likely due to instructional contexts and research methodologies. Along with explicit correction, recasts were also found to enable learners to recognize their errors, especially when they were provided with salience for corrective purposes.

In parallel, a growing interest in the study of L1 use in L2 classrooms has recently developed and a plethora of research has already suggested that a balanced use of the L1 in the

L2 classroom, especially in the low proficiency class, contributes to L2 learning. L1 use in group interactions was found to facilitate L2 learning within the zone of proximal development. Studies showed that teachers used the L1 in the L2 classroom to serve a couple of purposes such as to define new vocabulary, build rapport, maintain discipline, motivate students, and clarify and deepen conceptual understanding. Given that judicious use of the L1 in the L2 classroom promotes L2 learning, prior studies are yet to address how L1 use affects CF interactions' effectiveness in L2 development.

In the next chapter, I discuss the research methods that explicate research design, research context, sample populations, data collection procedure, data coding scheme, data analysis, etc.

Chapter 4

Methods

This chapter discusses the research design, and describes the participants, setting and context of this study, error treatment procedure, data coding scheme, operationalizations of CF types and uptake with examples taken from the observation data, inter-rater reliability, data collection procedure and instrument, and the data analysis methods.

4.1 Design

This study aimed to add to the knowledge of the role of CF and the effect of first language use in CF on learners' second language learning. This study examined (1) learners' erroneous utterances, (2) teachers' oral corrective feedback types, and the (3) effect of their use of learners' L1 (English) on learners' uptakes and (4) teachers' beliefs about CF and their rationale behind using specific corrective strategies. This study used a mixed-method approach that included structured observations and semi-structured interviews. These observation and interview methods helped make up the limitations that a single data collection method might have in classroom study (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2005).

The observation method is suited for this study because through this method, the study obtained the numerical data and measurements of teachers' corrective feedback and students' response behaviors. This research approach predetermined what specific classroom behaviors would be observed and studied (Medley, 1992; McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The observational method for this study was chosen because it provides a realistic picture of what is going on in classrooms and contributes to a better understanding of successful teaching (Waxman et al., 2004). I analyzed feedback sequences in a data set that included twenty hour-long videorecording of two Arabic classes (lower intermediate and higher intermediate) over two

months. This approach enabled me to record and analyze extensive data of teacher-student interactions during teachers' feedback and learners' responses.

Structured observation, as a data collection approach, used three stages: (a) observing and recording of the classroom interactions, (b) coding of the data based on some predetermined categories, and (c) analysis of the data (Galton, 1988). Accordingly, for this study, I audio-recorded and/or video-recorded all teacher-student interactions of the twenty hour-long classes observed. Then the data were transcribed and coded based on some predetermined themes and then analyzed. I remained unobtrusive during class observations and video-recordings. A total of 20 hour-observation data from two classes, each comprising 15 students, were coded based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and Ranta & Lyster's (2007) taxonomy of CF types. The categories of behaviors studied in the observation data included learners' error types, teachers' CF types, their L1 use and the L2 language, and learner uptake. The analysis looked at the frequency of error types, the distribution and frequency of different corrective feedback types, the frequency and distribution of L1 and L2 language use, and the frequency and distribution of uptakes and their relation to a specific feedback type.

I collected narrative description data through structured interviews to understand teachers' beliefs about CF and L1 use in L2 classrooms as a pedagogical approach to language teaching and find why teachers employ certain corrective feedback types. The interview data were collected in two phases from the two class teachers and were analyzed based on Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) tripartite attitudes model. The interview data helped me understand and interpret the quantitative data found by observing teacher-learner feedback-uptake interactions. This qualitative approach helped find answers to questions regarding classroom feedback and uptake practices in the classes observed.

4.2 Participants and Setting

This present study took place at a private K-12 school in Memphis, Tennessee. The school requires Arabic as the core subject from the first grade to the twelfth grade. Two different proficiency level classes (sixth grade and ninth grade) were observed. The teachers were interviewed twice, once at the end of the observations and once after the primary data analysis. Lower intermediate (LI) Arabic was taught in the sixth-grade class while higher intermediate (HI) Arabic in the ninth-grade class. For this study, Ahlan refers to the sixth-grade teacher while Faruq refers to the ninth-grade class teacher.

As Table 1 shows, Ahlan was a 46-year-old female Arabic language teacher who taught Arabic for ten years. She was born in Libya, where she completed her BA (Honors) and MA degrees in sociology. She had lived in the USA since 2001 and worked for different agencies as a translator before she started her career as an Arabic language teacher. She received four week-long teacher trainings and participated in five workshops on language teaching pedagogies in the same school in her school where she was teaching during the data collection of this study. She was interviewed two times, once after the class observations and once after the primary analysis of the observation data, and her sixth-grade Arabic language class was observed for this dissertation project.

Table 1 Teachers' Biodata.

Teacher	Gender	Age	Origin	Qualifications	Levels	L1	Exp.
Ahlan	Female	46	Libya	MA sociology	6 th grade	Arabic	8 years
Faruq	Male	35	Libya	PhD (can.)	9 th grade	Arabic	10 years

Table 1 shows that Faruq was a 35-year-old male Arabic language teacher with eight years of teaching experience. He received his BA (Hons) and MA in English in Libya and taught the English language there for four years. He completed his second MA in applied linguistics in the USA and was then doing his Ph.D. in applied linguistics during this present study's data collection. He took classes on CF interactions and L2 language teaching pedagogies. He had been teaching Arabic in the higher intermediate class for the last four years. His 9th-grade Arabic class was observed for this study. This teacher received extensive teacher education training in the school where he taught Arabic, and in the university where he was doing his Ph.D.

Table 2 Students' Biodata

Classes	Students	Grade	Age	Gender %	AHL*	ALE**
LI	15	6 th	12	60 M, 40 F	85%	5 years
HI	15	9 th	14	20 M, 80 F	90%	8 years

Note: AHL* means Arabic as Home Language. ALE** means Arabic Learning Experience.

As Table 2 shows, LI Class and HI Class each comprised 15 students. The average ages of the LI and HI Class students were 12 and 14, respectively. LI Class students were 60% male and 40% female, while in the HI class, 20% of students were male and 80% female. All students spoke English as their primary language, but a large proportion of both classes were heritage learners of Arabic. Non-heritage learners also came from multilingual homes, with family languages including Urdu, Swahili, and Bangla. 85% of LI class's and 90% of HI class's home language was Arabic. However, their parents spoke a range of Arabic dialects at home that were different from the standard Arabic language they learned at school. The LI Class and HI Class students already learned Arabic for an average of 5 years and eight years, respectively. The Arabic

language classes were scheduled for one hour, five days a week, and included all four major language skills. For this study, class sessions that focused on reading and speaking were selected.

Ahlan considered the LI class students' oral and reading proficiency to be at a lower intermediate level manifested in the teacher's pedagogical approach during the class observation. Moreover, Faruq considered the HI class's oral proficiency that of a higher intermediate level in that students could easily communicate with Faruq in the target language.

4.3 Context

The AFL classes took place five days a week for the whole four-month semester. Classes took a communicative approach to developing all four linguistic skills but emphasized oral communication. The eventual goal was for the students to use Arabic as a language of instruction in the school. Both classes used textbooks with language learning tasks and a dual focus on form and meaning. Each class period consisted of three sections. First, there was a ten-minute warm-up/review period where teachers asked questions that students responded to in Arabic. In the second section (most class time), the students typically engaged in reading or individual or pair work. Faruq also used this time to read out from the texts and question students about linguistic features found in the text. This teacher was found to ask fewer questions and rarely use learners' first language in the class. The last section in both classes was invested in reviewing the whole class discussion, full class activities and assigning homework. Ahlan interacted with her students switching between Arabic and English.

Arabic was a heritage language for most of the participants of this study. While they had been exposed to colloquial Arabic dialects at home, they learned standard Arabic at school to be able to understand the classical and modern Arabic texts and to communicate with peers from other

dialect groups in Arabic, making this immersion school more analogous to a foreign language setting.

4.4 Data Coding Scheme

I transcribed the recorded observation data and coded them using a coding sheet based on feedback categories modified from Ranta and Lyster (2007) and coded for L1 use in the provision of feedback. The coding sheet includes transcribed conversation coded in terms of students' three error types (phonological, grammatical, and lexical), teachers' use of two languages in CF (Arabic and English), seven CF categories, and student uptake such as repair, needs-repair, and no-uptake. Table 3 details the coding scheme used for this study.

In regard to the interview data, after the interview data were recorded, transcribed, and translated, they were coded as per adapted coding scheme of Lyster and Ranta (1997, 2007) by using NVivo 12 plus software. CF categories and different error types modified from Lyster and Ranta (1997, 2007) were coded as attitude objects for analysis based on Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) tripartite attitudes model. The interview data addressed the research question No. 4.

Figure 1. Error Treatment Sequence

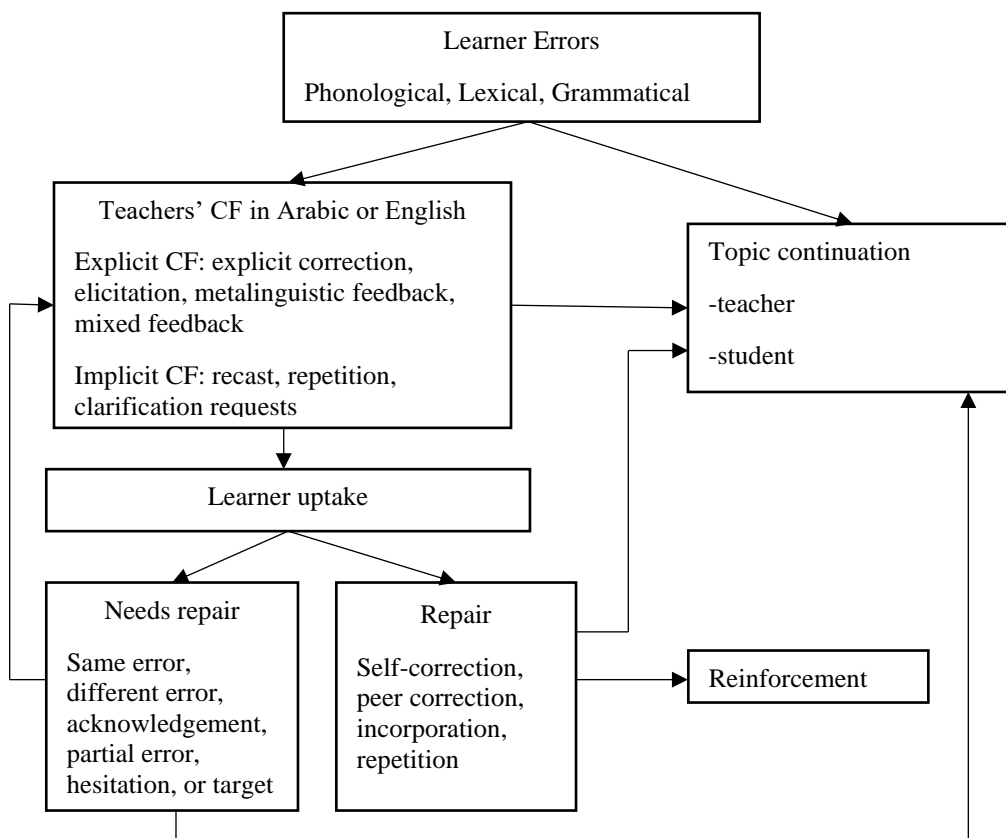


Figure 1. adapts and modifies Lyster & Ranta's (1997, 2007) error treatment sequence.

Error Treatment Procedure. Following Lyster & Ranta (1997, 2007), error treatment sequences were coded. As Error Treatment Sequence above shows, each CF begins with a learner error. In each case, the teacher either gives or does not give feedback. The feedback could be entirely in Arabic or could incorporate the learner's L1, English. Each time corrective feedback is provided, it is followed either by a learner uptake or the topic continuation. When the feedback is followed by an uptake, it is either repair (successful) or *needs repair* (unsuccessful). In the case of *needs repair*, the uptake is followed by either the teacher's CF again or topic continuation, and in the case of *repair*, the uptake is followed by either reinforcement or topic continuation. Example 4.1 below shows one of the error treatment sequences observed and coded for this study. Example 4.1 shows that the learner failed to ensure subject anti (انت meaning you)

and verb *ta'mali:n* (تعلمين meaning you know) agreement, so the teacher attempted to elicit the right form of verb by uttering the subject (*anti*) and giving a little pause. Then the learner successfully took up the right form of verb *ta'mali:n*.

Excerpt 4.1 (*error treatment procedure*)

S: hal **anti** (انت) **ta'mal** fi hazal maktab?

[S: *Do you work at this office? (Here the verb 'ta'mal' must agree with subj. in gender)*]

T: Hal **anti...** (elicitation in L2)

[T: *Do you...*]

S: hal anti **ta'mali:n**?

[*Do you work? (Repair.)*]

Table 3 Coding Scheme

Error types	CF types	Lang. in CF	Response types
Phonological, Lexical, Grammatical	Explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic cue, clarification request, elicitation, repetition, mixed feedback	Arabic and English	Uptake (repair: repetition, incorporation, self-repair, and peer repair; needs repair: acknowledgement, same error, different error, hesitation, partial repair, and off target) or no uptake

Error Categories. As seen in Table 3. this study coded three error types (phonological error, lexical error, and grammatical error) and examined how they were treated and how that error treatment impacted learner responses. For this study, the following definitions of error categories were used.

1. Phonological error refers to incorrect pronunciation of Arabic sounds.
2. Lexical error refers to the use of inappropriate vocabulary or the vocabulary with incorrect form or utterances.
3. Grammatical error refers to improper use of any grammatical categories and/or incorrect utterance of ending vowels of Arabic words.

4.5 Operative Meaning of CF Types, and Uptake

Teachers' corrective moves in the error treatment procedure were classified as follows: recasts, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, elicitation, repetition, and mixed feedback. The present study used the following definitions of different corrective feedback types and learner uptake given in Table 4 and Table 5, respectively.

Table 4 Operative meaning of CF types with examples

CF Types	Definitions	Examples
<i>Explicit correction</i>	Explicit correction refers to the direct provision of the correct form with extra comments or statements that inform learners that they have made errors and where they have made the errors	S: makhazat (Gram. Error) [S: I did not take (subject-verb did not agree, and two separate words combined).]

		<p>T: ma this is one kalima akhaztu, put ta damma, say 'ma akhaztu'</p> <p>(explicit)</p> <p><i>[T: 'ma' is one kalima (word), 'akhaztu' put the vowel sound 'u' on the letter 'ta' and say 'ma akhaztu' (I did not take).]</i></p>
<i>Recast</i>	<p>Recast means a reformulation of learners' L2 utterances or only of the erroneous part of the utterances.</p>	<p>S: wa ana azhab ilaihi da:iman wa na'kul tubul (Lex.)</p> <p><i>[S: and I always go to him and eat 'tubul' (exact word 'at-tabbulah' meaning a kind of salad.)]</i></p> <p>T: at-tabbulah (recast in L2)</p> <p><i>[T: 'At-tabbulah']</i></p>
<i>Metalinguistic feedback</i>	<p>Giving learners some grammatical or linguistic cues in the forms of comments or questions for learners to uptake properly.</p>	<p>S: istafadu (Gram. Error)</p> <p><i>[S: meant for 'I wanted to benefit' without subject-verb agreement]</i></p> <p>T: unzur ila kalima istafat-tu. You have fa alif and you have damma. (Metalinguistic feedback in L1 and L2)</p>

		<i>[T: look at the kalima (word) 'I wanted to benefit' (recast). You have /ʌ/ at 'fa' and at the end /u/]</i>
<i>Clarification requests</i>	Indicating that there is some problem in the L2 production either in mutual understanding/meaning making or in grammatical accuracy. Teachers ask for more clarification by some phrases such as “I don’t understand”, “What”, or “Excuse me” indicating that the meaning or message was not clear, or there is some error in the utterance.	S: li sharqil wasat (Gram.) <i>[S: for the Middle East (definiteness for noun and right form of adjective problem)]</i> T: what? (Clarification in L1)
<i>Elicitation</i>	Involving any of the three techniques 1. teachers extract information by pausing for learners to fill the gap; 2. Teachers use some metalinguistic statement to prompt learners to self-repair or 3. Teachers use questions to elicit information from their learners. Teachers may also explicitly ask learners to reformulate their production.	S: wa hia mutakhassis (Gram.) <i>[S: She is a male graduate (no noun-adjective agreement)]</i> T: wa hia maza? Mutakhassis ao mutakhassisah? (elicitation) <i>[T: She is what? Male graduate or female graduate?]</i>

<i>Repetition</i>	Teachers' repeating learners' erroneous utterances. Teachers usually highlight the error by customizing the intonation, especially by emphatic stress.	<p>T: maza nuqul ba'da Mahmud, Jiad wa Ismail?</p> <p>[T: What should we say after Mahmud, Jiad and Ismail?]</p> <p>S: huma (هما) (Gram.)</p> <p>[S: They (dual)]</p> <p>T: huma? (Repetition with rising intonation)</p> <p>[T: They (dual)?]</p>
<i>Mixed feedback</i>	Teachers use two or more feedback strategies in one feedback turn and thus makes the feedback salient to learners.	<p>S: hum (هم) min New York (lex.)</p> <p>[S: They are from New York.]</p> <p>T: min New York? Hal antum min New York? Hum Shabab min....</p> <p>(repetition + elicitation)</p> <p>[S: They are from New York.</p> <p>T: from New York? Are you from New York? They are from....]</p>

S* refers to student and T** refers to teacher.

