

WESTERN SYDNEY UNIVERSITY



A Teacher-Researcher's Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback: An Action Research

YU LINGJIE

Student No. 19551715

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School of Education
Western Sydney University

Supervisors: Professor Michele Simon, Associate Professor Chwee Beng Lee

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Declaration

This research thesis is submitted in fulfillment of the requirements of a Master of Education degree at Western Sydney University, School of Education. I hereby declare that except where due acknowledgement has been made this research thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree at any university or other institute of tertiary education. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is provided.

Lingjie YU

30 August, 2022

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List of Abbreviations

| | |
|--------|--|
| AR | Action Research |
| CER | Centre for Educational Research |
| CF | Corrective Feedback |
| CFL | Chinese as a foreign language |
| DEC | Department of Education and Communities |
| HDR | Higher Degree Research |
| HREC | Human Research Ethics Committee |
| L2 | Second Language |
| NSW | New South Wales |
| NMEB | Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau |
| NEAF | National Ethics Application Form |
| OCF | Oral Corrective Feedback |
| ROSETE | Research Oriented School Engaged Teacher Education |
| SERAP | State Education Research Approval Process |
| UWS | Western Sydney University |
| WCF | Written Corrective Feedback |
| WSR | Western Sydney Region |

Abstract

Corrective feedback includes oral corrective feedback and written corrective feedback. Although a number of studies have examined the impact of student engagement with written corrective feedback in second language (L2) acquisition studies, student engagement with oral corrective feedback has been under-conceptualised and under-explored. In addition, there are a substantial number of studies that have investigated the effect of student engagement with corrective feedback for higher education, but only a few studies focus on primary and high schools. This research explores the types of oral corrective feedback that foster young students' engagement in Chinese in the L2 classroom in an Australia context, thereby helping beginning Chinese L2 teachers to improve their teaching ability.

In this study, the teacher-researcher completed two cycles of data collection using an action research design to explore the phenomena. Quantitative and qualitative research methods were both used to investigate young students' engagement with oral corrective feedback. Data was collected through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews, classroom observation and self-reflective journals.

It was found that different types of oral corrective feedback may affect student engagement to varying degrees in the Chinese classrooms as a number of factors influence the effectiveness of corrective feedback.

In addition, language proficiency level affected student engagement when the teacher-researcher implemented the different types of oral corrective feedback. Comparatively more explicit feedback types led to better student engagement for the advanced level students, while more implicit feedback could better engage the students with lower language proficiency. Several implications and recommendations were made at the end of this thesis, highlighting the importance of oral corrective feedback for young learners in the Chinese as second language classes.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

The notion of engagement has been widely discussed, with most researchers claiming that it drives learning (Duchesne & Philp, 2016). Engagement has also been emphasised in second language (L2) acquisition studies; however, in the context of learning Chinese as an L2, engagement is not easily achieved. Due to the characteristics of Chinese language and the status of Chinese courses at schools, engaging students to learn challenging for teachers (Du & Wang, 2016). The distinctive character and phonetic system of Chinese language make it difficult for beginners without a background in the language to learn Chinese. In addition, Chinese is not a core subject in public schools, so students tend to prioritise other subjects. Therefore, it is difficult to engage students to learn Chinese and student engagement becomes a major issue in Chinese language classrooms (Moloney, 2013). This is especially true in Australia. A report on Chinese language education in Australian schools shows that participation, retention rates and achievement in secondary school Chinese programs are surprisingly low: only 3% of Year 12 students learn Chinese, and 94% of Chinese language students quit before Year 10 (Li & Hui, 2017; Orton, 2008).

1.2 Research Context and Problem Statement

Given the importance of engagement, some researchers have examined the use of corrective feedback for engagement. In education research, corrective feedback is defined as responses to learner utterances that may contain errors (Ellis, 2006), and it

is considered an important strategy to enhance learning. Student engagement plays a central role in the corrective feedback mechanism by mediating teachers' corrective feedback and learning outcomes (Ellis, 2010). In Ellis's (2010) componential framework for corrective feedback, student engagement is equated to the ways learners respond to corrective feedback they receive. Ellis (2010) also proposes a multidimensional perspective to examine student engagement with both written and oral corrective feedback, incorporating cognitive, behavioural and affective perspectives. To date, experimental studies have shown that corrective feedback can facilitate L2 development (Han, 2017; Lyster & Saito 2010). For example, Lyster and Saito (2012) assert that corrective feedback plays a key role in the scaffolding teachers need to provide to individual learners to promote sustained L2 growth. Moreover, oral corrective feedback can facilitate L2 development, although its effects may be limited by contextual factors and individual learner differences (Lyster & Saito 2010).

Corrective feedback can be provided in oral and written forms. A substantial number of studies have examined the impact of student engagement with written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010; Han & Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018). However, student engagement with oral corrective feedback on L2 has been under-conceptualised and under-explored, and the term 'student engagement' often used without being clearly defined (Han & Hyland, 2015). Further, the teacher usually provides oral corrective feedback immediately when needs arise, whereas written corrective feedback is delayed. Although oral corrective feedback is typically directed at individual learners, it can also be available to the rest of the class as listeners. When the teacher gives one

student oral corrective feedback, the rest of the students can benefit from reflecting on their own answers, while written corrective feedback is usually only provided to individual learners. Moreover, students can receive and learn from multiple types of oral corrective feedback not directed at their own errors, whereas written corrective feedback is restricted to an individual student's own errors (Ellis, 2010; Sheen, 2010). Therefore, the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback cannot be ignored and it is important to explore student engagement with oral corrective feedback. In addition, there is still relatively little research utilising a multidimensional perspective to integrate the cognitive, behavioural and affective perspectives of student engagement with corrective feedback (Lyster et al., 2013). Only a few studies of oral corrective feedback have been conducted in Chinese L2 classrooms (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Li & Huang, 2017; Yang, 2016).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) proposed six different types of corrective feedback in French immersion classroom interactions. Based on these categories, Fu and Nassaji (2016) identified 12 types of feedback. Their research on an adult Chinese as a foreign language classroom found that recast was the most frequently used oral corrective feedback type, followed by metalinguistic feedback. However, more explicit feedback types could lead to greater amounts of learner uptake. Fu and Nassaji (2016) also found that students with higher proficiency levels were more capable in producing Chinese language and responded to teacher feedback positively, thereby facilitating teachers to provide more feedback. Yang (2016) also found that students generally preferred metalinguistic feedback, recast and explicit corrections. Yang's (2016) study confirmed

that while a student's proficiency level and cultural background can impact their corrective feedback preferences, students' preferred corrective feedback types were not necessarily the ones used most in the classroom. Lyster et al. (2013) also affirm that based on students' language abilities and content familiarity, the most effective teaching method was when teachers were willing and able to orchestrate various corrective feedback types to fit the instructional context.