In response to learners' utterances in their L1, teachers' translated feedback in Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and Panova and Lyster's (2002) was coded as *translation*. However, this present study considered teachers' use of L1 and L2 as a pedagogical approach used for feedback purposes.

Uptake: *Uptake* refers to learners' immediate response to teachers' corrective feedback moves that followed learners' initial incorrect utterances. *Uptake* occurs when either teachers or students do not initiate topic continuation (Panova and Lyster, 2002). Uptake includes either *repair* or *needs repair*. Repair means that students correct the mistaken utterance addressed by the teacher in one single feedback turn.

Excerpt 4.2 Uptake (*repair*)

S: hal anti ta'mal fi hazal maktab?

[S: Do you work in this office? (No subject verb agreement: the subj. is feminine, and the verb is masculine in form)]

T: hal anta (recast)

[T: Do you]

S: **hal anta** ta'mal fi hazal maktab?

[S: Do you work in this office? (*repair*)]

In Excerpt 4.2 above, the learner used the subject in feminine form, but the verb was in masculine form. Arabic being a gendered language, the subject and the verb must agree in gender. So, the teacher reformulated the subject in line with the masculine verb form, and the learner made a successful *repair* uptake. On the other hand, *needs repair* means that students' responses do not accord to the target form.

Excerpt 4.3 Uptake (*needs repair*)

S: uthtazi huwa min Libya (grammatical error)

[S: *My teacher he is from Libya. (Redundance: 'my teacher')*]

T: bi duna uthtazi (metalinguistic cue)

[T: *(say) without 'my teacher'*]

S: uthtazi huwa min Libya (**needs repair**)

[**My teacher** *he is from Libya (same error)*]

In Excerpt 4.3 above, the pronoun 'he' already represents the noun 'My teacher' that is mentioned in previous sentences. So, it should not be used here at the beginning of the sentence alongside the subject pronoun 'he'. Hence, the teacher gave the learner a metalinguistic feedback saying, 'without my teacher', but the learner still repeated the same error.

Repair and *needs repair* take place in different ways. Table 5 below shows the sub-categories of *repair* and *needs repair* with their definitions.

Table 5 Types of Learner Uptake and Definitions

Uptake	Definitions
Repetition	Repetition means that the student repeated the correct form as the teacher recast or explicitly corrected.
Incorporation	Incorporation means students incorporated the correct form into a longer utterance.
Self-repair	Self-repair means students corrected their errors without assistance from others.
Peer repair	Peer repair means the error was corrected not by the error-maker but by someone else.

Repair

Needs Repair	Acknowledgment	Acknowledgment means students said, 'yes' or any other affirmative terms such as 'I see', 'hmm', etc., in response to teachers' feedback.
	Same error	Same error means students repeated the same error even after receiving the CF.
	Different error	Different error means students made new errors in response to the CF.
	Hesitation	Hesitation means students hesitate to respond to the corrective feedback.
	Partial repair	Partial repair means students corrected partially after receiving the feedback from teachers.
	Off-target	Off-target means students' uptake interrupted teachers' focus without making new errors.

4.6 Operationalization of L1 and L2

L1 refers to the English language whereas L2 refers to the Arabic language in this study. More than 85% students' parents' language was Arabic. So, the students were basically heritage language learners learning Arabic in the classrooms. However, their dominant language was English that they had attained the first language master of, because the USA being an English country, the learners were exposed to English everywhere and thus had attained the first language fluency in English. Even though the learners' parents spoke Arabic, the language that the learners used at home and outside was English and they assumed English as their L1. In this

study, I categorized learners' switching between two languages in the same sentence as the L1 and thus analyzed the data.

On the other hand, Arabic was their second language because they were learning the Arabic language. So, in this study when I used the L1, it means learners' dominant language English and when I used L2, it means the language Arabic that the learners were learning in the classrooms.

4.7 Qualitative Data Coding

The interview questions were designed to elicit some specific information as to the teachers' beliefs about CF and switching between L1 and L2 use in their language classrooms. Those interview questions emerged from the primary analysis of the classroom data collected through observations. So, I coded the interview data using NVivo 12 Plus into a set of some predetermined categories that identified the teachers' beliefs about the use of different CF types such as explicit CF and implicit CF, and reformulations and prompts and the L1 and L2 use and their practices in the L2 classrooms. I also followed the data-driven approach to code the teachers' responses to the follow-up questions during the interviews. Although I had a set of prepared questions for the interviews, the teachers' responses generated new themes and led me to ask new questions that elicited the teachers' perspectives beyond the predetermined coding themes. I coded those data using data-driven approach based on related themes of my study.

4.8 Inter-rater Reliability

I coded all the quantitative and qualitative data. To ensure the reliability of my quantitative data coding, an Arab PhD student of Applied Linguistics inter-coded a subset containing 15% of the observation data. Before the inter-coder coded the data, she received a short hands-on training on CF types with switching between Arabic and English in the classroom interactions. She also became aware of my predetermined coding scheme. As she majored in

Applied linguistics and took a class on CF and her first language was Arabic, she had a very strong coding expertise. Still, she consulted with me in case she had questions regarding coding or transcriptions. The inter-coder's coding results and mine yielded a 90% similarity. This was considered sufficient for me to code the data independently. All analyses were based on my coding.

In coding the qualitative data, I received continuous support from a fellow PhD in Applied Linguistics student whose research used quantitative data coding. I discussed with her while using NVivo 12 Plus for my thematic coding framework developed on Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) attitude model. After I coded my interview data, I showed her all my coding. In case she disagreed with me about any coding, we discussed and came to a consensus before I finalized my coding. The participating teachers' interviews in the second phase also helped me make sure if my codes properly conformed to their intended meaning.

4.9 Data Collection Procedures and Instruments

After receiving necessary permissions from the school's principal, the individual participants, and the learners' parents, I started data collection. This study used two data collection procedures—structured observations and semi-structured interviews—to investigate the AFL teachers' CF practices with the L1 and L2 use and their attitudes toward CF interactions in the classroom. The non-participant observations procedure was used to collect numerical data to measure the teachers' CF practices. The two different proficiency level classes were observed for a week first to pilot the study's feasibility. Then started the observation data collection followed by interviews in two phases.

During the observation procedure, I placed a high-definition digital voice recorder and a camera at two corners of the classes to cover a clear view and sat at a corner of the class

unobtrusively. However, the learners who disapproved of participating in the study were excluded from the camera's view. Before the subsequent interviews started, I transcribed the recorded observation data and coded them in a coding worksheet adapted from Ranta and Lyster's (2007) modified corrective feedback taxonomy and learner uptake move. The coding sheet included transcribed conversation, three error types (phonological, grammatical, and lexical), two languages (Arabic and English), seven CF categories (recast, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification, repetition, mixed feedback), and uptake (such as repair: repetition, incorporation, self-repair, and peer repair and needs repair: acknowledgment, same error, different error, hesitation, partial repair, and off-target). Please see the coding worksheet in Table 7.

Once the observations were completed, I interviewed both teachers for one hour each on their attitudes toward CF and the L1 and L2 use, and investigated their explanations for specific CF, and language switching, and audio-recorded the **semi-structured interviews**. After the primary analysis of the observation data and the first interview data coding, the teachers were interviewed again for clarifications of some emerging questions in order to authenticate the first interview data's interpretations. The second interviews took place via the Zoom meeting and were recorded on my personal computer with a passcode for security reasons. For example, Faruq said in his first interview that the teachers were told by administrations to use only Arabic in the classroom. I wanted to be clearer about the word 'administrations' and wanted to know whether the 'administrations' referred to the school authority and whether it was mandatory or just a direction, and also, whether the Arabic only policy was for the proficiency levels or for the advanced classes.

Audio and Video-recordings. Since structured observation goes through three phases: (a) recording, (b) coding, and (c) analyzing the data (Galton, 1988, p. 474), this study used audio and video recordings to collect the classroom observation data. The audio and video recordings recorded the whole verbal interactions between teachers and students in the observed classes.

I myself observed the classes and audio and video recorded the teacher-student interactions shown in Table 6. It took me two months to collect the observation data from September October 2019 through October 2019. I observed the classes two days a week and transcribed the data the other days of the week.

Table 6 Classroom Observation Schedule

Teacher	Grade	Observation Time	Class Level	Days/Hours
Ahlan	6th	Sept. through October 2019	LI Arabic	10/10
Faruq	9th	Sept. through October 2019	HI Arabic	10/10

Coding worksheets and coding designations for observation data. I followed interactive observation systems in which I recorded everything that took place in the observed classrooms during the whole observation period (Stalling & Mohlman, 1988). The audio and video recordings of the observations were transcribed for coding. English alphabet was used to transcribe the Arabic conversation between the teachers and the students.

Coding worksheets were used to transcribe and record the frequency of students' error turns, teachers' switching between the L1 and L2, teachers' CF strategies and students' uptake. The coding sheets were designed based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) and Ranta and Lyster's (2007) taxonomy of CF strategies and immediate learner uptake. As shown in Table 7, the

coding sheet includes transcribed conversation followed by students' three error types (phonological, grammatical and lexical), teachers' use of two languages in CF (Arabic and English), seven CF categories (recast, explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, clarification, repetition, mixed feedback) and student uptakes such as repair (repetition, incorporation, self-repair and peer repair), and needs-repair (acknowledgement, same error, different error, hesitation, partial repair and off target), and no-uptake.

Table 7 Coding Worksheet # Observation Date:

Class:	Error Types	Lang. Turns in CF	CF Categories										Uptake									
													Repair					Needs Repair				
Trans. Conversation No.	Phonological	English	Recast	Explicit correction	Metalinguistic feedback	Elicitation	Repetition	Clarification request	Mixed feedback	Self-repair	Peer repair	Incorporation	Repetition	Same error	Different error	Acknowledgement	Partial error	Hesitation	Off-target	No Uptakes		
	Lexical	Arabic																				
	Grammatical																					

My first language is Bangla, but I am fluent in the Arabic language and myself transcribe the audio-recorded and video-recorded data.

Interview. Two follow-up interviews with each participant in two phases were conducted after all the class observations. In the first interview, I investigated the teachers' CF attitudes and their explanations for switching between the L1 and L2 during CF interactions. The second

interview aimed at ensuring that the researcher's first interview analysis was consistent with the interviewees' intended message. Open-ended questions asked about teachers' perceptions and experiences of CF and their rationale for certain types of corrective strategies they employed in their classes and their discursive use of languages. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for coding and analysis. The interview questions emerged from the observation data coding and analysis. Based on the observations, the questions were prepared to conduct the semi-structured interviews with the two participating teachers. The teachers were also asked follow-up questions based on their responses to the prepared questions (Please see the interview questions in Appendix 2, Appendix 3, and Appendix 4).

Consent and Assent forms. Before the data collection started, printed consent forms were used for the principal, the class teachers, and their parents and assent forms for the students whose classes were observed. The study started after the IRB approved the data collection procedure.

4.10 Data Analysis

This present study contained both quantitative data and qualitative data. For statistical analysis, I transcribed in English the quantitative data collected from observations and then coded them based on the predetermined systems of categories adapted from Lyster and Ranta (1997, 2007) as learners' error types, language switching, teachers' CF, and learners' uptake. The quantitative data analysis involved several steps such as coding the data, checking the interrater reliability, compiling the error, language switching, CF and uptake frequency worksheets for each teacher and worksheet analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to identify the relation between CF types and learner uptake. The frequency and rate of each type of CF provided with

the L1 and L2 and learner uptake in response to those CF moves were presented with figures followed by descriptive analysis.

This study adapted Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) Attitude Model to analyze the interview data about the teachers' attitudes toward CF and language switching in L2 classrooms. Attitudes include various concepts such as beliefs, emotions, feelings, preferences, values, opinions, judgments, appraisals, and intentions. Schiffman and Kanuk proposed three components of attitudes: (a) cognitive, (b) affective, and (c) conative. Hogg and Vaughan (2005) called attitude a composite of a person's beliefs, emotions, and behavior. Jain (2014) defined the cognitive component as a person's beliefs and thoughts about an object of attitude, and the affective component as emotional responses such as like or dislike toward an attitude object. And the conative part represents persons' verbal and nonverbal actions as a result of their attitudes toward an object. Following this tripartite model, this study analyzed the interview data to investigate the teachers' cognitive, affective, and conative attitudes toward CF and language switching. Different components of the optimized version of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment model, such as CF categories and error types, would be the attitude objects for this study. Besides, some emerging components of CF attitudes, such as consideration of learner feeling and output-prompting CF (based on Ranta and Lyster, 2007), were analyzed and reported.

4.11 Chapter Summary

The study examined the CF practices with switching between the L1 and L2 and their effects on learner uptake in two AFL proficiency classes. The study used a mixed method approach comprising structured observations and semi-structured interviews and collected the quantitative data by video-recording the observations of the two proficiency classes for ten hours

each over a period of two month and the qualitative data by audio-recording the interviews of the two participating teachers in two phases. Two proficiency classes—lower intermediate (6th grade) and higher intermediate (9th grade)—each consisting of fifteen students (more than 85% were heritage language learners) were observed to see how the teachers used CF with the L1 and L2 and how their different CF strategies differentially affected learner uptake.

The study took place in a K-12 private school in the midsouth USA. Although the learning outcome of both proficiency levels was to develop learners' four linguistic skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), more focus was given to speaking and reading skills. For collecting my research data, I observed the two proficiency level classes and interviewed the two teachers who taught those classes, that I audio and video recorded. As to the data coding, the recorded observation data were first transcribed in English and then coded in a coding worksheet modified from Lyster and Ranta's (1997, 2007) taxonomy of CF and learner uptake. The interview data were coded by using NVivo 12 Plus following Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) Attitude Model. CF and error types were coded as attitude objects for analysis. 15% observation data are inter-coded by an Applied Linguistics graduate student to ensure the coding reliability. A PhD in Applied Linguistics candidate who made a qualitative study for her dissertation checked all my interview data coding and gave me advice as to coding where needed. To identify the relation between CF types and learner uptake, frequencies and rates of learner uptake were descriptively analyzed. The qualitative data about the teachers' attitudes toward CF and the L1 and L2 use were analyzed based on Schiffman and Kanuk's Attitude Model that comprises three components of attitudes (cognitive, affective, and conative). The analysis identified the teachers' overall beliefs, feelings, and preferences for CF types and their classroom practices. The

following chapter presents the results of the quantitative data in figures with descriptions followed by the results of the interview data with detailed analysis.

Chapter 5

Results

This chapter reports the results of data analysis of CF interactions between the teachers and students of the two Arabic proficiency classes, that were recorded during the class observations. The chapter also includes the findings of the analysis of the interview data collected from the two teachers of the two observed Arabic classes. The analysis of the observation and the interview data is presented in terms of the following research questions from one through four.

In AFL classrooms:

1. What are the CF types provided by AFL teachers with L1 and L2 use?
2. Do AFL teachers provide CF differently for different error types using the L1 and L2?
3. Which CF types with L1 and L2 use most frequently lead to learner repairs?
4. What are teacher beliefs and perceptions of CF and switching between the L1 and L2

during CF?