A few studies have investigated the effect of student engagement with corrective feedback for higher education (Han & Hyland, 2015; Uscinski, 2015). Han and Hyland (2015) took a multiple case study approach in a university located in south-eastern China to explore student engagement with written corrective feedback in a Chinese tertiary English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. This study illustrated the complexity of student engagement with corrective feedback. Student engagement with written corrective feedback is mediated by learner factors and contextual factors, which is also emphasised by Ellis (2010) in socioculturally oriented studies of written corrective feedback. The data also highlights individual differences in student engagement with corrective feedback, which may be partly attributed to learners' beliefs, experiences and L2 learning goals. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers should have a realistic and thorough understanding of students' backgrounds, beliefs and ability levels to foster students' engagement with corrective feedback. Uscinski (2015) also provides insights into the nature of L2 student engagement with written corrective feedback in a study of international students aged 19 – 23 years in the US. The study found that individual and socio-contextual factors appeared to influence the

extent of student engagement. Pedagogical factors, such as the types of corrective feedback and its delivery method, may affect the processing of corrective feedback and students' error awareness. In the current study, the teacher-researcher explores young students' engagement with oral corrective feedback in Chinese in the L2 classroom in an Australian context. Thus, individual factors, contextual factors and pedagogical factors need to be considered in this research.

As noted above, oral corrective feedback is under-examined in the literature, and only a few studies examining oral corrective feedback focus on primary and high schools. Such studies are needed in primary and high school contexts where young learners spend much time building their language capability. L2 instruction with appropriate types of oral corrective feedback strategies may affect young learners' development of target language accuracy (Lyster & Saito, 2010). Therefore, it is necessary to explore the types of oral corrective feedback that foster primary and high school students' engagement.

1.3 Research Aims and Design

This study contends that corrective feedback is important in learning Chinese as an L2 because it may foster student engagement. The study was conducted to explore how Year 7 students cognitively, behaviourally and affectively engage with oral corrective feedback in an L2 classroom. Year 7 students were selected for this study as they have just progressed from primary school to high school, and it is interesting to examine how oral corrective feedback engages this group of transitioning students. The study aimed

to foster Australian school students' engagement, help them learn, improve their performance and create a highly efficient classroom.

In this study, the teacher-researcher, who was also the volunteer teacher, included two cycles of study through an action research design. Action research is an inquiry conducted by practitioners in their own educational environment to promote their practice and improve student learning (Efron & Ravid, 2013). Tomal (2010) argues that action research is more concerned with addressing problems in an efficient and feasible manner, which was the aim of this study. The goal of action researchers is to find out how to improve their practices and promote professional growth by understanding their students, solving problems or developing new skills in a study (Efron & Ravid, 2013) as the researcher tries to improve their own teaching practice. In the current study, through action research, the teacher-researcher can gain experience and knowledge in practice to discover the types of corrective feedback that foster engagement. Based on the premise that individual reasons for lack of engagement in Chinese language learning may vary, it is important to recognize that one common element among these reasons is a lack of student engagement (Singh & Ballantyne, 2014). While numerous studies have been conducted in an effort to make Chinese learnable, the importance of the student's own engagement is often overlooked. To address this issue, it is essential to consider the role of student engagement in Chinese language learning, which can be facilitated through the efforts of teachers (Singh & Ballantyne, 2014). By taking into account the importance of student engagement, educators can better support students in their language learning journey and promote their success.

1.4 Research Significance

As discussed in Section 1.1, this research is set in a Chinese L2 context. The findings of this research are significant in three main aspects. First, this research has considerable significance to the Chinese L2 classroom. Previous studies have shown that context plays an important mediating role in the effect of corrective feedback (Fu & Nassaji, 2016). In different immersion contexts, the distribution of learner uptake of teachers' corrective feedback varies (Lyster & Mori, 2006), meaning corrective feedback works differently in different settings with different languages (Li & Huang, 2017). Recent studies have focused on English language learning, with fewer studies examining corrective feedback in other language classrooms (Fu & Nassaji, 2016). So in non-English language teaching contexts, more research on corrective feedback is needed. In addition, student engagement with oral corrective feedback on L2 is under-explored (Han & Hyland, 2015). In English-speaking countries such as Australia, Chinese L2 classrooms have drawn little scholarly attention (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Li & Huang, 2017; Yang, 2016). Therefore, this research aims to contribute to a deeper understanding of student engagement with oral corrective feedback in the Chinese L2 classroom.

Second, this research may help young learners in Australian local schools to build and develop their Chinese language ability. A large number of studies have investigated the impact of student engagement with corrective feedback for higher education (Han &

Hyland, 2015; Uscinski, 2015), yet only a few focus on primary and high schools. Thus, this research on young students' engagement with oral corrective feedback and its findings may inform the way young Australian students learn Chinese. Finally, through two-cycle action research, this study on student engagement with oral corrective feedback significantly contributes to the teacher-researcher's professional development. The research assists in identifying and solving teaching problems to enhance the teacher-researcher's teaching capability. The beneficial teaching experience lays a solid foundation for future Chinese L2 teaching and professional development.