5.1 Quantitative Findings

The total number of CF feedback provided by the two teachers was 156 followed by 126 learner uptakes (77% of CF) that included 106 learner repairs (84% of uptakes). Ahlan provided 105 feedbacks leading to 91 uptakes (87% of CF) and received 76 learner repairs (83% of uptakes) in her lower intermediate class whereas Faruq gave 51 feedbacks leading to 35 uptakes (67% of CF) and received 30 learner repairs (86% of uptakes) in the higher intermediate class. The difference in the number of CF feedback and learner repair in the two classes can be, in part, attributed to the different proficiency levels of the classes, the teachers' varied instructional

approaches, their beliefs about CF use and language switching in the L2 classes. Research question 4 addressed the teachers' beliefs about CF and L1 and L2 use in the AFL classrooms. The interview data analysis (discussed under Question 4) reveals the teachers' attitudes toward CF and language alternations in their Arabic classes.

In order to answer the research questions from one through three, figures were used to estimate the frequencies of CF, learner uptake and repair. Figure 1 and Figure 2 addressed Ahlan, and Faruq's CF moves with L1 and L2 use. Figure 3, 4 and 5 displayed the two teachers' CF moves in relation to learner error categories. Figure 6 through Figure 12 showed individual teacher's uptake and repair frequencies and rates in response to different CF types.

Research Question 1: *What are the CF types provided by AFL teachers with L1 and L2 use?*

The following Figure 1 and Figure 2 address the first research question that asks what types of CF the individual teachers used in their AFL classes with the L1 and L2. The percentage of the feedback given by the teachers was calculated by dividing the individual feedback frequency by the sum of the feedback frequencies.

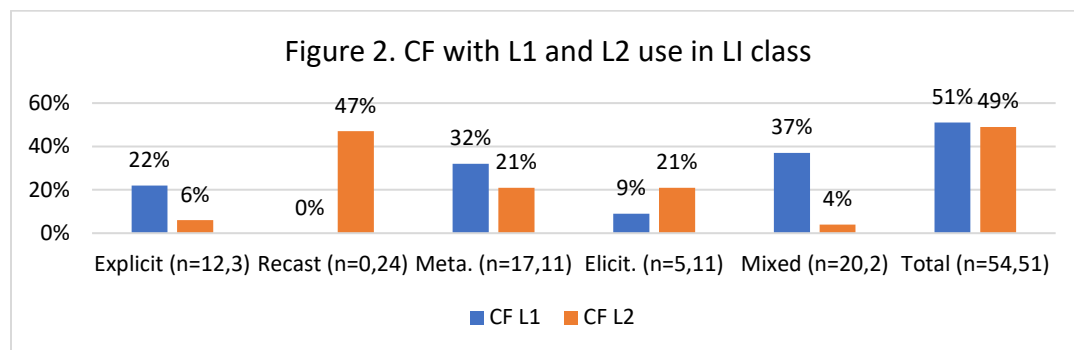
As Figure 2 shows Ahlan provides total 54 corrective feedbacks (51% CFs) with L1 use and 51(49% CFs) in the L2. The teacher uses four feedback types with L1 use (explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and mixed feedback). The highest rate (that is 37%) of CF in the L1 was mixed feedback (n=20). The second most frequent feedback type that she uses in the L1 was metalinguistic feedback (n=17, 32%). Besides, the rates for explicit correction and elicitation are respectively 22% and 9% of the CF given in the L1. Ahlan avoids using any implicit CF strategies in the L1.

On the other hand, the teacher provides 49% CF with L2 use. Recast constitutes nearly half (47%) of the CF in the L2. The teacher uses equal rates (21%) of Metalinguistic feedback

and elicitation in L2. The least used feedback types in L2 are explicit correction (6%) and mixed feedback (4%).

Information on Ahlan’s CFs that incorporates L1(English) and L2 (Arabic) is found in Figure 2.

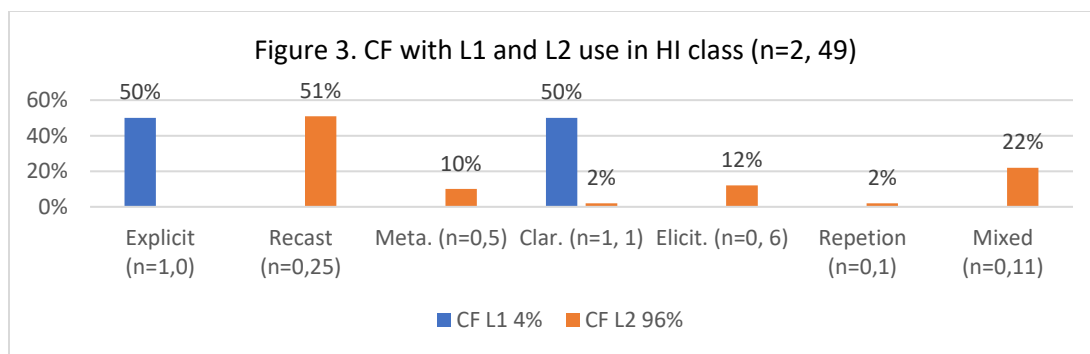
Figure 2. CF with LI (English) and L2 (Arabic) use in LI Class.



Note: Percentages are based on total feedback moves in the L1 and the L2 respectively in Ahlan’s class.

As Figure 3 below shows, Faruq provides only two CFs with L1 use, one in explicit correction and the other in clarification request. He uses 96% CFs (n=49) with the L2. Recast constitutes the highest rate of CF (n=25, 51%) with L2 use. The second most frequently provided CF by Faruq is mixed feedback (22%). However, the rates of elicitation and metalinguistic feedback are respectively 12% and 10%. The least used feedback types used in the L2 are clarification request and repetition.

Figure 3. CF with L1 (English) and L2 (Arabic) use in HI Class.



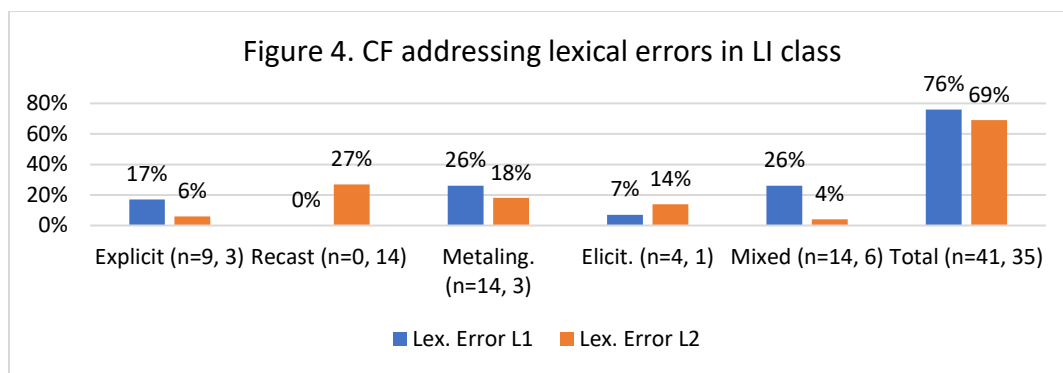
Note: Percentages are based on total feedback moves in the L1 and the L2 respectively in Faruq's class.

Research Question 2: Do AFL teachers provide CF differently for different error types using the L1 and L2?

Feedback strategies were not equally distributed to different types of errors. The AFL teachers provided CF differently for different error types. Ahlan was not found to address learners' pronunciation errors. This teacher addressed only lexical errors and grammatical errors. She provided 76% CF (n=41) in the L1 and 69% CF (n=35) with L2 use for lexical errors. As Figure 4 shows, she mainly used metalinguistic feedback (n=14, 26%) and mixed feedback (n=14, 26%) to address lexical errors. Besides, explicit correction (n=9, 17% CF) and elicitation (n=4, 7% CF) were used to respond to learners' lexical errors. She avoided using implicit CF strategies with the L1 in response to lexical errors.

However, in the cases of L2 use, she largely used recasts 27% times (n=14) in response to lexical errors. She was also found to noticeably use metalinguistic feedback (18%) and elicitation (14%). In addition, she occasionally used elicitation (6%) and mixed feedback (4%).

Figure 4. CF Addressing Lexical Errors in LI Class

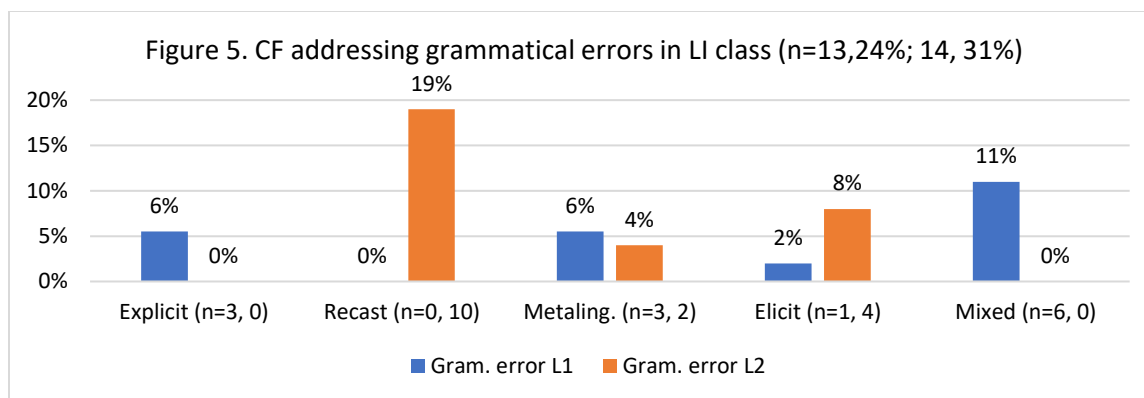


Note: Percentages are based on total feedback moves in the L1 or the L2 respectively in response to lexical errors in Ahlan’s class.

In response to grammatical errors, Ahlan provided 24% CF with the L1 and 31% CF with the L2. As Figure 5 shows, the teacher uses four feedback types in the L1 (explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and mixed feedback) and three CF types in the L2 (recast, elicitation and mixed feedback) to address grammatical errors. Mixed feedback comprises the highest CF rate in the L1 (11%) in response to grammatical errors. Besides, explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback each constitute 6% of CF types used in the L1 to address grammatical errors. For grammatical errors, the teacher solely uses explicit CF types and avoided implicit ones.

However, *recast* constitutes the highest frequency rate (19%) used in the L2 to correct grammatical errors (see Figure 5, please). In addition, elicitation and metalinguistic feedback with the L2 comprise 8% and 4% of CF respectively. It is worth noticing that Ahlan uses only explicit CF types. Even though she uses recast in the L2, it is didactic and is intended to correct learner errors, thus making the feedback explicit.

Figure 5. CF Addressing Grammatical Errors in LI Class

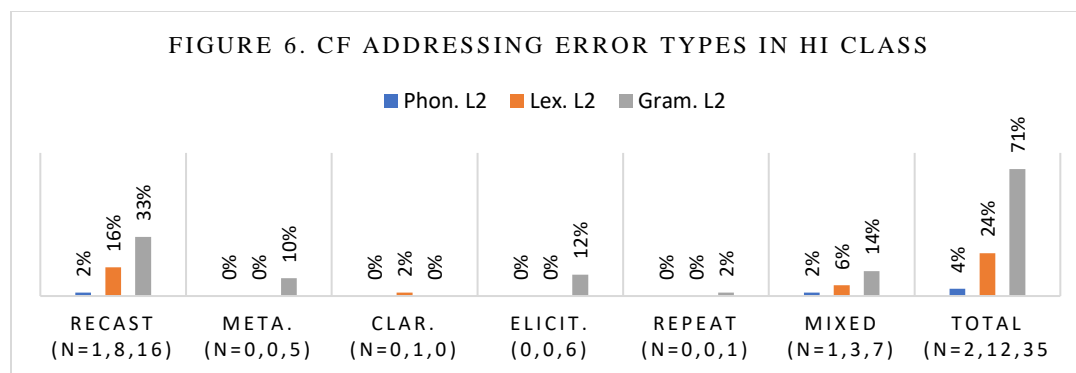


Note: Percentages are based on total feedback moves in the L1 or the L2 respectively in response to grammatical errors in Ahlan's class

Faruq predominantly used the L2 in his HI class. Only two instances were found where the teacher provided CF in the L1, once with clarification request in response to lexical error and once with explicit correction in response to grammatical error. Otherwise, all his CFs were provided in the L2. As Figure 6 shows, He provides 71% CF in the L2 in response to grammatical errors whereas only 24% in response to lexical errors and only 4% for phonological errors. Faruq's CF pattern based on error categories is a sharp contrast to Ahlan's. Whereas Ahlan mostly addresses lexical errors, Faruq treats grammatical errors.

Figure 6 below shows that Faruq uses five CF types to correct grammatical errors (recast, mixed feedback, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition) and three CF types to address lexical errors (recast, mixed feedback and clarification). The most frequently used CF type that Faruq uses with the L2 in response to grammatical errors is recast (33% CF). Besides the CF rates for mixed feedback, elicitation and metalinguistic feedback are noticeably high (14%, 12% and 10% respectively). For lexical errors, the rates of recast and mixed feedback used are 16% and 6% respectively.

Figure 6. CF Addressing Error Types in HI Class



Note: Percentages are based on total feedback moves in the L2 in response to error types in Faruq's class.

Research Question 3: Which CF types with L1 and L2 use most frequently lead to learner repairs?

Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the uptake and repair frequencies and rates that follow Ahlan's CF with L1 and L2 use. Figure 9 shows learner uptake frequencies and rates and Figure 10 repair frequencies and rates for CF moves in the L1 and the L2 in relation to lexical errors in the LI class. Figure 11 and Figure 12 respectively show the uptake and repair frequencies and rates in the L1 and the L2 in relation to grammatical errors in the LI class. Figure 13 shows the uptake and repair frequencies and rates for CF with L2 use in HI class. Figure 14 and Figure 15 respectively show the uptake and repair rates of CF in the L2 for lexical and grammatical errors in the HI class. Since Faruq provides only two CF moves with L1 use, no extra figure is used; the two instances of CF with L1 use are just described.

As Figure 7 and Figure 8 show, Ahlan's 54 CF in the L1 moves lead to 80% uptakes (n=43) that include 81% repair (n=35), and her 51 CF moves in L2 lead to 94% uptakes (n=48) including 85% repairs (n=41). As seen in Figure 6, elicitation in both the L1 and the L2 leads to 100% uptakes. Metalinguistic feedback in the L1 leads to almost equal rate of uptake as that in the L2 (82% and 81% uptakes respectively). However, both explicit correction and mixed

feedback in the L1 lead to a much lower uptake rate (75%) than in the L2 (100%). The uptake rate for recast in the L2 is very high as well, that is, 95%.

With regard to learner repair, as Figure 8 below shows, explicit correction in the L1 proves more effective in leading to high learner repairs. Otherwise, other CF strategies used by Ahlan such as metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and mixed feedback lead to higher repair rates in the L2. Explicit correction in the L1 leads to 78% learner repair whereas 66% repair in the L2 66%. Mixed feedback leads to highest repair rates (86% for L1 and 100% for L2). Repair rates of elicitation in L1 and L2 are nearly equal (80% and 81% respectively) while the repair rate of metalinguistic feedback in the L1 is 10% lower than in the L2 (78% vs. 88%). The repair rate of recast in the L2 is significantly high (87%).

Figure 7 & Figure 8. Uptake and Repair in LI Class

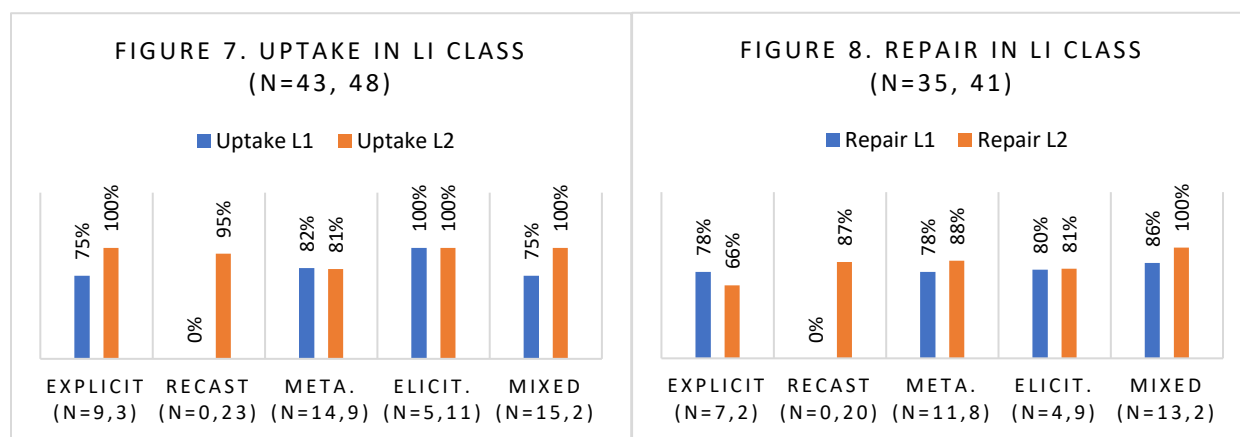


Figure 9 shows learner uptake frequencies and rates and Figure 10 repair frequencies and rates for CF moves in the L1 and the L2 in relation to lexical errors in the LI class. CFs in the L1 addressing lexical errors lead to 82% uptakes that included 79% repairs while CFs in the L2 lead to 91% uptakes that included 90% repairs. As Figure 9 below shows, in both the L1 and L2 cases, learner uptake rates of elicitation are 100%. Besides, mixed feedback and recast in the L2

lead to 100% uptakes whereas uptake rate of mixed feedback in the L1 is 78%. The uptake rates of explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback are much higher in the L1 than in the L2 (78% and 86% vs. 66% and 78%). So, metalinguistic feedback leads to the second highest uptake rate in the L1.

Figure 10 shows that CF strategies in the L1 lead to lower repair rates than in the L2. Explicit correction in the L1 receives the highest repair rate (86% of uptakes) and the second highest rate came from mixed feedback (82% of uptake) while both explicit correction and mixed feedback in the L2 lead to 100% repairs. Both metalinguistic feedback and elicitation in the L1 lead to 75% repair while 86% in the L2. Besides, 100% uptake of recast include 93% repairs.

Figure 9 & Figure 10. Uptake and Repair for Lex. Errors in LI Class



Figure 11 and Figure 12 respectively show the uptake and repair frequencies and rates in the L1 and the L2 in relation to grammatical errors in the LI class. CF moves in the L1 and L2 for grammatical errors lead to 69% and 93% uptakes, respectively. As Figure 11 shows, elicitation both in the L1 and L2 lead to 100% uptakes. Explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback, and mixed feedback each in the L1 lead to 66% uptakes while metalinguistic feedback

and recast in the L2 lead to 100% and 90% uptakes, respectively. On the other hand, uptakes of CF in the L1 lead to 89% repairs while in the L2 lead to 80% repair. As Figure 12 shows, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, and mixed feedback in the L1 lead to 100% repairs whereas metalinguistic feedbacks in L2 lead to 100% repair, and uptakes of recast and mixed feedbacks respectively included 77% and 75% repair. The least repair rate results from explicit correction in the L1 (50%).

Figure 11 & Figure 12. Uptake and Repair for Gram. Errors in LI Class.

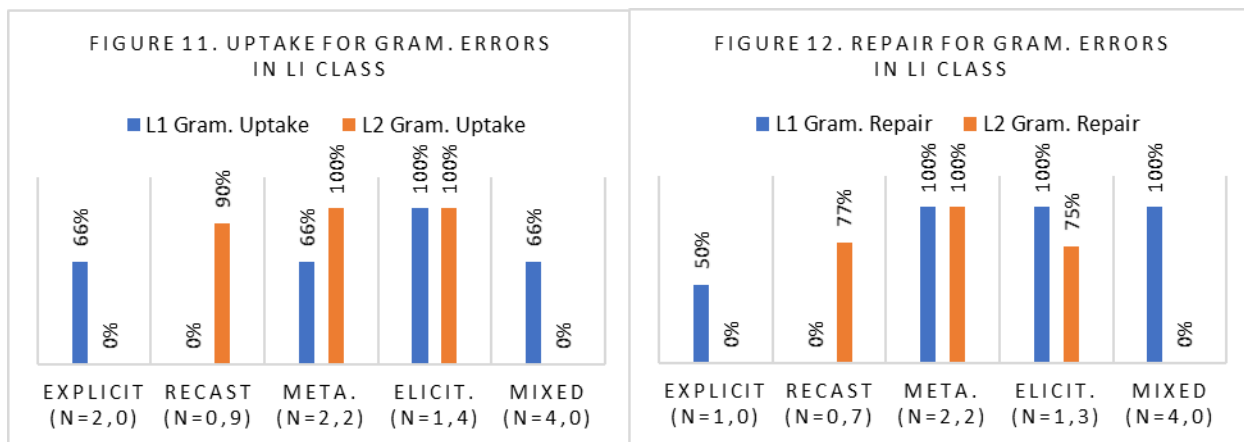


Figure 13 shows the uptake and repair rates and frequencies in the HI class. Faruq's two instances of CF in the L1 (explicit correction and clarification request) lead to 100% uptakes and 100% repairs. The following figure only includes the data for CF in the L2. As Figure 13 below shows, total uptake and repair rates for CF in the L2 are 67% and 84% respectively. Clarification request, elicitation, and repetition in the L2 lead to 100% uptakes and repairs. The second highest uptake and repair rates result from mixed feedback (72% and 87% respectively). Besides, recast leads to 60% uptake and 80% repair. The least uptake and repair rates are found in metalinguistic feedback (40% and 50% respectively). Overall, the repair rates in the HI class are quite high compared to the uptake rates.

Figure 13. Uptake and Repair in HI Class

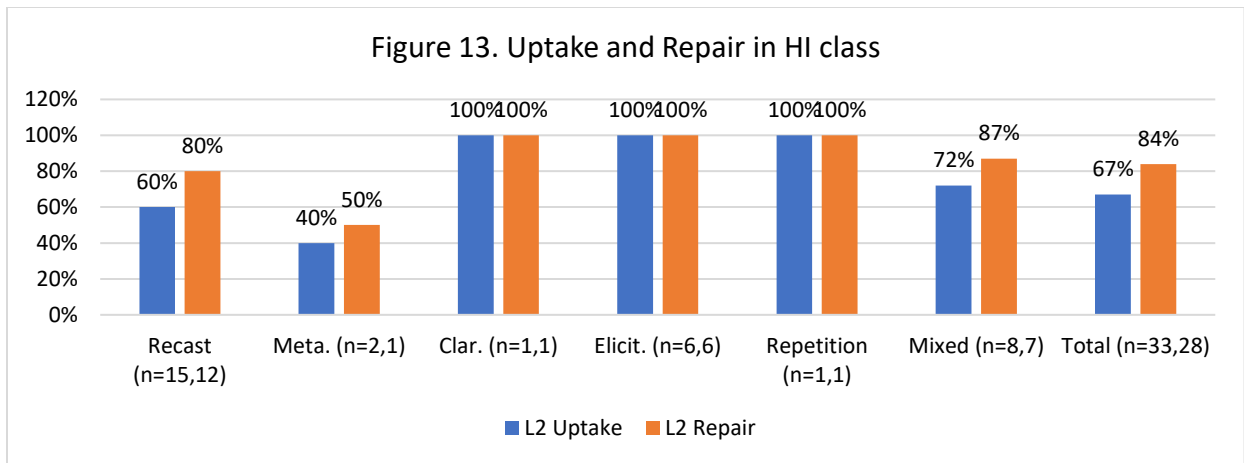
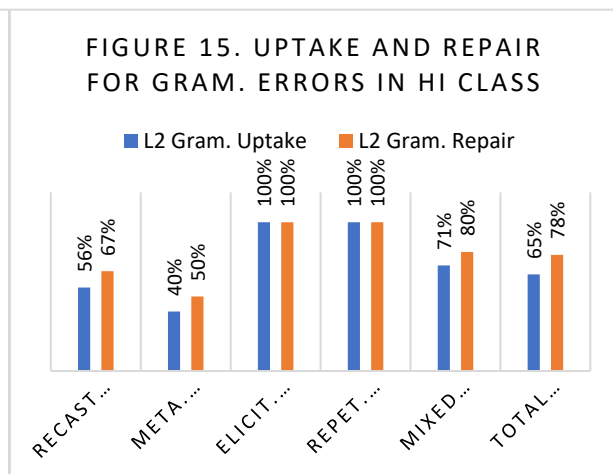
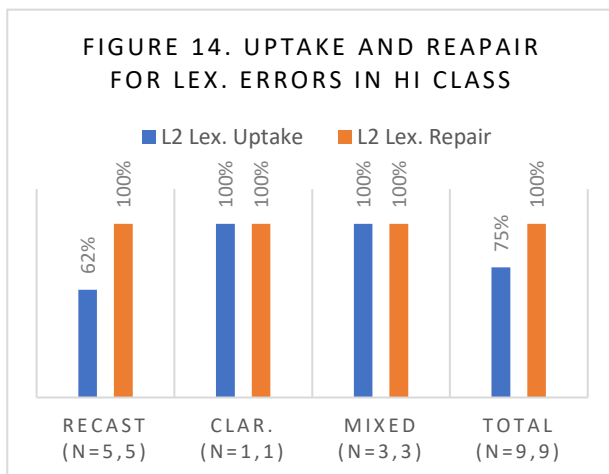


Figure 14 and Figure 15 below show the uptake and repair rates of CFs in the L2 for lexical and grammatical errors in the HI class. The total uptake and repair rates of CF for lexical errors are respectively 75% and 100%. Both clarification request and mixed feedback lead to 100% uptake and repair while recast leads to 62% uptakes that include 100% repairs. On the other hand, uptake and repair rates for grammatical errors are much lower, 65% and 78% respectively. Both elicitation and repetition lead to 100% uptake and repair. The second highest uptake and repair rates result from mixed feedback (71% and 80% respectively). The uptake rate for recast was 56% of CFs including 67% repairs. The lowest uptake and repair rates result from metalinguistic feedback (40% and 50% respectively).

Figure 14 and Figure 15. Uptake and Repair for Lex. And Gram. Errors in HI Class



5.2 Qualitative Findings

In addition to the findings of the quantitative data already discussed in the questions one through three above, the interview data are also qualitatively analyzed following Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) attitudes model to identify and discuss teachers' attitudes toward CF (different CF categories) and three error types (phonological, lexical, and grammatical) and the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom. Descriptive analysis of the classroom CF practices is presented in the discussion section in relation to the teachers' attitudes to CF and existing CF literature. The interview data are analyzed to answer the following research question.

Question 4. *What are teacher beliefs and perceptions of CF and switching between L1 and L2 during CF?*

5.2.1 Teachers' attitudes toward L1 and L2 use in general.

Both Ahlan and Faruq have positive attitudes toward L1 use along with the L2 in lower proficiency Arabic classes. They both believe that teachers' L1 use in the lower proficiency L2 classroom help them get more connected with their students and attain instructional goals. However, Faruq does not believe that teachers' L1 use is essential in HI classrooms. L1 and HI Arabic classes' one major learning outcome is to enable learners to speak Arabic fluently. However, whereas Ahlan believed that switching between the L1 and L2 (using both Arabic and English) can be instrumental to reaching that goal in her lower proficiency classes, Faruq prefers only Arabic language use in his advanced Arabic classes. The following excerpt demonstrates Ahlan's attitudes toward language switching in her class:

Excerpt 5.1: Ahlan

I use Arabic and both [English and Arabic] because my students all are different. You have not all the students talking Arabic or talking like the other different home language at home, but if you're talking like good Arabic, you don't feel anyone did any good way. That's why you need to tell all the time the meaning of kalima [word] in English and explain it. If I am asking anyone what the word means, all the time I like everyone responds in Arabic, Arabic and after that English word. This makes me feel okay I am helping my students to understand Arabic and Arabic not just translation, my classes are not going to be like tarjama, just like translation. This not my destination.

Ahlan states that she uses Arabic and English because her students are from different home language backgrounds and she believes that if she always uses Arabic, they would not feel good and would not perform well. From her statement, it is evident that she translanguages between Arabic and English. She says that provides the meaning of Arabic words in English and explains the words in English. She says that even though she switches between Arabic and English, she wants her learners to use only Arabic language. The statement suggests that for learners' understanding she likes to alternate between the L1 and L2, but for learners' oral fluency development she wants them to respond in Arabic. Her goal is to develop learners' metalinguistic competence and oral performance which she wants them to attain through her translingual interactional approach. However, Faruq believes that only Arabic should be used in higher proficiency classes. The following excerpt shows his beliefs about Arabic use in his class and his classroom L1 practices.

Excerpt 5.2: Faruq

I do [use] Arabic and English, but mostly Arabic. I do English when I have to do English like giving an instruction, explaining abstract ideas. Most of the time I try to use the

target language, but sometimes I have to switch to English language in some situations...They are Advanced students. They can understand Arabic language. They understand explanations in the target language. But, in the Lower proficiency class I give feedback in Learners' first language. They are Advanced. They can get it in the second language. So why shouldn't I use the second language?

Faruq supports translanguaging in lower proficiency L2 classrooms but prefers the use of Arabic in his advanced class. He says that he uses the L1 in certain situations such as giving instructions and explaining abstract ideas in the lower proficiency class. He states that he avoids using the L1 in the advanced classes because his learners understand the L2 that he uses in the classrooms. He also believes that his exclusive use of the target language in the classroom would improve learners' oral skills. His monolingual approach to classroom interactions in keeping with the institutional Arabic-only language policy is tailored toward one of his learning outcomes, that is, developing learners' speaking skills.

5.2.2 Teachers' attitudes toward CF in general

Overall, both teachers had positive beliefs (cognitive attitude) about CF and considered that CF helps L2 development, and teachers should provide CF, so that learners do not repeat the same errors. They both narrated their CF procedures (conative attitude); for example, Ahlan says she provides immediate CF and tries to fix learners' errors by identifying their errors' root causes. Faruq says he treats major errors and practices delayed and immediate CF approach. Affective components of their attitudes toward CF strategies are evident in their likes and dislikes for specific CF behaviors. Ahlan's preference for tenacious effort to fix learners' errors and Faruq's avoidance of addressing learners' minor errors reflect their affective attitudes. Although both teachers are positive about CF, they are against much interruption during interactions. Mainly,

Faruq is a steadfast critic of CF for minor errors, and, in line with Kamiya (2016), he does not consider CF one of the salient aspects of L2 teaching. The following excerpt shows Ahlan's CF attitude:

Excerpt 5.3: Ahlan

You know I want my students do not repeat the same errors. I try to focus on all my class, now today, like, I see one two three four persons have a problem. I try to work with the problems of those students. I don't need to tell them like this is mistake, you are not doing anything with me, I don't need to do that, but I try to discover why you have this problem about this word, I try to fix [correct] it all this week sometimes I don't need to go to a new lesson, I like it.

In Excerpt 5.3, Ahlan hints her beliefs about CF that learners should not repeat the same errors implying that teachers need to address their errors. She explicitly states what and how she responds to when learners made errors. She states that she likes her persistence to address learners' errors. She does not want to tell her learners that they have made mistakes; rather, she tries to find the root cause of learner errors (why the error happens) and address that cause so they would benefit from her corrective measures. The following excerpt shows Faruq's beliefs about CF in his Arabic class and his approach to dealing with learner errors.

Excerpt 5.4: Faruq

I think error correction is important. I do corrective feedback when I need it. I think I do it when students make big mistakes. I do not interrupt my students unless they make big mistakes. I do it in two ways, I guess. Sometimes I correct errors as the students speak and sometimes I do it when students finish speaking. I do give verbal corrective feedback after students finish speaking If they are on a task or in a presentation. I do not attempt to

interrupt them. I usually take notes. So, if this is a task, I usually take notes like written notes. So, when they are presenting or doing group work, when each group presents, I do not interrupt them until they finish. I say "hey, you should have said this, you should have said that". If the mistake is tiny, like simple pronunciation that is comprehensible I do not correct. I don't like to stop every time students make an error. I dislike correcting minor errors that do not affect the meaning.

Faruq recognizes the importance of CF and expresses his beliefs about CF and his ways to address learner errors, but he does not consider CF an essential part of L2 teaching. He says that he corrects only those errors that create understanding gap during interactions. His conative attitudes toward CF are evident in his description of when and how he corrects learner errors. He said that when learners spoke, he provided CF either during interactions or after the interactions. However, when students work in groups or are on classroom presentations, he does not interrupt them during learner errors; rather, he keeps notes and gives delayed CF.

5.2.3 Teachers' attitudes toward implicit vs. explicit CF and rationale

CFs were divided into two main categories according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model: explicit and implicit. The analysis of the interview data showed that both teachers are more positive about implicit CF strategies and argued for judicious decisions while providing CF so that learners do not feel interrupted and lose confidence. Their preference for implicit CF strategies is evident in their statements. The following excerpt shows Ahlan's beliefs about how learners' errors should be addressed.