1.5 Structure of Thesis

The overall structure of this research has been organised into six chapters. Chapter 1 has explained the research background, research context and research problem. It proposed the research aims, design and significance of this research, and thesis outline. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on the types of oral corrective feedback, categories of student engagement with oral corrective feedback based on three dimensions, and characteristics of young L2 learners in New South Wales (NSW) public schools. Central concepts are identified and defined, and the study's research questions posed. Chapter 3 elaborates on the methodology and methods implemented by the teacher-researcher in this study on the types of oral corrective feedback that foster student engagement in the Chinese L2 classroom in an Australian context. It explains the reasons for using the action research method and provides details of the research

context, participants, data collection methods and data analysis. Finally, it presents the ethical issues of this research.

Chapters 4 and 5 are evidentiary chapters that present and discuss the study's key findings. Chapter 4 conducts a descriptive analysis of the findings of the quantitative data research—the student survey questionnaire—and discusses how students respond to oral corrective feedback. Chapter 5 cohesively presents a thematic analysis of the qualitative data collected via five methods: comments on the student survey questionnaires, focus group interviews with the student participants from 7A and 7D, self-reflective journals, semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher and classroom observations for two classes. It presents the three main themes around student engagement with oral corrective feedback: oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes, teacher-researcher's teaching practice and teacher-researcher's professional development. Finally, Chapter 6 aggregates the data analysed in Chapters 4 and 5. It addresses the research questions by discussing the findings and renders the conclusion of the research, including the limitations and implications for further study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter provides a review of the literature relevant to the aims and research questions of this study. It begins with a discussion of how L2 language learners learn in NSW public schools, followed by the two key concepts of student engagement and corrective feedback in the context of L2 learning.

2.1 Second Language Learners

In recent decades, a large number of studies have examined the characteristics and effects of corrective feedback on second language acquisition (SLA) and teaching (Chen et al., 2016). Corrective feedback facilitates L2 development (Lyster, & Saito, 2010; Russell, & Nina, 2006). In the SLA field, researchers have increasingly recognised the importance of corrective feedback in the SLA process and the effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback, usually in terms of L2 development in language laboratories and classrooms (Rassaei, 2013). However, few studies have examined how corrective feedback assists L2 development, and little is known about why certain types of corrective feedback are more effective than others (Rassaei, 2013). The practice of corrective feedback has certain problems in L2 classrooms, such as subjective randomness, ambiguity and being non-systematic. Although the facilitative role of corrective feedback in SLA has been shown, the claim about its impact on SLA has not been fully or decisively confirmed (Ji-Hyun, 2013). One possible explanation from Egi (2010) is that different learning processes are triggered by different types of corrective feedback. Further, the different development

rates due to the different corrective feedback types may be reminiscent of learners' various perceptions of the corrective feedback they receive.

In addition, individual differences (contextual, linguistic and cognitive factors) between young learners and adult learners lead to different preferred corrective feedback types, as well as the uptake and repair of this feedback by different learners (Panove & Lyster, 2002). Factors such as the learner's age can partly determine the extent to which specific corrective feedback can achieve the expected results. However, the influence of age as a potential learner's internal factor affecting the choice of corrective feedback has been largely ignored (Ghahari & Piruznejad, 2016). In the field of L2 phonology (Flege et al., 1995) and morphosyntax (Abrahamsson & Hyltenstam, 2008), the proposition of 'younger is better' is paramount. Mackey and Oliver (2002) conclude that corrective feedback 'leads to development more quickly for child learners than for adults' (p. 473). Lyster and Saito (2010) also conducted a meta-analysis to investigate the pedagogical effectiveness of oral corrective feedback on the development of the target language. The participants in the studies fall into three age categories: (a) child learners with an average age of 10 – 12 years, (b) young adult learners with an average age of 17 – 20 years, and (c) adult learners with an average age over 23 years. The analysis of their data revealed effects for age (i.e., child v. young adult v. adult learners), with younger learners benefiting from oral corrective feedback more than older learners. Accordingly, there is a need to detect what types of oral corrective feedback are most effective for these young learners and can foster their engagement.

Moreover, younger learners seem to be particularly sensitive to corrective feedback (Mackey & Oliver, 2002; Oliver, 2000). Regarding age, the overall impact of corrective feedback in the classroom environment may be greater for young learners than older learners. Therefore, L2 instruction with appropriate types of corrective feedback strategies may especially affect young learners' development of target language accuracy (Lyster & Saito, 2010). Thus, if younger learners are more sensitive to the effects of corrective feedback, they may benefit from it significantly more than older learners (Lyster & Saito 2010; Mackey & Oliver, 2003; Oliver, 2000).

Therefore, the focus of the current research is young learners, defined here as Year 7 school students around 12 years of age. The young L2 learners are monolingual English speakers with very little Chinese learning background. Learning Chinese for them was learning a second language. McKay (2005) concurs that young learners 'are going through a period of social, emotional, and cognitive growth, they are developing literacy and they are highly vulnerable' (p. 256). Given the vulnerability of young language learners, scholars emphasise the need for elaborated intervention in the classroom, including teachers' scaffolding. In the L2 classroom, learning tasks should be interesting and motivating, moderately difficult, and should avoid frustration and insecurity (Hasselgreen, 2005). When providing corrective feedback as a form of scaffolding, teachers are encouraged to consider students' errors in a progressive and developmental manner, from implicit corrective feedback provision in the early stage (child learners) to explicit correction in the later stage (adult learners) (Ghahari &

Piruznejad, 2016). In this respect, teachers in the L2 classroom should pay close attention to how best to tailor the use of corrective feedback to match learners' ages.

2.2 Corrective Feedback

The field of corrective feedback research has grown dramatically over the last 20 years (Lyster & Saito, 2010). Ramaprasad (1983) identified corrective feedback as 'information about the gap between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way'. Corrective feedback has been defined as a 'complex phenomenon with several functions' (Chaudron, 1988, p. 152), and any indication to the learners that they are using the target language incorrectly (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

Hattie and Timperley (2007) conceptualise corrective feedback as information provided by an agent (such as teacher, peer, book, parent, self or experience) about someone's performance or understanding. So a teacher or parent can provide corrective information, and feedback is a 'consequence' of performance. Sheen (2007) defines corrective feedback as 'a teacher's reactive move that invites a learner to attend to the grammatical accuracy of the utterance which is produced by the learner' (p. 301) and states that corrective feedback research 'constitutes an area of inquiry that links practice, theory and research' (Sheen, 2010, p.177). Corrective feedback is also the teacher's evaluation and response to the student's wrong answer (Aranguiz & Quintanilla Espinoza, 2016). In terms of L2 learning, corrective feedback refers to the responses of teachers and peers to the L2 production of learner errors (Li, 2014).