Excerpt 5.5: Ahlan

I think students' mistakes should be corrected but not pointing out okay you made this mistake or that mistake because error making is a learning process. I say still you are in

the area, maybe the opposite in this word maybe I give them the sense or different word, or the correct word [recast] in a new sentence but I don't like to tell everyone this is wrong, because this language you need to have it, you have to memorize [learn] that.

As seen in the excerpt above, Ahlan recognizes the inevitability of CF with a preference for implicit CF. Her conative attitudes show how she implements indirect approaches to CF. For example, she uses synonymous words or words that make sense so that the learners become able to use the appropriate word. She also says she correctly reformulates (recast) the wrong words or expressions so that the learners could correct the errors. She would not skip learners' errors until they rightly utter the words. Her background education shapes her beliefs (cognitive attitudes) that determine her classroom behaviors. She says her sociology education taught her to deal with things indirectly when it becomes difficult to address things directly. However, her statements lack clear idea of the distinctive features of different feedback types.

Excerpt 5.6: Ahlan

Explicit correction strategy or implicit strategy it depends on what they are doing like tomorrow they are giving a presentation; I will give them explicit feedback. But usually most of my feedback is implicit or indirect. Arabic is a gendered language and it's a number, the number and gender make your language possible, sometimes I have to say if they use it with the feminine, the verb is masculine, but they mean to talk about feminine, sometimes I say yea, I raise the point of gender and number.

Excerpt 5.6 above shows Faruq's both cognitive and conative attitudes toward CF strategies. He says that he uses both explicit and implicit CT strategies, but he prefers implicit CF strategies. He presents an example of how he uses implicit CF strategies in his Arabic class. Arabic being a gendered language, he says that he gives students implicit explanations of how subjects and

verbs conform in terms of number and gender when his students make errors in relation to number and gender. These findings conform to the results of some previous studies (e.g., Jean & Simard, 2011; Lee, 2013; Gómez et. al., 2019) that revealed that the participating teachers showed more positive attitudes to implicit CF strategies and their concerns for learners' feeling and affective responses.

One of the salient reasons for preferring implicit CF strategies is their concerns for learners' feelings while providing CF. They state that they do not want to embarrass students or hurt their perceived personality (introvert vs. extrovert or outgoing). This implicit approach to addressing learner errors helps learners attain linguistic accuracy without embarrassment (Kamiya, 2016). So, the teachers' practices, especially LI Teacher's, are determined by how learners would emotionally respond to their corrective strategies. Also, learners' lower proficiency level can be a reason for using recast because sometimes self-correction becomes challenging for learners of the lower proficiency level (Yoshida, 2010). The following extract show the reasons for using implicit CF in the LI class:

Excerpt 5.7: Ahlan

I don't like to tell like okay Jannah this is a mistake, you're talking like a home language.

I don't like that. I don't like this. It makes everyone like close again, shame. I don't like to see anybody dismayed.

A The statement above in Excerpt 5.7 demonstrates the low intermediate teacher' cognitive attitudes toward her CF strategies. She states that while providing CF, she considers learners' potential emotional reactions that might hinder learners' ability to receive explicit classroom feedback. Ahlan says that she does not directly say that someone has made a mistake. She holds that if she uses explicit correction during CF, her learners might feel dismayed.

Excerpt 5.8: Faruq

I prefer implicit feedback because I guess it is better for communication purposes.

Implicit feedback can be part of the communication. When I am correcting their errors, I try to do it implicitly partly because I am sensitive to what they feel like...During my interaction with them if they make mistakes that affect the meaning then I give them feedback. Or I call them to a follow up sitting [one-to-one], I scaffold sometimes so they can self-correct. So, I correct them like 'indirect'. I like follow-up. "Do you mean this? do you mean that?" They feel comfortable.

Faruq in Excerpt 5.8 explicates two strategies that he uses to ensure aspects of learners' self-respect. His statements imply that he mostly uses implicit CF, namely recast, and when he needs to address the errors explicitly, he says that he sits in a one-on-one follow-up meeting after the class. He states that the strategy gives learners relief. That finding conforms to the studies (Gómez, Hernández, & Escudero, 2019; Vásquez and Harvey, 2010), where most teachers say that they use implicit feedback to ascertain learners' self-esteem, feelings, and personalities.

5.2.4 Attitudes toward input vs. output-prompting CF

Both teachers believe that simply correcting learner errors is not an ideal approach to L2 teaching. Corrective strategies should be tailored to push learners to correct their errors by themselves. This belief is evident in the following statement where Ahlan states how she wants to deal with learner errors.

Excerpt 5.9: Ahlan

I like to give students like chance to try to help yourself. You can fix by yourself. I don't like to point all the time this is wrong, this is the answer... sometimes you need to use the sign language, sometimes you need to use the jumla [sentence], and try to give them the

hand, I like that. I try to push my students to correct the errors themselves, I don't like, just giving answer...

In Excerpt 5.9, Ahlan's preference for the output-prompting approach is explained through her narratives of how she addresses learner errors. She states that she does not like to make the corrections by herself; rather, she prefers using scaffolds such as prompts, the body language or giving hints by retelling the whole sentence. The following statement shows Faruq's beliefs about output pushing feedback and the reasons for using this feedback strategy.

Excerpt 5.10: Faruq

I try to make them self-reliant. I try to activate their learning self-autonomy, that's why you saw I always pushed them to respond. I don't like to do everything. They have to learn how to notice their gaps, and their mistakes. They are in a stage of learning they have to notice their gaps, but I am not expecting that my students get 100% from my implicit feedback.

In Excerpt 5.10 Faruq states that he prefers activating learners' self-autonomy by pushing them for self-correction. Since he teaches in a higher proficiency class, his expectations about his students' responses are different. He states that it is not teachers' responsibility to explicitly address learners' errors; rather, teachers can only scaffold and push learners so that learners can notice their errors and learning gaps and respond.

5.2.5 Teachers' attitudes toward error types

The teachers' attitudes toward particular error types and their emotional stances are evident in their narratives. Their statements show that Ahlan focuses on correcting learners' lexical errors while Faruq focuses more on learners' grammatical accuracy. Also, both teachers

are opposed to addressing minor errors. The following statement shows Ahlan's beliefs about types of errors and her classroom CF practices in response to learners' error types.

Excerpt 5.11: Ahlan

I need to start like normal class like today asking the kalimaat (word) with the ma'ani (meaning), ... I like that, I start with the word, this is the good way.... I don't respond to all their errors, just specific, I like to give students like chance to try to help yourself. You can fix by yourself. I don't like to point all the time, "this is wrong, this is the answer."

In Excerpt 5.11 Ahlan states that she emphasizes vocabulary and the meaning in her class. At the beginning of every class, she starts her class with a review of the previous class and asks students questions, and when learners respond, she focuses more on learners' lexical errors. She states that she focuses on vocabulary and their proper usage more than on grammar. On the other hand, Faruq is not concerned about learners' lexical errors and overall minor errors. The following excerpt shows what types of errors he addresses and how he does that.

Excerpt 5.12: Faruq

When I ask them to read, if there is a major error like pronunciation cannot be understood then I will have to correct them. But if the error is as a result of the first language interference, some students cannot pronounce the sound, I would not stop them or correct them. But if they commit a mistake on the grammatical point we are discussing, then because this is our lesson, I try to make them correctly use it, but let's say if the word is not the part of the lesson but they use it wrong or with minor mistakes I will not pay attention to that. We should not stop every time students make an error. But sometimes error should be corrected when it comes to affecting the meaning.

Excerpt 5.12 shows that Faruq's main emphasis is on learners' grammatical accuracy. So, he ignores learners' phonological errors unless they impede learners' intelligibility. HI teacher states that, however, he always addresses learners' grammatical errors. Both teachers state that they respond to only major errors that break communication or impede the meaning. Faruq states that he addresses only those errors that affect the meaning. Their beliefs align with Ellis's (2009) general guideline for error corrections, "Focused CF is potentially more effective than unfocused CF, so teachers should identify specific linguistic targets for correction in different lessons." (p. 16).

5.3 Chapter Summary

The present study examines AFL teachers' and learners' CF interactions in the L1 and L2 to identify the differential role of CF with the L1 and L2 in Arabic learners' language learning process. Specifically, the study emphasized the use and role of CF with translanguaging across learners' proficiency differences and teachers' attitudes toward CF with L1 use.

The observation data provide answer to the first three research questions. As to the CF types used with the L1 and L2, Ahlan uses both the L1 and L2 almost equally while providing CF in her lower intermediate Arabic class. She uses only the explicit CF strategies in the L1 (explicit correction, metalinguistic cue, elicitation, and mixed feedback) and in the L2 (explicit correction, didactic recast, metalinguistic cue, elicitation, and mixed feedback). One notable finding is Ahlan uses didactic recast in the L2 that constituted 47% CF in the L2. On the other hand, Faruq was found to use L1 in his CF practices only in two instances: one in explicit correction and one in clarification request. He used sixed CF types in the L2 where didactic recast constituted 51% CF and rates for explicit CF types (mixed feedback, metalinguistic and

elicitation) were also very high. It is worth mentioning that both teachers use didactic recast the purpose of which is to correct learner errors.

As to the CF types in relation to learner error categories, Ahlan addresses lexical and grammatical errors and does not respond to phonological errors. She emphasizes the lexical error over grammatical ones. 76% CF in the L1 and 69% CF in the L2 addresses lexical errors whereas 24% CF in the L1 and 31% CF in the L2 grammatical errors. On the other hand, Faruq addresses phonological, lexical, and grammatical errors where he provides 71% CF with L2 use in response to grammatical errors.

With regard to learner uptake and repair, Ahlan's CF in both the L1 and L2 leads to high uptake and repair rates although the rates for CF in the L2 were a little bit higher. Elicitation in the L1 and explicit correction, elicitation, and mixed feedback in the L2 lead to 100% uptake, and elicitation in the L1 and metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and mixed feedback lead to 80% or more repair. In HI class, CF in the L1 leads to 100% uptake and repair. However, the uptake and repair rates in the HI class are lower than in the LI class. Faruq's CF leads to 67% uptake and 84% repair, clarification requests, elicitation and repetition leading to 100% uptake and repair. Besides, the repair rates for recast and mixed feedback are very high.

As for teachers' beliefs about switching between L1 and L2 use and CF in the L2 classroom, both hold positive attitudes toward translingual practices in lower proficiency levels. Faruq argues for only L2 use in the higher-level class. Both teachers have positive attitudes toward CF; however, whereas Ahlan believes that CF is essential for L2 classes, Faruq does not deem CF as an essential part of L2 teaching although he recognizes the usefulness of CF. Both teachers also advocate for implicit CF strategies and show their concerns for learners' emotional reactions in response to explicit CF that indicates that the learner makes the error. Both teachers

also believe that output-pushing CF strategies are more effective than input-providing ones. While Ahlan shows more focus on lexical errors, Faruq gives preference for grammatical accuracy and states that he addresses learners' grammatical errors.

Chapter 6

Discussion

The chapter interprets and analyzes the results from the observation and interview data by the research questions. My analysis of the quantitative findings discusses the CF and switching between the L1 and L2 in the two proficiency classes in relation to the findings in previous studies. The analysis of the qualitative findings includes the teachers' perspectives about CF and language switching and their classroom practices.

6.1 CF with L1 and L2 Use across the two Proficiency Levels

The first research question was: What are the CF types provided by AFL teachers with L1 and L2 use? The analysis of the quantitative data shows a significant difference in the frequency of CF use and the L1 and L2 use between the lower intermediate and higher intermediate classes. Ahlan is more optimistic about the effective role of CF and language switching in language learning process while Faruq says a hesitant 'yes' to the question of whether CF is effective or not and is opposed to switching between the L1 and L2 in advanced level L2 classrooms. In compliance with her strong positive attitudes toward CF and language switching, Ahlan uses higher rate of CF and equally uses the L1 and L2 in her lower intermediate class. HI was also seen to comply with his attitudes toward his CF and translanguaging by minimizing the use of CF and almost completely avoiding switching between the languages in his high proficiency class. Ahlan responds to learner errors two times more than Faruq during the equal hours of instructions. Ahlan's CF moves in the L1 comprise 51% of the total CF moves whereas Faruq provides only 4% CF in the L1. Ahlan provides 105 instances of feedback using four CF types in the L1 (mixed feedback, 37%; metalinguistic cue, 32%; explicit correction, 22%; elicitation, 9%) and five CF types in the L2 (recast, 47%; metalinguistic cue, 21%; elicitation,

21%; explicit correction 6%; mixed feedback 4%). Faruq provides 51 feedback moves using two CF types in the L1 (explicit correction, 2%; clarification, 2%) and six CF types in the L2 (recast, 51%; mixed feedback, 22%; elicitation, 12%; metalinguistic, 10%; clarification request, 2%; repetition, 2%). However, this current study finds lower CF frequency compared to other CF studies (e.g., Lyster & Ranta (1997); Choi & Li, 2012; Li, 2014; Simhony & Changyoo, 2018). For example, Lyster & Ranta's (1997) data transcripts of 18 hour-classroom interactions in six immersion classrooms showed 686 CF moves provided by the teachers. Choi and Li's CF and uptake study in 6 child ESOL classes showed that 147 CF moves were recorded during 8.1 hours of class observations. Simhony and Changyoo's study found that that 8-hour CF interactions in two instructional contexts included 293 CF moves. Li's (2014) study of CF in different proficiency levels at CFL classrooms found 330 CF moves during 10 hour-classroom observations. The lower frequency of CF found in this current study is likely to largely result from teachers' personal attitudes about the role of CF. For example, Faruq is not a steadfast advocate of CF use in his class although he recognizes the positive role of CF, and the teachers both hold that they address only the major learner errors during the classroom interactions. Also, lower error frequency observed in the higher intermediate class might also lead to lower CF moves in the HI class.

With regard to the use of the L1, the findings of this study support previous studies that hold that language proficiency levels are among the important factors which determine the amount of L1 use in L2 classrooms (e.g., Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Pablo et al., 2011; Iyitoglu, 2016). The stance that judicious and moderate L1 use can facilitate teaching and learning of the L2 language (Tang, 2002) is found to be upheld by Ahlan through her extensive switching between the L1 and L2. While the school has an Arabic-only language policy in the Arabic

classes, Ahlan prefers learner needs to the school's prescription and resorts to the L1 use to encourage learner interactions and ensure their understanding. In line with a number of previous studies (e.g., Ceneno-Cortes and Jimenez-Jimenez, 2004; Pablo et. al., 2011; DiCamilla and Anton, 2012) that showed that there was a significantly higher degree of L1 use in the lower proficiency classes, and that the L1 was more accepted in the lower proficiency levels, Ahlan switches between the L1 and L2 and provides half of the feedback in the L1 whereas Faruq fully uses the target language. Faruq's classroom language practices reflected his personal attitudes toward the L1 use in the advanced proficiency class. The interview data show that Faruq believes that the L1 use is not necessary in his advanced proficiency class for classroom interaction. He fully conforms to the school's monolingual policy. So, the teachers' language choices were influenced by the learners' proficiency levels and the teachers' personal beliefs about the role of the L1 as well as their teaching goals.

As prior studies found that the L1 was used to give the meaning of and explain new words (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Senel, 2010), to clarify grammatical structure and socialize (Moghadam et al., 2012; Greggio and Gil, 2007), and to introduce new topics, translate sentences and give CF feedback (Swain and Lapkin, 2000; Paker & Karaagac, 2015; Al-Nofaie, 2010), Ahlan predominantly uses the L1 to introduce new topics, explain grammar, translate reading texts, build up rapport and, most importantly, to provide CF. Her CF in the L1 includes only the explicit strategies such as explicit correction, metalinguistic cues, elicitation, and mixed feedback. The following teacher-student feedback interactions show how Ahlan responds with code-switching to the learner errors using explicit CF strategies.

Excerpt 6.1 (*Ahlan*): Explicit Correction

S: makhajat

[I did not take (Grammatical error: no subj. verb agreement)]

T: 'Ma' this is one kalima, akhaztu, ta damma, ma akhaztu

[Not, this is one word, 'I took': explicit correction in the L1]

S: ma akhaztu (self-repair)

As seen in Excerpt 6.1, Ahlan uses explicit correction strategy with language switching in the sentential level in response to grammatical errors. The learner notices the error and makes uptake (repair). The learner makes a grammatical error combining two distinct words 'ma' (not) 'akhajtu' (I took) and changes the second word that does not agree with the subject and verb form. In response, the teacher explicitly shows the two separate words and clarifies the errors and the correct forms. The following example shows how Ahlan explicitly provides the metalinguistic feedback in response to a lexical error.

Excerpt 6.2 (*Ahlan*): Metalinguistic Feedback

T: man yukhbir ni kalimat ishtaraktu?

[Who can tell me the meaning of 'ishtaraktu'?)

S: ishtaraitu

[I bought (lexical/semantic error: giving a different meaning)]

T: it's not ishtaraitu, Ishtaraktu/yashtariku

[(Metalinguistic cue in the L1: showing differences between the two words)]

S: yea, it's like they offer kind of? (Needs repair)

T: If you be part of something. Ma ma'na ishtarqtu fih?

[metalinguistic cues: hinting the meaning and making part of a sentence)]

S: I am a member of (repair)

In Excerpt 6.2 above, Ahlan uses metalinguistic feedback in response to a lexical error. The teacher shows the lexical differences between the two words (the wrong form and the correct form); however, the learner fails to get the point. So, the teacher again gives some metalinguistic explanation with the meaning of the clause and then uses the correct form and asks the meaning of the correct form that ultimately leads to learner repair. In this example, metalinguistic explanation is followed by elicitation. Ahlan uses a lot of elicitation with other feedback strategies in the same feedback turn. However, she was also found to use only elicitation in a single CF turn. For example:

Excerpt 6.3 (*Ahlan*): Elicitation

S: Haza anshitah

[These are activities (Grammatical error: using masculine determiner followed by a feminine plural noun)]

T: Ha:za or ha:zihi?

[These (Masculine) or these (Feminine)? elicitation in the L1]

S: ha:zihi anshitah (repair)

[These (Feminine) are activities]

In Excerpt 6.3, Ahlan uses elicitation in the L1 in response to grammatical errors. Arabic being a gendered language, every noun, pronoun, adjective, adverb, or verb has either a masculine or feminine form. The learner uses the masculine pronoun *haza* (this) instead of the feminine form *hazihi* (this). The teacher gives options in order to elicit the correct form, and, in response, learner corrects the error. The highest CF rate in the L1 came from her use of mixed feedback. In this case, the teacher combines two or more CF strategies in the same CF turn making the feedback noticeable to the learner. The following example shows how the teacher combines three

CF strategies (explicit correction, metalinguistic cue, and elicitation) in the same CF turn that lead to learner repair.

Excerpt 6.4 (*Ahlan*): Mixed Feedback

S: At-ta:lib

[The student (Lexical error: using a different word form)]

A: no, not at-ta:lib, not atta:libu, you have lam alif, you make so long, naqulu maza?

[No, not the student, not the student, you have a long alif so that you can prolong, what should we say? (Explicit correction and metalinguistic cue plus elicitation)]

S: At-tulla:b (repair)

In Excerpt 6.4 above, the teacher makes a lexical error by uttering ‘atta:lib’ and the teacher, in response, explicitly mentions that it is not ‘attalib’ or ‘atta:libu’ and then gives a metalinguistic explanation followed by elicitation. So, the learner corrects the error and says ‘at-tulla:b’.

Ahlan’s response in the L1 to learners’ errors with a lot of metalinguistic explanations and other explicit correction strategies resonate with the findings of Paker and Karaagac’s (2015) study that showed that teachers used the L1 to give grammatical clues and explanations and examples for learners to attend to the gap between interlanguage and the target form. The highest rate of CF in the L1 was mixed feedback that reflected Ahlan’s “affective attitude” showing her concern for learners’ understanding (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2004). During the interview while she was asked why she uses a lot of mixed feedback strategy, she states that she thinks that learners might not understand their language gap and her single CF might elicit learner response, so she uses two or more CF strategies in the same feedback turn. While providing mixed feedback, she mostly switches between Arabic and English combining metalinguistic explanations in the L1 with elicitation in the L2 such as “no, not at-ta:leb [no, not student], not

atta:lebu [not student], you have lam alif, you make so long, naqulu maza? [what should we say?]”. Here the teacher provides metalinguistic explanations by saying “no, not at-ta:leb, not atta:lebu, you have lam alif [that is at-tulla:b, that is, students in the plural form], you make so long [metalinguistic cue],” and then she asks a question to elicit more information by saying “naqulu maza? [what should we say?]”. Previous studies (e.g., Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006; Li, 2009; Choi & Li, 2012) that showed that explicit corrections were more prevalent and effective in low proficiency level classes lend support to Ahlan’s predominant use of explicit correction strategies with L1 use.

On the other hand, Faruq was found to provide CF with the L1 only in two instances, and his exclusive use of the L2 was commensurate with his learners’ advanced language proficiency. In keeping with the school’s language policy goal in the Arabic language class, the students and the teacher of the HI class were found to practice minimal use of the L1 during their interaction, the finding resonating with DiCamilla and Anton (2012) that showed that the L1 was significantly less used in advanced proficiency level classes than in the lower proficiency level class. Two main factors are likely to contribute to significantly less use of the L1 in the HI class: learners’ advanced communication skills and the teacher’s willingness to implement the Arabic only top-down language policy in the classroom. The findings suggest that in lower proficiency level classes L2 teachers face challenges during error treatment sequences and so they take resort to switching between the L1 and L2 to compensate for learners’ lack of interactional skills whereas L2 teachers in higher proficiency levels can easily interact with learners by using the target language.

In the CF use with the L2, recast constitutes the highest frequency rates (47% and 51% respectively) in the LI class and HI class. Although some previous studies (e.g., Lyster & Ranta,

1997; Kennedy, 2010) showed that teachers tended to provide output pushing feedbacks more than recasts for more proficient learners because high proficiency learners are thought to have linguistic resources to process the prompts into self-repair, this current study shows that recasts are provided predominantly irrespective of learners' proficiency levels. The results conform to the findings of previous studies that found recast was the most frequently used feedback type during teacher-student classroom interaction (Panova & Lyster 2002; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Yoshida, 2010; Li, 2014; Esmaeili & Behnam, 2014; Fu and Nassaji, 2016; Choi & Li, 2016). It is worth mentioning that the recasts used by both teachers were didactic and as such explicit in nature. Didactic recast is an expeditious pedagogical tool for classroom discourse because it helps learners keep focused on meaning and, through inciting learners to notice the gap between the current interlanguage and the target form in the input, engages them uninterrupted in classroom interaction (Ellis & Sheen 2006; Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2012).

Like in Choi and Li (2012), one striking finding of this study is the high use of explicit CF strategies that account for 53% of CF in the LI class and 45% in the HI class. The finding is inconsistent with the studies that were based on Lyster and Ranta's research design and coding scheme (Lyster, 1998; Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). The high percentage of explicit CF strategies, especially the prompts such as metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and mixed feedback is evident in both classes. This high incidence of explicit CF strategies is likely to be due to learners' instructional context and their linguistic focus. While Lyster conducted his studies in immersion settings where content was the primary focus, this current study was conducted in AFL context in a bilingual setting where language was the focus of the classes. Hence, both teachers preferred explicit correction strategies to draw the learners' attention to the gap between the interlanguage and the linguistic forms. Lyster and Mori's (2006) comparative study of CF in a French as

Second Language (FSL) and a Japanese as a Foreign Language (JFL) classroom also showed that teachers used more explicit prompts to push learners to self-correct. Second, the high incidence of explicit CF strategies in this current is likely due to the teachers' affective attitudes toward learners' understanding and attending to the linguistic errors. The teachers feel that they should address learner errors in ways that enable learners to understand their corrective purposes and notice their errors. They think that their explicit feedback would help learners understand their linguistic gap and elicit more responses from them. Also, the prevalence of metalinguistic feedback and elicitation was partly due to the teachers' beliefs that these output-pushing explicit CF strategies might lead to successful learner uptakes. The reason for the teachers' predominant choice of explicit prompts is evident in Ahlan's following statement:

Excerpt 6.5: Ahlan

I like everyone working very hard with me and like to receive the answer. If you [do] not answer me or give me the answer, I try to push my students to do something, and they are able. I don't like just to correct their mistakes.

Excerpt 6.5 above shows the teacher's affective and conative attitudes toward CF. She states that she does not simply like to correct learner errors; rather she tries to push her learners to correct by themselves. The following example also shows Faruq's teaching statement that he also prefers pushing learners to correct their errors by themselves.

Excerpt 6.6: Faruq

I try to make them self-reliant. I try to activate their learning self-autonomy, that's why you saw I always pushed them to respond. I don't like to do everything. They have to learn how to notice their gaps, and their mistakes. They are in a stage of learning they

have to notice their gaps, but I am not expecting that my students get 100% from my implicit feedback.

Faruq's statement in Excerpt 6.6 shows that he wants to engage his learners in active learning process and thus make them active learners. Both teachers perceive that learners' self-correction rather than teachers' correcting the errors are more effective. Like in Yoshida (2010), the data analysis of this study shows that the teachers' predominant use of prompts is motivated by their beliefs that learners would be able to correct errors on their own.

6.2 Provision of CF Based on Error Types

The second research question asks: Do AFL teachers provide CF differently for different error types using the L1 and L2? Previous studies showed that teachers mostly addressed learners' grammatical errors (Lyster, 1998; Kennedy, 2010), lexical errors (Nikoopour & Zoghi, 2014), morphosyntactic errors, (Yoshida, 2010) and phonological errors (Choi and Li (2012) and predominantly used recast in response to those error types. However, this current study shows teachers' error foci and CF strategies differ across learners' proficiency levels. Ahlan provides 76% CF in the L1 and 69% in the L2 for lexical errors whereas Faruq provides 4% CF in the L1 for phonological errors, 71 % CF in the L2 for grammatical errors and the rest 24% for lexical errors.

The analysis of the observation data shows that Ahlan uses three-fourth of her CF for learners' lexical errors than for grammatical errors and does not address learners' phonological errors. She responds to the lexical and grammatical errors with mixed feedback, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and elicitation in the L1, and L2 plus didactic recast in the L2 use. All these feedback types are explicit in nature. Ahlan's frequent use of prompts and her focus on

learners' lexical errors reflect her positive attitudes toward prompts as manifested in her following statement:

Excerpt 6.7: Ahlan

I need to start like normal class like today asking the kalimaat (word) with the ma'ani (meaning), ... I like that, I start with the word, this is the good way.... I don't respond to all their errors, just specific, I like to give students like chance to try to help yourself. You can fix by yourself. I don't like to point all the time, this is wrong, this is the answer.

The statement above in Excerpt 6.7 shows Ahlan's beliefs that she mainly addresses learners' lexical errors and pushes learners to correct errors by themselves. She says that she responds to only specific errors, especially lexical errors and uses prompts so that learners are able to fix their own errors.

Unlike Ahlan's focus on the lexical errors, Faruq mostly responds to the grammatical errors that constitute 71% of CF and his responses for lexical errors are 24% of CF. Ahlan avoids addressing phonological errors and Faruq's CF for phonological errors constitute only 4% of his total CF moves. This low frequency of CF for phonological errors is likely to be attributable to the learners' identity as Arabic as Heritage Language learners who were already proficient in proper pronunciation and the teachers' instructional focus. The learners already bring some linguistic resources from their home to the classroom because they hear their parents speak to them in Arabic dialects.

However, one common striking finding as to the teachers' CF types is that both used recast more often than any other CF types in the L2 for lexical and grammatical errors. This finding resonates with the previous studies (Lyster, 1998; Yoshida, 2010; Choi and Li, 2012) that showed that learners mostly received recast for their phonological, grammatical and

morphosyntactic errors. Studies (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Kennedy, 2010) showed that teachers tended to provide prompts more than recasts for more proficient learners, but some (e.g., Nikoopour & Zoghi, 2014) found high incidence of recasts in more proficiency classes as well. This current study finds the highest rate of prompts with L1 use in the low proficiency class and didactic recast with L2 use in both proficiency classes.

The high incidence of recast for both lexical and grammatical errors in both proficiency classes is likely to be attributed to the teachers' role to save learner confidence and time and to avoid interactional disruptions as Loewen and Philip's (2006) study also suggested. Rassaei (2013) holds that teachers predominantly use recasts because of "their utility to serve communicative and meaning-focused classrooms by correcting learners' errors without disrupting the flow of communication" (p. 473) and because recasts are less intimidating for learners and prove effective in limited time period classes (Yoshida, 2008). The analysis of both teachers' CF practices in the L1 shows that both provide only explicit CF strategies including both reformulations and prompts.

6.3 How CF in the L1 and L2 Affected Learner Uptakes

The third research question was: *Which CF types with L1 and L2 use most frequently lead to learner uptake and repair?* The uptake and learner repair rates found in this present study are relatively higher than in previous studies (e.g., Panova & Lyster, 2002; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Shirani, 2019). As the quantitative data analysis shows, the uptake and repair rates with L1 use in the LI class are 80% or more. These high uptakes and repairs signify that the LI use in CF proves very effective in the LI class. Ahlan's use of elicitation in the L1 led to 100% uptake. Besides, her metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, and mixed feedback in the L1 also lead to very high uptake rates (82%, 75%, and 75% respectively). As to repair, the

teacher's mixed feedback most effectively leads to repair (86%). The second highest repair results from elicitation (80%). Her metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction each lead to 78% repair. The high uptake and repair rates in Ahlan's class with L1 use testify her beliefs about the effective role of CF and L1 use. She states that prompts and the L1 use facilitate learners' engagement in the teacher-student classroom interactions and learners' language learning process. She believes that her efforts to push learners to correct would be more effective in language learning than simply correcting learner errors. The following example shows her CF patterns using mixed feedback and learner responses. In most cases, her mixed feedback in the L1 comprises metalinguistic feedback and elicitation.

Excerpt 6.8 (*Ahlan*): Mixed feedback

S: tajar

[to carry on a trade (grammatical error: the word should in an agentive form)]

A: no no, don't ignore kasra a'lal jim, atta....

[no, no, don't ignore the 'i:' vowel in the letter 'ji:m', atta....]

S: Atta:jir (repair)

[Atta:jir (the trader)]

In Example 6.8, the teacher explicitly addresses the error and provides metalinguistic explanation saying that the learner should not overlook the 'i:' vowel in the letter 'ji:m'. Then the teacher pauses after uttering the first two syllabi of the word 'Atta:jir'. In response, the learner takes up and correctly utters the whole word 'Atta:jir'.

Ahlan's elicitation constituting the second highest learner repair includes either a pause after partial reformulation or questions with right and wrong choices. The following elicitation leads to a learner repair.

Excerpt 6.9 (*Ahlan*): Elicitation

S: fawahidahu kasi:ra

[His benefits are enormous (grammatical error: 'fawahida' should be in nominative form and 'hu' in feminine gender)]

T: fawa:hidahu or fawa:hiduha?

[his benefits or her benefits? (elicitation)]

S: fawahiduha kasi:ratun

[her benefits are many (repair)]

Excerpt 6.9 above shows that the teacher pushes the learner for response by giving both the right and wrong choices. As a result, the prompt leads to the correct learner response.

Ahlan's use of elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and mixed feedback in the L2 prove effective in leading to high uptake and repair rates as well. Explicit correction, elicitation, and mixed feedback in the L2 lead to 100% uptake. Like in L1 use, her use of metalinguistic feedback, mixed feedback, and elicitation in the L2 result in more than 80% repair.

The uptake and repair rates for elicitation in the L2 in the HI class are also very high. Mixed feedback also leads to a high repair in his class. For example, elicitation in the HI class leads to 100% uptake and repair, and mixed feedback results in 87% repair. One possible reason for high uptakes in both classes may be due to less amount of CF making the CF more salient. The following example shows Faruq's use of elicitation and the learner's response during CF interactions in his class.

Excerpt 6.10 (*Faruq*): Elicitation

S: Jainab 'ashra khamsin

[Jainab fifteen (grammatical error: no linking verb)]

T: **Ka:n...**

[was (elicitation in the L2: pausing after uttering the part of the verb 'was')]

S: Jainab **ka:nat** 'ashra khamsin

[Jainab was fifteen (repair)]

In Excerpt 6.10 above, the student is supposed to have used a linking 'was' verb, so Faruq scaffolds by uttering a part of the verb 'was' and pausing for the learner to properly utter the whole sentence. In response to this elicitation, the learner correctly utters the whole sentence. Rather than repeating the incorrect form with rising intonation, Faruq often utters part of the right form and then pauses for learners to respond. The following example shows a pattern of how Faruq uses mixed feedback and how learners respond during CF interactions in his class.

Excerpt 6.11 (*Faruq*): Mixed feedback

S: wa hia mutakhassis fil jugrafia

[She is expert in geography (grammatical error: mismatch in subject-predicate gender agreement)]

T: wa hia **mutakhassisah** fil jugrafia. Wa hia...