Loewen et al. (2009) conducted a survey of language classes in eight different language groups at an American university. They found that Chinese learners (most of whose first language was English) were more positive about grammar teaching and error correction than learners of other languages, whereas English learners had the strongest dislike of corrective feedback (and the least attention to grammatical accuracy). The difference may be attributed to the Chinese language being a non-Indo-European language (Loewen et al., 2009) and also a kind of tonal language. When foreign language learners do not have the opportunity to use Chinese language outside the classroom, they value grammar teaching and corrective feedback more (Gass & Lewis 2007). In Chinese, the same syllable with the same pronunciation but different tones may have completely different meanings. Therefore, due to the characteristics of Chinese tones, some corrective feedback is assumed to be ambiguous. For example, in the Chinese L2 classroom, learners often fail to notice and distinguish between recast feedback and repetition feedback, as the following example demonstrates:

Student: 茶 (chà).

Note: this was pronounced using the 4th tone, which is incorrect.

Teacher: 茶 (chà)?

Note: the teacher corrected the student by repeating what the student said.

Student: 茶(chà).

Note: the student repeated what the teacher said and did not realise the error.

Teacher: No, it is not 茶 (chà), it is 茶(chá).

Note: the teacher then corrected the student by directly saying that the 4th tone was incorrect, and this should be pronounced using the 2nd tone.

Student: okay, 茶(chá).

Note: the student pronounced with the accurate intonation.

During this interaction, when the student said the wrong tone of tea in Chinese, the teacher-researcher tried to use repetition feedback to repeat what she said in a questioning tone. However, the Chinese second tone is similar to the questioning tone, and this student misunderstood the teacher-researcher's feedback as recast. Subsequently, the teacher-researcher had to clearly tell her the previous answer was wrong and the second tone should be read.

As noted in Chapter 1, corrective feedback includes oral corrective feedback and written corrective feedback. Oral corrective feedback is used in this research and is further discussed later in this chapter. In L2 and foreign language learning research, the term 'oral corrective feedback' means the language teacher provides an oral indication that the student's utterance contains an error (Ellis et al., 2006).

2.2.1 Purposes of corrective feedback

Many studies involving a wide range of content areas have shown that feedback has the power to foster students' learning (Schuldt, 2018). Feedback is one of the most powerful factors influencing learning and achievement (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Corrective feedback is a pedagogical technique that teachers use to draw attention to learners' erroneous utterances, resulting in learners' modified output (Suzuki, 2005). It is believed that when feedback to students is provided appropriately and targeted at the appropriate level, feedback information can help close the gap between students' current and desired performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Feedback on student performance has thus been identified as a central feature of successful instruction for

teachers of all subjects and grade levels (Shute, 2008). Recent research also reports that feedback can be a powerful motivator, particularly when responding to goal-driven efforts (Shute 2008).

The main purpose of corrective feedback is to reduce the differences between current understanding and performance and goals (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Feedback needs to provide information about the learning tasks or processes that fills the gap between understanding content and understanding goals (Sadler, 1989). It helps students pay attention to their mistakes and encourages them to improve their speech production (Aranguiz & Quintanilla Espinoza, 2016b). However, 'corrective feedback is a two-way, interdependent process, involving the giver and the receiver, with both being information providers' (Han, 2001, p. 591). L2 acquisition literature asserts that learners can be exposed to two types of input: positive evidence and negative evidence (Long, 1996). As the term 'negative evidence' is often used interchangeably with the term 'corrective feedback' (Gass, 1997; Schachter, 1991), it is necessary to consider the negative effects of using corrective feedback in the Chinese L2 classroom.

Nativists such as Krashen (1982, 1985) have denied any perceived benefits from corrective feedback in SLA. Krashen even asserts that corrective feedback is not only useless but potentially harmful because it interrupts the flow of discourse that could provide comprehensible input. However, these contentions have been challenged by subsequent theoretical and empirical research. Kim (2004) argues that the crux of the facilitation of corrective feedback seems to be related to its role in attracting learners'

attention to the gap between their output and the target language. Swain (1985, 1995) also attributes considerable importance to corrective feedback and attributes the deficiencies in learner performance to the absence of immersive classrooms, the context factor. Learners noticing the gaps is not a static phenomenon, as it can be restricted by both learners' internal factors (e.g., learners' language proficiency level and age) and external factors (e.g., linguistic features and context) (Kim, 2004). Therefore, to reduce the negative impact of using corrective feedback in this research, the teacher-researcher needs to consider the context factor, learners' language proficiency levels and the age of learners.

Powerful feedback should provide students with concrete guidance to move forward to ensure the feedback is actionable by ending the interaction for students with clear steps to follow (Schuldt, 2018). To ensure effective corrective feedback in the current study, learners' internal and external factors were considered to attract their attention and improve the information about differences, thereby helping learners fill the gap between their current performance and the goals.

2.2.2 Types of corrective feedback

There are many classifications of oral corrective feedback in the academic world (Rassaei, 2013). As noted in Section 1.2, Lyster and Ranta (1997) provided six types of oral corrective feedback. Sheen and Ellis (2011) propose a similar taxonomy that distinguishes the concepts of reformulations and prompts and labels each corrective feedback type as implicit or explicit. Sheen and Ellis (2011) also introduce

‘paralinguistic signal’ as a new type and combine explicit correction and metalinguistic explanation into another.

Among the classifications, those proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997) are the most comprehensive and widely adopted by scholars due to their study’s theoretical significance (Lee, 2013; Li & Hui, 2017; Rassaei & Ahmad, 2011). Based on these early classifications, the taxonomies of corrective feedback types used by teachers in their practice are constantly updated and explored, including (a) learner uptake (Fu & Nassaji, 2016), (b) the effects of different types of corrective feedback strategies on L2 development (Sheen, 2007), (c) different taxonomies of corrective feedback strategies (Chaudron, 1977), and (d) students’ preferences for corrective feedback (Lee, 2013). Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) six types of oral corrective feedback are explained in the following sections, together with examples of how they can be used in Chinese language learning in the current study, taking into account learners’ language proficiency level and age.

(1) Explicit correction: the teacher provides the correct form then indicates what is incorrect.

Student: xián. (咸 salty)

Note: the student said the word is ‘salty’, but this should be ‘sweet’.

Teacher: No, it is not xián. xián is salty and tián is sweet. tián.

Note: the teacher then corrected the student by directly saying that what the student said was ‘salty’ and this should be ‘sweet’ with the accurate pronunciation.

Right answer: tián. (甜 sweet)

(2) Recast: these are ‘the teacher’s reformulation of all or part of a student’s utterance, minus the error’ (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 46). Teachers directly say the correct language form, re-express the learner’s meaning in the correct language form and reduce the error. This expression is generally more implicit and euphemistic than explicit correction.

Student: chà. (茶, tea)

Note: this was pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect.

Teacher: chá.

Note: the teacher then corrected the student by saying that this should be pronounced using the 2nd tone.

Right answer: chá.

(3) Clarification correction: the student’s utterance is incoherent and causes the teacher to misunderstand it, so a reformulation or repetition is required. In this way, the teacher encourages the student to explain the meaning of what was said so the student realises there is a problem with the comprehensibility of the language and seeks to improve the accuracy.

Student: kē lè. (可乐 Coke)

Note: this was pronounced using the 1st tone of “可” which is incorrect.

Teacher: What? Could you please say that again?

Note: the teacher encouraged the student to reformulate it.

Right answer: kě lè. (可乐 Coke)

(4) Metalinguistic clues: teacher provides information, comments or questions to the student’s language form. Instead of giving the correct answer explicitly, the teacher indicates that there is an error somewhere so the student can correct it themselves.

Student: lā. (辣, the taste of spicy)

Note: this was pronounced using the 1st tone which is incorrect.

Teacher: Spicy is the fourth tone. Remember?

Note: the teacher then didn't explicitly provide the correct answer, but told the student that this should be the 4th tone.

Right answer: là. (辣 the taste of spicy)

(5) Elicitation: teacher guides students to self-correct their responses through specific language and skills, such as strategically pausing for students to 'fill in the blank', guiding them in the form of questions or prompts to elicit correct responses, or occasionally asking students to reformulate utterances.

Student: 我想喝宫保鸡丁。 (I want to drink Kung Pao chicken.)

Note: the student incorrectly used the wrong verb 'drink', which should be 'eat'.

Teacher: 我想.....

Note: the teacher tried to push the student to self-correct by pausing.

Right answer: 我想吃宫保鸡丁。 (I want to eat Kung Pao chicken)

(6) Repetition: teacher repeats the student's erroneous utterances. In most cases, the teacher adjusts their intonation by using a questioning tone, a rising tone, or a prominent accent to highlight the error.

Student: qiǎo kē lì liú nǎi. (chocolate milk)

Note: the pronunciation 'liú nǎi' for milk was wrong, and this should be 'niú nǎi'.

Teacher: qiǎo kē lì liú nǎi?

Note: the teacher repeats the student's error by using a questioning tone.

Right answer: qiǎo kē lì niú nǎi. (chocolate milk)

Based on more and more corrective feedback research in classroom settings, Lyster and Ranta (1997) further classified these six types of corrective feedback types into two broad corrective feedback categories—reformulations and prompts—to measure the

variable effectiveness of these oral corrective feedback types. Reformulations include recasts and explicit correction; prompts include elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetition. Reformulations provide the learner with the correct form and do not encourage the learner's response ('uptake'), while the prompts retain the correct form and are more likely to be followed by learner uptake to push learners to self-repair from their existing knowledge (Li, 2014; Li & Hui, 2017; Lyster & Saito, 2012). Therefore, within reformulations, explicit corrections can convey both negative and positive linguistic evidence and recasts convey positive evidence and possibly also negative evidence, while prompts only convey negative linguistic evidence by indicating the student's utterance was incorrect (Lyster & Saito, 2012).

2.2.3 Effectiveness of corrective feedback

Contrary to the claim that negative evidence in the form of oral corrective feedback may be harmful to the development of interlanguage (Truscott, 1999) and positive evidence alone is sufficient (Krashen, 1982), the effectiveness of corrective feedback provides support for SLA theory, which emphasises the importance of both negative and positive evidence in L2 development (Gass, 1997; Long, 1996, 2007). In most studies, recast is one of the most popular types of corrective feedback in different language classes across countries (Li & Huang, 2017; Lyster & Mori, 2006; Sheen, 2004). Li and Huang (2017) investigated the effectiveness of each corrective feedback type in two Year 7 Chinese lessons in a Melbourne private school. The results show that explicit corrections were the most effective oral corrective feedback type. However, the overall effectiveness of oral corrective feedback was not satisfactory,

especially for recast, which was used most commonly by the Chinese teacher. Recast was not effective in all situations, especially when the whole sentence was implemented, which did not fully highlight the error. Lu and Gao (2015) conducted a survey of four Chinese learners in a beginning level class and found that recast was the most common. In an adult Chinese as a foreign language classroom, recast was also the most frequently used corrective feedback type, followed by metalinguistic feedback (Fu & Nassaji, 2016). In the majority of descriptive studies, recast was cited as the most commonly used corrective feedback type in different language classes in various countries (e.g., Ellis et al., 2001; Lee, 2007; Lyster & Mori 2006; Sheen, 2004; Yang, 2009).