[She is **an expert** in geography. She is... (recast and then elicitation)]

S: wa hia mutakhassisah.

[She is an expert (repair)]

In Excerpt 6.11, the teacher combines two explicit feedback strategies: didactic recast and elicitation in the L2. Here the teacher reformulates the word 'mutakhassisah' with an emphasis and uttered the subject of the sentence 'wa hia' and paused for a while to elicit the right form 'mutakhassisah'.

It is evident that Faruq uses elicitation and mixed feedback strategies that are explicit and that often lead to learner repair. The preference for and effectiveness of elicitation in high proficiency EFL and ESL classes is also substantiated by previous studies (e.g., Nikoopour & Zoghi, 2014; Shirani, 2019; Alkhamash & Gulnaz, 2019). Alkhamash and Gulnaz's (2019) of Taif university EFL teachers' CF beliefs and practices showed they had high preference for elicitation and predominantly used the CF strategy that led to high uptake rate. Milla and Mayo's (2014) study also showed that teachers' elicitations in Spanish intermediate level in CLIL instructional setting led to a high learner uptake rate. One common finding in my current study is that both teachers' use of elicitation and mixed feedback prove very effective in leading to learner repair. The teachers' use of elicitation and mixed feedback is consistent with their CF attitudes evident in their statement that learners should be pushed to find their own errors and elicit their responses.

Previous studies that followed Lyster and Ranta's (1997) error treatment sequence model found discrepant uptake and repair results for recast across instructional settings and proficiency levels: some studies (e.g., Panova & Lyster, 2002; Tsang, 2004; Lee, 2013) found greater repair rates for recasts than others (Ellis et al., 2001; Mori, 2002; Sheen, 2004). In this current study, both teachers use significant rates of recasts in the L2; however, like in previous studies, uptake, and repair rates for recast, in this current study, differ across the proficiency levels. For example, recast results in far greater uptake and repair rate in the LI class. Whereas the uptake rate for recast in the HI class is only 60%, it is 95% in the LI class. In the same vein, the repair rate for recast in the LI class is also 87% whereas 80% in the HI class. The higher uptake and repair rates in the LI class are likely to be attributable to the Ahlan's motivation and her insistence on learner

responses. The following example shows how Ahlan provides CF using recast and how learners respond to that feedback.

Excerpt 6.12 (*Ahlan*): Recast

S: ain a'taita?

[Where did you give it? (Lexical error: 'ain' meaning 'fountain' should have been 'aina' meaning where)]

T: Aina, try to read with haraka, aina a'taita

[Aina, try to read with an ending vowel (didactic recast in the L2)]

S: Aina a'taita haja (repair)

Excerpt 6.12 shows that Ahlan provides the recast with a metalinguistic feedback and then again recasts the erroneous utterance along with the whole sentence. One thing is significant, that is, the teacher's recast was not a mere endorsement of what the learner said; rather, that her recast was intended for the learner to notice the gap and respond is evident. The following example also shows that Faruq's reformulation with salience successfully led to repair.

Example 6.13 (*HI Teacher*): Recast

S: hal anta ta'mal fi hazal maktab?

[Do you (fem. Gen.) work in this office (grammatical error: mismatch in subject-verb gender agreement)]

T: Hal anti ta'**mali:n**

[Do you work in this office? (Didactic recast with salience in 'ta'**mali:n**)]

S: Hal anti ta'malin fi hazal maktab

[Do you work in this office? (repair)]

Excerpt 6.13 above shows that the emphasized reformulation of the word ‘ta’mali:n’ is responded by the learner as intended by the teacher. It is worth noticing that both teachers use recasts for corrective purposes. Whereas conversational recasts are used to support the continuation of the interaction between the teacher and learners, didactic recasts are intended to correct the learner error. Here in Example 6.13, the teacher does not simply recast the word “ta’mali:n”, but he also puts stress on the last syllable “li:n” that agrees with the feminine gender of the subject pronoun “anti” meaning ‘you’ (female). In this example also, the teacher pauses for a little while for the learner to respond to his recast. The result of this didactic recast conforms to the findings of the previous studies (e.g., Panova & Lyster, 2002; Tsang, 2004; Lee, 2007) that also showed that salience in the recast significantly led to learner uptake and repair.

6.4 Teachers’ Attitudes toward CF and Classroom Practices

The fourth question was: *What are teachers’ attitudes toward CF and switching between L1 and L2 during CF?* Both teachers’ classroom LI practices reflect their attitudes toward L1 use in their classrooms. For example, Ahlan states that she is very positive about switching between L1 and L2 in the classroom. She is found to switch between the L1 and L2 in her class. Likewise, Faruq states that he prefers using the L2 in his class unless it is necessary for him to use the L1. In compliance with his beliefs about language switching, he is found to exclusively use the L2 in his class. In regard to CF, Ahlan is more assertive than Faruq about the role of CF in L2 teaching. The observation data show that Ahlan uses far greater amount of CF in her class than Faruq.

While both teachers show their preference for implicit feedback, they both predominantly use explicit CF strategies. Both teachers show their preference for prompts, but still they both are found to largely use recast in the L2. The high incidence of recast is likely due to their beliefs

that through recast they would avoid embarrassing their students and hurting their feeling during interactions. The way they both use recast is comfortable, non-threatening and not time-consuming. Their CF practices such as didactic recast, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and mixed feedback, all are explicit and, except for recast, all other CF strategies are output-prompting used to push learners to respond. In line with Ellis's (2009) guideline for error correction, they both share their preference for focused CF meaning that they address only learners' specific major errors that they think hinder communications. As a result, their CF practices prove very effective in leading to a high rate of uptake and repair. With regard to the teachers' CF in response to learners' error types, Ahlan states that she focuses more on learners' word problems, and the observation data analysis also showed that she predominantly addresses her learners' lexical errors. Likewise, Faruq's preference for learners' grammatical errors was exemplified by his extensive response to his learners' grammatical errors. Teachers' attitudes toward CF and L1 use affect their classroom CF interactions and studies (e.g., Junqueira and Kim, 2013) also showed consistency between teachers' CF attitudes and practices in response to learner errors in L2 classrooms.

6.5 Switching between Arabic and English as a Translanguaging Pedagogy

Ahlan's switches between Arabic and English in sentential and discourse levels as a translanguaging pedagogy to make meaning of her CF interactions (Garcia, 2009). A careful analysis of her language practices shows that she does not use Arabic and English as two separate languages meaning that in both sentence level and discourse level, she makes discursive of use of Arabic and English language. As Garcia (2009) argues that bilinguals or multilinguals develop a fluid linguistic repertoire that they choose their linguistic components from to interact in social contexts, Ahlan's language switching reflects her linguistic fluidity manifested in how

she alternates her languages in sentences and interactions to make her CF more successful. My categorization of the L1 use includes all discursive language practices in the L1 along with the L2. In this current study, translanguaging is evident in Ahlan's CF practices that prove very effective in leading to high uptakes and repairs. The results section reports Ahlan's CF practices with of L1 and L2 use and shows that L1 use in the lower intermediate class leads to very high uptakes; however, from translanguaging perspective, her switching between languages in CF practices reflects her linguistic fluidity and works as a pedagogical tool highly contributing to L2 development. On other hand, in the HI class, the teacher uses monolingual approach to CF interactions that also prove effective in leading the high uptakes and repairs in his higher intermediate class.

6.6 Chapter Summary

Both teachers' CF and L1 practices during classroom interactions largely conform to their beliefs about the role of CF and L1 use in L2 teaching. Though both recognize the positive role of CF, they are wary supporters of CF in that they believe that CF should be judiciously used only for major errors. So, they use lower CF frequency compared to other CF studies; however, in compliance with their beliefs about switching between L1 and L2, Ahlan switches equally between the L1 and L2 in the lower proficiency class and Faruq exclusively uses the L2 use in his higher proficiency level. Ahlan uses explicit corrections and explicit prompts in CF with the L1 use while both abundantly use explicit CF strategies as well as didactic recasts in the L2. As for the teachers' responses to error types, learners' proper usage of words is Ahlan's focus as reflected in her statements and classroom practices while Faruq expresses his preference for learners' grammatical accuracy and accordingly addresses their grammatical errors far more than lexical and phonological errors. Most students' parents speaking Arabic, learners attained the

mastery of pronunciation. As such, pronunciation is not a challenge for the learners and, so, the teachers do not focus on learners' phonological errors.

While the CF frequency in this study is lower, the learner uptake is relatively higher than in the previous studies. Ahlan's switching L1 and L2 in her CF leads to high learner uptakes that include very high learner repair as well. Her use of elicitation and metalinguistic feedback in the L1 lead to the highest uptake and mixed feedback and elicitation receive the highest learner repair. Her use of mixed feedback, elicitation, explicit correction and recast all leads to very high uptake and except for explicit correction all include high learner repair. Likewise, Faruq's use of mixed feedback and elicitation in the L2 proves very effective in leading learner repair. The least effective CF to lead to uptake and repair is metalinguistic feedback. The uptake is very poor for recast as well but the repair is very high in the HI class. Overall, uptake and repair rates in the lower intermediate class is higher than in the higher intermediate class. Ahlan is far more optimistic about the positive role of CF and switching between L1 and L2 in L2 classrooms and, thus, is found more enthusiastic in the classroom while addressing learner errors. While both state that they preferred implicit feedback, both abundantly use the explicit CF strategies.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

This chapter concludes with a reiteration of the main findings of this study in connection with the existing literature along with theoretical and pedagogical implications, limitations, directions for further studies and the contribution of this study. The conclusion includes the main findings about the CF patterns with switching between the L1 and L2, about the relation between teachers' CF types and learners' error categories, about the learners' repairs in response to the teachers' CF moves, and about the teachers' CF and translinguaging beliefs and practices. The theoretical implications discuss what the findings of this study suggest in connection with interactionist perspectives, sociocultural perspectives, heritage language learning and language switching perspectives. The pedagogical implications discuss what the findings of this study suggest for L2 teachers to consider for their teaching strategies during CF interactions with L1 and L2 use. The limitations identify the shortcomings of this study and, the direction for future studies proposes some directions for furthering the study of CF and language switching in L2 classrooms. Finally, this chapter concludes with the contribution of this study that shows how this current study adds to existing knowledge of CF and L1 and L2 use.

7.1 Conclusion

The purpose of this current study is to examine the differential effects of CF with the L1 and L2 in two proficiency levels in Arabic as a Foreign Language classes. This study had a couple of main findings in relation to teachers' switching between the L1 in CF, the patterns of CF, and learner uptake and repair patterns in the two different levels of AFL classrooms. Some of the findings related to CF with the L1 and L2 use are unique whereas some conform to the

findings from other previous studies. This section reiterates the main findings of this current study by the research questions.

The main findings as to the CF patterns with the L1 and L2 use are that switching between the L1 and L2 and CF frequency significantly vary across the two proficiency classes. Ahlan uses greater CF frequency and almost equally switches between the L1 and L2 in her lower intermediate class during CF interactions with her students whereas Faruq provided far less CF and almost always used the L2 during CF interactions. The greater frequency of CF and language switching in the LI class was likely to be attributable to Ahlan's beliefs about the positive role of CF, as well as to her learner's higher rate of errors, and to her belief that switching between the languages would help learners understand better and encourage and elicit more learner responses. An important finding is that Ahlan uses only explicit CF strategies such as explicit corrections, elicitation and metalinguistic cue, mixed feedback, and didactic recast, and Faruq also predominantly uses the explicit corrective feedback strategies. Another important finding is in both proficiency classes, mixed feedback (with the L1 and L2 use) and recast (only with the L2 use because, of course, recast requires the L2) are the most frequently used CF strategies. Switching between the L1 and L2 in the LI class and the exclusive L2 use in the HI class confirm the previous studies (e.g., Ceneno-Cortes and Jiménez, 2004; Pablo et al., 2011; DiCamilla and Anton, 2012; Iyitoglu, 2016) that found a significantly high degree of the L1 use along with the L2 in the lower proficiency class and the L2 use in the higher proficiency class during classroom interactions. The switching between the L1 and L2 in the LI class during CF interactions expands on prior findings (Swain and Lapkin, 2000; Paker & Karaagac, 2015; Al-Nofaie, 2010) that showed that teachers opted for the L1 not only to introduce new topics and translate sentences but also to give CF. The high rate of explicit corrective feedback types in the

LI class aligned with previous studies (e.g., Havranek & Cesnik, 2001; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006; Li, 2009; Choi & Li, 2012) that showed that explicit corrections were more prevalent and effective in low proficiency level classes. In line with previous studies (e.g., Panova & Lyster 2002; Sheen, 2004; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Yoshida, 2010; Li, 2014; Esmaili & Behnam, 2014; Fu and Nassaji, 2016; Choi & Li, 2016; Nikoopour & Zoghi, 2014), this current study also finds that recast in the L2 is extensively used in both LI and HI classes.

The main findings as to the relation between teachers' CF types and learners' error categories are whereas Ahlan focuses on learners' lexical errors in her lower proficiency class and Faruq mainly addresses the grammatical errors. Ahlan mostly addresses lexical errors with explicit CF strategies with switching between the L1 and L2 conforming to Nikoopour & Zoghi (2014) that showed that teachers focused lexical errors and mostly used explicit correction in low proficiency class. On the other hand, Faruq focuses grammatical errors and mostly uses recast. However, previous studies do not show us a consistent pattern of feedback and error relations based on learner proficiency levels. For example, Choi and Li (2012) showed that teachers mainly addressed phonological errors and used recast in their high proficiency class whereas Kennedy (2010) showed that teachers in both low and high proficiency classes mainly addressed the grammatical errors and predominantly used recast in the low proficiency class and prompt in the mid and high proficiency class. Another finding of this current study is that phonological errors are overlooked in both classes. It is because most of the students being heritage language learners bring some linguistic resources from their home to their classrooms and already attain the master of producing intelligible utterances. As such, both teachers avoid focusing on their learners' pronunciation. Instead, Ahlan emphasizes learners' vocabulary development and the proper use of words while Faruq emphasizes grammatical accuracy. In fact, what types of CF

teachers use and what error categories they focus depend on learner factors, contexts, teacher differences and learning outcomes (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Kennedy, 2010).

In regard to the learners' repairs in response to the teachers' CF moves, both teachers' CF leads to very high repairs. Ahlan's use of CF with switching between the L1 as and in the L2 proves effective in leading high repairs. Ahlan's explicit correction and mixed feedback in the L1 lead to the highest repairs and her mixed feedback, explicit correction, recast, metalinguistic feedback and elicitation in the L2 all effectively lead to high repairs. Likewise, Ahlan's elicitation, mixed feedback, and recast in the L2 result in very high repairs. One important finding is both teachers' use of recast constitutes the highest CF in the L2 and the repair rates for recast were significantly high in both classes. The high repair rates of explicit corrective feedback strategies confirm previous studies (Lyster & Saito, 2010; Ellis, 2011) suggesting that teachers might consider providing explicit feedback types to increase learners' attention and participation in the language learning process. It is evident in the observation data and the teachers' motivational statement to engage learners in classroom CF interactions and Ahlan's judicious decision to switch between the L1 and L2 based on learner proficiency levels are likely to lead to high learner uptakes and repairs.

Both teachers' CF and translingual practices in their classroom interactions conform to their attitudes toward CF and L1 and L2 use to a great extent. Ahlan's positive attitudes toward CF types and language switching and her focus on learners' lexical errors are exemplified in her high CF frequency, especially prompts and her language switching. However, her preference only for prompts and implicit CF types (that she states in her interviews) mismatches with her exclusive use of explicit CF types that include both reformulations and prompts. Her concern for engaging learners in classroom interactions and ensuring learner autonomy leads to high

frequency of explicit prompts and L1 and L2 use that proves effective in leading to high learner uptakes and repairs. However, contrary to her strong positive attitudes toward prompts, she used the highest rate of recast in the L2 leading to very high learner uptakes and repairs as well.

On the other hand, Faruq provides CF less frequently and avoided using the L1 in his class. His classroom practices correspond to his CF beliefs showing that he is not a steadfast supporter of CF although he recognizes the positive role of CF in L2 learning process. He believes that teachers should mainly provide output pushing CF strategies in response to learners' major errors that impede meaningful oral interactions. He is also strongly opposed to language switching in advanced proficiency class. Contrary to his strong support for prompts, he also uses recasts in more than half of his total CF moves. One important common finding as to their CF behaviors, both teachers provide focused CF in that Ahlan addresses major lexical errors and Faruq grammatical errors. Their focused CF is likely to lead to very high uptakes and repairs in both classes. This focused CF practice conforms to Ellis's (2009) general error correction guideline advising that L2 teachers identify and address specific linguistic aspects because focused corrective feedback contributes more effectively in L2 learning process. Both teachers' consistency between CF attitudes and practices in response to error types confirms Junqueira and Kim (2013) that showed both participating teachers' CF preferences for error types and practices reconciled.