Based on previous studies, recast is the predominant feedback type used in Chinese L2 classrooms (Lee, 2013; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Rassaei, 2012; Sheen, 2004), which may be due to the large number of language teachers using it in the classroom (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). In addition, it is unobtrusive and does not interrupt the flow of communication (Lyster, 1998b; Ghahari & Piruznejad, 2016). However, although recasts account for the largest number of repairs, only a small percentage of recasts lead to repair. A study conducted by Zhao (2009) found that the most common corrective feedback strategies in primary school EFL classrooms were recast (59%), repetition (13.3%) and explicit correction (8%). As for the results of corrective feedback that led to student uptake (in Grades 5 and 6), only 53% of errors were repaired. Thus, recasts also suffer from certain drawbacks and are considered ambiguous as students often fail to notice and distinguish them from non-corrective

repetitions (Ellis, 2007; Lyster, 1998; Sheen, 2007). However, while low proficiency level students may not be sensitive to recognising the gap between their utterances and the correct forms (Lin & Hedgcock, 1996; Ghahari & Piruznejad, 2016), Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that proficiency level may affect teachers' choice of corrective feedback and opportunities for uptake. Due to students' limited linguistic resources resulting in a large number of incomplete or short utterances, students with low proficiency may predispose the teacher to focus on providing linguistic input through recasts (Panova & Lyster, 2002). This may be why teachers view recast as a suitable strategy to provide exemplars of the target language.

Yet in some cases of other L2 classrooms, explicit corrections share a similar or greater proportion of use to recasts. Simard and Jean (2011) argue that explicit corrections take up nearly half of all corrective feedback types in French immersion classrooms at a Canadian high school. Therefore, oral corrective feedback works differently in different settings with different languages (Li & Huang, 2017). Comparing explicit corrections with recasts, research findings indicate that explicit corrections are more effective than recasts on the development of L2 knowledge (Rassaei, 2013; Sheen, 2007) This assertion suggests that more explicit and obtrusive types of corrective feedback are more effective than implicit ones because explicit correction is more likely to be noticed or perceived as corrective feedback than implicit feedback.

In advanced level adult ESL classrooms at an affiliated language institute of a large public university in the US, students prefer explicit corrections to the frequently

employed recasts for a number of reasons (Lee, 2013). First, learners can easily identify what errors they made, where they went wrong and how they can correct these errors when the teacher clearly points out their utterance errors. Further, they can correct their errors immediately and directly, thereby saving time in recognising the errors. Finally, they feel that explicit correction gives them the best and most accurate answers (Lee, 2013). Thus, students' active involvement with corrective feedback is vital to their learning process.

2.3 Student Engagement with Corrective Feedback

In the field of educational psychology, 'student engagement' is a popular buzzword (Kahu, 2013) and the concept of engagement has been the subject of intensive study over the past decade (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) due to its importance to learning. Engagement is considered crucial for learning (Qiu & Lo, 2016) and a prime indicator of academic achievement (Christenson et al., 2012; Qiu & Lo, 2016). However, engagement is complex and multifaceted (Fredricks et al., 2004), and the term 'learner engagement' is often used without being clearly defined (Han & Hyland, 2015).

'Engagement' is often used to talk broadly about learners' interests and participation activities (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). The American Heritage College Dictionary (4th ed.) defines engagement as being 'actively committed'; to be engaged is 'to involve oneself or become occupied; to participate'. The New Oxford American Dictionary states that engagement means to 'attract or involve'. Borrowed from Wellborn's (1990) pioneering work on the subject, engagement refers to the extent of a student's active

involvement in a learning activity, which emphasises the importance of the ‘learning activity’. Engagement is also described as ‘a state of heightened attention and involvement, in which participation is reflected not only in the cognitive dimension, but in social, behavioural, and affective dimensions as well’ (Philp & Duchesne, 2016 p. 3). Descriptions of engagement tend to foreground characteristics such as effort, interest, concentration, active participation and emotional response. This suggests that engaged learners not only ‘go through the motions’, they also spend energy and attention and are emotionally involved (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Despite the different definitions provided by researchers, it is clear that engagement in the context of learning involves learners’ active participation.

In previous research, student engagement with corrective feedback has been interpreted as learner perceptions (Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2004), revision behaviours (Ferris, 2006), processing and uptake (Storch & Gillian, 2010), and self-editing strategies and self-monitoring (Ferris et al., 2013). However, there is no consensus on exactly what constitutes student engagement with corrective feedback. Ellis (2010) provides a well-articulated and clear conception of student engagement in his componential framework for corrective feedback, which incorporates cognitive, behavioural and affective perspectives. He refers to student engagement as the influence of learners’ individual difference factors, contextual factors and corrective feedback types on how learners respond to and engage with corrective feedback and how learners respond to the corrective feedback they receive (Han & Hyland, 2015).

2.3.1 Multidimensional perspectives of student engagement with corrective feedback

As a ‘multifaceted’ or ‘multidimensional’ construct, engagement includes three components: cognitive, behavioural and emotional (Fredricks et al., 2004). For Philp and Duchesne (2016), engagement is reflected in the cognitive dimension as well as the social, behavioural and affective dimensions. According to Kahu (2013), there are four relatively distinct approaches to understanding engagement: behavioural, sociocultural, psychological and holistic. Christenson et al. (2012) emphasise the key role of engagement in learning as student engagement, which is often influenced by multiple contextual factors, requires students’ energy and effort and, most importantly, propels learning. Lamborn et al. (1992) assert that engagement is critical to achieving good teaching results. It is widely accepted that engagement in class is essential for effective student learning, especially for young learners. So if we can better understand engagement, we can better investigate how to engage all learners (Ellis, 2010). Researchers such as Ellis (2010) and Han and Hyland (2015) more explicitly explain student engagement with corrective feedback. Ellis’s (2010) proposal on learner engagement with corrective feedback was seen as a comprehensive, multifaceted continuum. He proposed three different perspectives—cognitive, behavioural and affective—to examine student engagement with both written and oral corrective feedback.

In the educational research literature, multiple dimensions have proven to be interdependent and mutually influential rather than isolated independent constructs

(Philp & Duchesne, 2016). There is a dynamic relationship between the three dimensions of engagement, and student engagement should not be understood through a single lens (Han & Hyland, 2015). Based on Ellis's (2010) componential framework of student engagement with corrective feedback, the current study used a three-dimensional framework of student engagement with oral corrective feedback. In Ellis's (2010) framework, cognitive perspective refers to how learners cognitively attend to the corrective feedback they receive. Behavioural perspective involves learners' uptake or revisions elicited by corrective feedback, and affective perspective refers to learners' attitude towards the corrective feedback (e.g., anxiety, dislike) (Ellis's, 2010). The following section details the criteria of student engagement with corrective feedback, which is based on Han and Hyland's work (2015).