7.2 Theoretical Implications

The findings of this current study lend support to the interactionist perspective that accounts for L2 learning through interactions—teacher input, learner output, teacher CF and learner uptake (Long, 1996; Gass & Mackey, 2006). In the process of interactions, both teachers' CF provides negative evidence that stimulates learners' noticing their linguistic gap helping them

monitor and modify their utterances. The incidence of the teachers' explicit corrective feedback strategies, in the L1 and L2 by Ahlan and in the L2 by Faruq, directs the learners' attention to linguistic forms and helps them notice the mismatch between their current interlanguage and the target language leading to high uptakes. The higher salience of prompts than of recasts measured by learner uptake rate was already manifested in previous studies; however, this current study shows that intermediary mechanisms between interaction and language learning (e.g., attention and noticing) are determined by how and why teachers provide CF. As a result, this study shows both prompts and recasts are found to lead to high uptakes. That Ahlan's recast leads to higher uptake might be due to its being didactic in nature that more explicitly signals corrective intent.

Also, as sociocultural perspective postulates that language learning takes place through social interactions between L2 learners and teachers or more advanced peers within learners' zone of proximal development (ZPD), this study also finds recurrent evidence that the learners, with their teachers' CF assistance (other regulation), are able to largely correct errors in subsequent utterances suggesting that the feedback aligns with their ZPD. A successful transition from other regulation to self-regulation to use the L2 takes place only when the interactions take place within the ZPD (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). The high rate of repair following feedback suggests that micro-genetic change in learner abilities. The content-based instruction in the immersion context facilitates the transition as evidenced in the current study because the contents of instruction are designed in keeping with the learners' needs and their linguistic proficiency that they brought from their homes.

Heritage language (HL) learners are distinct from other L2 learners in that they are characterized by some degree of home language proficiency and their strong cultural connections (Van Deusen-Scholl, 2003). As early HL learners, they already attain a good command of some

linguistic aspects that include pronunciation, vocabulary, and sentences structures making their language learning journey similar to that of native-speaking children, but their developmental errors that they commit during the HL learning are similar to those of the L2 learners. This current study shows that the linguistic resources that the learners brought into their classrooms from their homes influence what types of errors they commit, and the teachers address, the teachers' not addressing phonological errors being an example.

The high incidence of switching between the L1 and L2 and its effectiveness in leading to high uptake in the LI class in this current study align with the theoretical position holding that moderate use of the L1 along with the L2 facilitates L2 teaching and learning (Tang, 2002) and the L1 is used far more and accepted more in the lower proficiency class as evidenced in previous studies (e.g., Pablo et. al., 2011; DiCamilla and Anton, 2012). Lower proficiency learners have less L2 knowledge and may not have skills to complete classroom tasks in the L2. Hence, L2 teachers' switching between the L1 and L2 helps bridge the linguistic gap and engage in classroom interactions. In the LI class, the learners already bring to their classroom a good command of pronunciation, but for lexical and grammatical competence, they need scaffolding and teachers' CF support that the teacher addresses. This study suggests that whether L2 teachers should switch between the L1 and L2 during CF interactions or strictly use the L2 should be determined by learner needs, their inherited linguistic resources, and the classroom factors conducive to L2 development on learners' part.

7.3 Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study have some pedagogical implications for teachers to consider for their L2 teaching strategies. First of all, corrective feedbacks with switching between the L1 and L2 can be effective in leading to uptakes and repairs in low proficiency language classes

where teachers translanguage in a balanced way to facilitate learners' better understanding and promote oral interactions. Since some studies used uptake as a language learning measurement tool and claimed that uptake indicates learners' language learning process (e.g., Loewen, 2005; Sheen, 2006; Nassaji, 2009 & 2011; Gholami & Gholami, 2020), the switching between the L1 and L2 in the low proficiency class during feedback interactions can add to learning process by leading to learner uptakes. This echoes Jadallah and Hasan's (2011) claim that the discursive use of the L1 and L2 in proper time and proper ways can facilitate language learning. Macaro (2005) suggests that switching between the L1 and L2 be used in low proficiency language classes to make up learners' lacking in language and to elicit more learner responses. The findings of this current study strengthen the point that teachers' L1 and L2 use can facilitate learner responses in teacher-student interactions when the teacher in the low proficiency class exploits the alternations of the L1 and L2 to bring out the best of corrective feedback. The uptake rates in response to CF in the L1 in L1 class imply that the practice of L1 along with the L2 might increase learners' noticing of the teacher's CF. So, L2 teachers should opt for the L1 and L2 use during CF interaction based on learner proficiency levels and learner needs. Teachers in the low proficiency levels can equally use the L1 and L2 during CF in order to engage learners in CF interactions and promote learner uptake. L2 teachers can go through a developmental transition from discursive language practices using both the L1 and L2 in the low proficiency level to a solely monolingual practice using the L2 in the high proficiency level. This current study shows that Ahlaln's ultimate goal was to prepare her learners for the Arabic-only environment through developmental stages. She is heading toward monolingual environment through a balanced translingual approach. On the other hand, teachers in high proficiency levels can apply

monolingual approach to L2 teaching and solely use the L2 if they can make sure students are fully able to understand and respond to their teachers in the L2.

In addition, recasts can effectively lead to high uptake and repair rates if learners are able to notice them and perceive that their teachers used recasts for corrective purposes. As this study suggests, teachers should make their prompts and recasts more salient to make sure learners are able to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language. Teacher can enhance the salience, for example, by putting stress on the target feature and giving some pause for learners to respond. This current study shows that both teachers predominantly use explicit prompts and didactic recasts with salience that lead to very high uptake and repair rates. Ellis and Sheen (2006) also pointed out that recasts lead to more uptake and repair if their focus is enhanced with stress or in some way to draw learner notice. Besides, motivation can also play effective role in engaging learners in CF interactions. In this study, the teachers are found to encourage learners to talk with their teachers without feeling shy about mistakes and participate in the classroom interactions.

Since HL learners bring into their classrooms a good command of linguistic features, teachers should already identify what inherited linguistics resources their learners have brought into the classroom and what error types should be more focused and what types of CF more suit with that particular situation. In the case of this study, the HLs are found to bring into both classes strong command of good phonological skill, so the teachers mainly address learner errors in morphosyntactic features. Hence, L2 teachers in HL contexts should be aware of the unique characteristics of their learners' linguistic resources so that they can make their CF more focused to bring out learners' maximum uptakes.

Finally, as the results suggest, teachers' CF and switching between the L1 and L2 are influenced by their beliefs about CF and L1 use, their pedagogical choices, learners' proficiency and learning outcomes. And the effectiveness of CF and the role of language switching are determined by which CF strategies teachers used for which error categories, how teachers deal with the language choice issue based on learner proficiency levels and how learners are motivated to engage in CF interactions. Therefore, when teachers give CF, they should consider the effectiveness of the CF strategies they use, learners' proficiency levels, learners' preparedness for the target item, the language they use and learning outcomes.

7.4 Limitations

Although this research contributes to the expansion of the current knowledge of SLA, some of the limitations should be addressed. This study is the first attempt to investigate the role of language switching in CF across two proficiency levels and thus exploratory in nature. So, this study should not be considered as confirmatory and used to generalize the findings. One limitation of this study is that only two language proficiency level classes taught by two different teachers were observed. If more classes of different proficiency levels taught by the same teachers were observed, L2 research would identify a general pattern of CF strategies with the L1 and L2 use and the same teachers' differential approaches to CF strategies across different proficiency levels and their impacts on L2 learning process. Then the findings would suggest how the same teachers deal with the issue of CF and translingual practices in different proficiency levels and how their approaches affect L2 learning.

The second limitation of the study is that the current study looked at the L1 and L2 use and CF in a single pedagogical context that gives a limited picture of their use and role in L2 development. If more pedagogical contexts had been included, comparative analysis should have

been possible to see the differential effects of language switching in CF in different contexts. If the study had looked at the same teachers' two pedagogical approaches (using the L1 and L2 in CF, and only the L2) in two different classes of the same proficiency levels, we would have been able to better see how discursive use of the L1 and L2 in CF differentially affects Learner L2 learning process.

Another limitation of the study is that only the teachers' perspectives about their CF and language switching beliefs and practices have been investigated through interviews after the observations, and the learners are not included in the interviews. If the learners had been interviewed, their interpretations about their beliefs and practices would have given us new insights into how they felt about teachers' different CF and language switching practices and why they behave the way they do in response to their teachers' CF.

7.5 Direction for Future Studies

This current study shows that contextual factors such as language proficiency, teachers' attitudes toward CF and language switching, instructional contexts, and learner factors influence the CF frequency, CF types used, L1 use and learner uptakes. Based on the findings of this study, more research should (a) compare the effects of CF with switching between the L1 and L2 in different proficiency levels on learner uptakes, and (b) compare the effects of focused CF characterized by salience and prompts with unfocused CF in different proficiency levels. Future research should also examine how the same teachers address CF and language switching in different proficiency levels and how their approaches affect learner uptake. Future research can also include concurrent and retrospective verbal protocols to measure learners' noticing of teachers' CF with the L1 and L2. Future research on the effectiveness of translingual CF in ESL and EFL contexts can also be conducted to identify how contextual differences interact with CF

in L2 learning differently. And based on the limitations of this study, future research can use this research framework in larger scales to investigate the effects of CF and language switching in different proficiency levels and include some moderating factors such as teachers' training on CF, their motivations and learners' attitudes toward CF and language switching. Future research should examine the learning outcomes of CF, which was not included in this study. Future research should also include a variety of pedagogical contexts that include using CF with the L1 and L2 and only with the L2 in the same and different proficiency levels.

Successful uptakes are influenced by how teachers perceive error corrections and language alternations and how they address learner errors as well as learners' perspectives of CF in L2 development. So, the participating teachers should also be provided with CF training, so they can provide feedback more confidently to address learner errors and encourage learners to respond to their feedback.

Learner perspectives about CF and language switching are also important to better interpret their uptake behavior. So, future research should also investigate the learners' beliefs and perspectives about CF and teachers' use of the L1 and L2 during CF interactions. Future research including teachers' and learners' perspectives about L1 and L2 use, and CF should inform their participants of different types of CF so richer qualitative data can be gleaned. Along with the in-depth data gathered through interviews, future research can also employ survey questionnaire to include larger student population helping glean broader perspectives about CF in language.

7.6 Contributions of this Study

While a plethora of separate research on CF and switching between the L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom has given us a broad perspective of CF use, and its role in L2 development and

how L1 is used to attain different learning outcomes, the combinations of these two variables (CF and language switching) in this current study add to the existing knowledge of CF with language switching. This study shows how the teachers switched between the L1 and L2 while addressing learner errors to reach their instructional goals. Judicious choices of languages during CF interactions can contribute to achieve those goals. An important finding of this study is that the teachers exploit the use of the L1 and L2 based on learner needs and proficiency levels to extract the learners' maximum uptake. The pivotal role of the language choices during CF in leading to high learner uptake is manifested in the current study. For example, Ahlan's switching between the L1 and L2 in her lower proficiency class and Faruq's exclusive use of the L2 in his higher proficiency class during CF interactions prove effective in leading to high successful uptakes.

The findings of the qualitative data demonstrate that the teachers' CF and translingual practices largely align with their beliefs. For example, their preference only for focused CF and prompts are exemplified in their relatively less CF frequency and higher rate of output-pushing CF strategies. Their beliefs about responses to error categories are also manifested in the classroom practices. However, their preference for implicit CF is partly reflected in the HI class and largely mismatched in the LI class. The teachers' beliefs significantly impact their classrooms CF and language switching practices; however, the congruence or mismatch between their beliefs and classroom practices does not significantly impact differential uptake rates suggesting that teachers might have CF and language switching practices contrary to their beliefs, but they can equally prove effective when used judiciously based on classroom needs.

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Appendix 1: Approval from U of M Institutional Review Board

To: Md Nesar Uddin (muddin) <muddin@memphis.edu>; Rebecca Adams (radams4) <radams4@memphis.edu>



Institutional Review Board
Division of Research and Innovation
Office of Research Compliance
University of Memphis
315 Admin Bldg
Memphis, TN 38152-3370

June 25, 2019

PI Name: Md Nesar Uddin
Co-Investigators:
Advisor and/or Co-PI: Rebecca Adams
Submission Type: Initial
Title: Use of L1 in Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptakes in Foreign Language Learning
IRB ID : #PRO-FY2019-642
Exempt Approval: June 20, 2019

The University of Memphis Institutional Review Board, FWA00006815, has reviewed your submission in accordance with all applicable statuses and regulations as well as ethical principles.

Approval of this project is given with the following obligations:

1. When the project is finished a completion submission is required
2. Any changes to the approved protocol requires board approval prior to implementation
3. When necessary submit an incident/adverse events for board review
4. Human subjects training is required to be kept current at citiprogram.org every 2 years

For any additional questions or concerns please contact us at irb@memphis.edu or 901.678.2705

Thank you,
James P. Whelan, Ph.D.
Institutional Review Board Chair
The University of Memphis.

Appendix 2: Appendix 2: Interview Questions in the First Phase (LI Teacher)

1. Tell me something about your age, first language, academic background, teaching experience?
2. So, your major was sociology there?
3. And also, you taught in a high school back in your country Libya, or in the USA?
4. So, did you take any degree here in the USA?
5. So, let's talk about our class. I enjoyed the class how you conducted and also the students were very participating, and what language do you usually use in your Arabic class.
6. R: Both means English?
7. But only to make them better understand your message?
8. Yes, do you think learners' errors should be corrected, do you think their mistakes should be corrected?
9. Okay, you do not use explicit correction?
10. You give the correction, but you do not say, okay, you did the wrong, this is wrong. Yes?
11. Okay, so, you think students' mistakes should be corrected but not pointing out okay you made this mistake or that mistake because error making is a process of learning. Do you try to respond to all the learner errors or some?
12. Do you make sure that students understand that you are correcting their mistakes? Do you really care that students must notice my error correction so that they do not repeat the same mistake?
13. It means you did not fix all the problems; rather you try to find general patterns of mistakes so you can address those.

14. I have also noticed you tried to prompt learners to self-correct. And why you want them to self-correct?
15. Do you consider individual student's personal factors while giving feedback?
16. I have noticed most of the students' home language is Arabic but why still are you teaching them Arabic?
17. Do you think at one point you will stop speaking English when they will be in the upper level?
18. What is your final comment about L1 use and CF in the L2 language classroom?

Appendix 3: Interview Questions in the First Phase (HI Teacher)

1. Tell me something about your age, first language, academic background, teaching experience?
2. What language did you use in your Arabic classroom? Why?
3. I see your students are advanced level students?
4. Do you think students' errors should be corrected?
5. R: About giving feedback in grammar or reading class?
6. Do you prefer explicit error correction strategy or implicit one, explicit like, hey you made this wrong, you should say this or that?
7. I have noticed you predominantly used Arabic in the class. Why?
8. Do you think your exclusive use of Arabic negatively affect students' understanding?
9. Do you care if your students notice your correction or not?
10. Why did you try to push learners to self-correct?
11. Do you use English more in your lower proficiency level class?

12. What is your advice for the AFL teacher? Do you advise them to use only Arabic no matter which level the students are?
13. Do you have any final comments?
14. Thank you for your time.

Appendix 3: Interview Questions in the Second Phase (LI Teacher)

1. You said you emphasized learners' vocabulary. Why do you focus on their use of words?
2. Can you please tell me a little bit more about your training and workshops on L2 teaching?
3. Can you please tell me about your overall attitude towards corrective feedback?
4. I saw you did not address any phonological errors and focused less on grammatical errors. Why is that?
5. You said you did not like stopping every time learners made errors. Why is that?
6. What do you mean by major errors?
7. Thank you very much for your time.

Appendix 3: Interview Questions in the Second Phase (HI Teacher)

8. I need to know your error erection attitudes overall. So, what's your overall attitude towards corrective feedback?
9. And what kind of CF do you usually prefer?
10. I saw you kind of focused less on lexical errors. Why is that?
11. You said you only focus major errors. What do you mean by major errors?
12. Thank you very much for your time.