The cognitive dimension can be divided into three aspects. First, noticing awareness: the extent to which the learner detects oral corrective feedback, recognises the teacher's intention and attends to linguistic accuracy. For example, 'Oh! I was wrong! I shouldn't say...' after providing the corrective feedback. Second, understanding awareness: the extent to which the learner successfully diagnoses the error and can provide accurate explanations. For example, after being given corrective feedback, the student can give the right answer. Third, cognitive operations: cognitive strategies and skills that the students use to process and respond to oral corrective feedback. For example, after giving corrective feedback, the student can explain the error.

The behavioural dimension includes two aspects. First, learning strategies: take observable strategies to improve the accuracy of Chinese, or even improve Chinese L2 capabilities. For example, students ask new or relevant questions after feedback is given, take notes automatically, talk about their relevant experience after, and/or ask good clarifying questions. Second, the degree of repair: repair successfully, repair unsuccessfully, no repair or only part of answer repair successfully. For example, students give the right answer and repair successfully after feedback is given.

Finally, the affective dimension focuses on two aspects. First, emotional responses: the learner's immediate emotional reactions towards corrective feedback when first received, and the changes in their emotional reactions during and after corrective feedback. For example, when the teacher provides feedback, students who are experiencing emotional states such as upset, anxiety, happiness, or boredom tend to direct their attention towards the teacher and display heightened focus. Second, attitudinal responses: the student's overall attitude towards corrective feedback. For example, positive, negative, mixed or challenged students say, 'I like your feedback!.'

While these three dimensions of engagement are applicable to the study of corrective feedback, they were originally proposed for corrective feedback generally, rather than oral corrective feedback specifically. Therefore, some adjustments may be needed to address the particularity and complexity of student engagement with oral corrective feedback (Han & Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018). First, given the negative impact of oral corrective feedback and the possibility that the dynamics of student engagement

with oral corrective feedback might change, the teacher-researcher should consider learners' internal factors (learners' language proficiency level and age) and external factors (e.g., context factor) in this research. Moreover, since oral corrective feedback is usually provided immediately, 'on the spot', it is necessary to observe and record students' engagement in the Chinese L2 class in time.

2.4 Research Questions

Given the importance of oral corrective feedback for student engagement and the teacher-researcher's personal experience and observation in an Australian high school, this study was guided by the following overarching research question and two contributory sub-questions:

RQ: How and in what ways can different types of oral corrective feedback foster students' engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom?

SQ1: How does each corrective feedback engage the students behaviourally, cognitively, and affectively?

SQ2: How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student's engagement with oral corrective feedback?

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has detailed the literature that contributed to the development of this research. It focused on four aspects: young learners in the L2 classroom, the concept of oral corrective feedback and student engagement with corrective feedback, the

classifications of oral corrective feedback, and three multidimensional perspectives of student engagement with oral corrective feedback. Finally, the central research question was presented as: *What types of oral corrective feedback will foster students' engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom?*

The following chapter will provide a comprehensive introduction to the research methodology and methods employed to complete this project. Action research was used to explore student engagement with each type of corrective feedback based on two cycles. A focus group interview, semi-structured interviews, self-reflective journals, questionnaires and classroom observations were the main methods used for data collection and served as the data source to provide evidence for the findings of this research.

Chapter 3: Methodology

In this chapter, six sections jointly describe and justify the methodology and methods undertaken for this research. First, action research is introduced as the research design guiding this research project. Action research is clarified by the definition, characteristics and significance of both qualitative and quantitative research methods employed in this study to address the research questions. The second section describes in detail the research context, participants and research procedure, which provides a clear blueprint for implementing this research. The following two sections are the most important in this chapter, describing the methods the teacher-researcher used to collect and analyse the data underpinning the whole study. Finally, the ethical conduct of this research is also explained in detail.

3.1 Research Design: Action Research

Action research has become an important research design, and it has been implemented in many disciplines. In recent decades, it has been widely used in foreign language teaching and research (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014). Efron and Ravid (2013) define action research as an inquiry conducted by practitioners in their own educational environment to promote their practice and improve their students' learning. More precisely, Mills (2011) defines action research as any systematic inquiry conducted by teachers, counsellors, administrators or others with established interests in the teaching and learning process or environment, to gather information about how their particular school operates, how they teach and how students learn. In their definition, Coghlan

and Brannick (2005) emphasise the process of action research as including a ‘focus on action and research simultaneously and in a participative manner’. Unlike traditional approaches to educational research, which separate theory and action, and research and practice, these definitions suggest that action research offers a new relationship and blurs the boundaries among the areas of practice, theory and research (Mertler 2014). The goal of action researchers is to discover how to improve practices and promote professional growth by understanding students, solving problems or developing new skills in a study (Efron & Ravid, 2013). In this study, the volunteer was a researcher and Chinese language teacher in Rose Happy High School. The main focus of this study was to examine the types of oral corrective feedback that would likely enhance students’ learning experience in the L2 classroom. Further, through action research, the teacher-researcher hoped to improve her own teaching practices to engage her students in learning the Chinese language.

Tomal (2010) argues that in some ways, action research is more suitable and practicable for educators as it does not require complex statistical analysis or lengthy narrative explanations. It is more focused on solving problems in an efficient and workable manner. Similarly, Mertler and Charles (2011) hold the view that action research provides educators with alternative ways of approaching educational problems and new perspectives on assessing educational practices. Researchers often participate directly in action research studies as an integral member rather than an outsider. Thus, researchers can study their own classrooms and collect first-hand information—such as students’ learning styles or teachers’ teaching methods (Mertler, 2013; Tomal, 2010)—

and employ appropriate interventions to collect and analyse the data to apply a revised plan. Consequently, in the present study, the teacher-researcher sought to better understand her classrooms, improve her teaching practices and address the educational problem. In sum, action research, as discussed by Mertler and Charles (2011), has several advantages. These include solving research problems, being conducted in a timely fashion, providing researchers with opportunities to understand and improve their educational practices, and promoting stronger relationships between colleagues in the same profession.

In this study, qualitative research methods were predominately used, with descriptive analysis as supportive evidence. Qualitative research methods—such as observations, interviews and rich narratives—can enhance action researchers’ sensitivity to the nuanced world of students and others in the school setting, while numerical data provides an effective tool for assessing, describing and analysing other aspects of school life (Efron & Ravid, 2020). Thus, qualitative research can be used to study school situations and events that occur in the natural circumstances of the school. The purpose of using qualitative research in this study is to gain insight and understand how students, teachers, parents and administrators comprehend their educational experiences (Efron & Ravid, 2020). Meanwhile, this study aimed to explain the phenomena by gathering numerical data to support the qualitative data.

Therefore, the four types of qualitative data collection methods used in this research were (a) semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher after each lesson; (b) focus

group interviews with students, held at the end of each research cycle; (c) classroom observations during the Chinese lessons; and (d) the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journals, recorded after each lesson. To complement these qualitative data collection tools, student survey questionnaires were developed as a supportive quantitative source of data to explore different types of oral corrective feedback further and examine the students' preferences for oral corrective feedback.

3.2 Research Context and Participants

This study was carried out in a NSW public high school. The research participants were Year 7 students learning Chinese as an L2, the teacher-researcher herself, and a mentor teacher. The purpose of this research was to examine the types of oral corrective feedback that foster students' engagement in the L2 classroom. Rose Happy High School (a pseudonym) in the Western Sydney region is one of the partner schools of the ROSETE program where the teacher-researcher teaches Chinese as part of the curriculum. This NSW school offers a wide variety of language instruction, accommodating both beginner learners and those with a background in the language. In Rose Happy High School, language learning is a key area, and 100 hours of language learning is compulsory from Year 7 to Year 10. Chinese is one of the languages offered in this school, so Rose Happy High School provides a supportive, dynamic environment for learning Chinese.

This research included three participant groups: student participants, the teacher-researcher and a mentor teacher. According to the NSW Syllabus for the Australian

Curriculum, the average Year 7 student is at Stage 4 of learning. The teacher-researcher selected the students in Classes 7A and 7D to participate in this research. Convenient sampling was employed in this study. Given the teacher-researcher was allocated three Year 7 classes at Rose Happy High School (7A, 7D and 7E) for Chinese language teaching, student participants for this research could only be selected from these three classes.

Previous studies have shown how language proficiency influences the success of the provision of oral corrective feedback in L2 classrooms (Fu& Nassaji, 2016; Jimenez, 2006; Havranek, 2002). Bachman (1990) defines language proficiency as ‘knowledge competence or ability in the use of a language’ (p. 16). Therefore, in this research, language proficiency may influence the effectiveness of the teacher-researcher using different types of oral corrective feedback, thereby affecting student engagement in the Chinese L2 classroom. While there are different theoretical views regarding definitions of ‘language proficiency’, many scholars agree that a general issue is proficiency testing’s focus on the students’ language ability (Farhady, 1982). Meanwhile, students with lower language proficiency might have caused a lower feedback rate and less frequent interaction between the teacher-researcher and the students (Fu & Nassaji, 2016; Panova & Lyster, 2002). So the teacher-researcher determined the students’ language proficiency level based on the degree of interaction between the teacher-researcher and students in the Chinese classroom and the accuracy and enthusiasm of answering questions.

Based on these criteria, the language proficiency level of the three classes was ranked, with Class 7D having the class highest proficiency, followed by Classes 7E and 7A. On this basis, the language proficiency level gap between Classes 7A and Class 7D was deemed to be relatively large: 7A students had lower Chinese language proficiency while 7D students were comparatively advanced. Taking these factors into consideration, Classes 7A and 7D were identified to be involved in this research. There were 25 students in Class 7A and 27 students in Class 7D, and their average age was 12. All the student participants in these classes are local Australians, and their first language is English. Most of them had very little or no Chinese learning background. Both classes have three Chinese lessons each week, and each lesson lasts 40 minutes.

The second participant group is the teacher-researcher herself, who engaged the Chinese volunteers' work with her learning for higher education and had an indispensable role in this research. The teacher-researcher is a teacher of Chinese at Rose Happy High School, and a researcher using action research to explore young learner engagement with oral corrective feedback at Western Sydney University. The ROSETE Program is jointly organized by the Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau (NMEB), the NSW Department of Education and Training (DET), the Centre for Educational Research, and the University of Western Sydney. 10 volunteer teachers are selected to work as volunteer teacher-researchers in the Western Sydney Region each year. These 10 volunteer teachers are required to teach Chinese in local primary and secondary schools while pursuing a Master of Education (Honours) at the University of Western Sydney. As part of a collaborative international project, this teacher-

researcher was a teacher volunteer from the ROSETE program assigned to teach in this high school. She is a bilingual novice teacher from a Chinese background with some research training, including weekly meetings and some research workshops with the ROSETE program. She also has some experience in teaching English in middle school in China. At Rose Happy High School, the teacher-researcher taught Chinese classes for 18 months. Before the action research, she mainly observed the mentor teacher's teaching in 7A and 7D Chinese classrooms. As the research progressed, the teacher-researcher started to independently teach Chinese and provide appropriate oral corrective feedback in Chinese L2 classrooms. In this study, she was both a researcher and participant, and her personal reflective journal was included as a data source for this study.

In the current study, the classroom teacher was also the teacher-researcher's mentor teacher, who has over 20 years' experience teaching Mandarin in Australia. She is responsible for creating the extension language courses for Year 7 students and offering an elective course in Year 9/10. Her native language is English, but she speaks Mandarin fluently. Her involvement provided significant information about the lessons from the perspective of a native speaker and as an experienced L2 teacher. The mentor teacher was in the classroom when the teacher-researcher was conducting lessons, observing her teaching, supervising her lessons and providing feedback and suggestions after the class.

3.3 Research Procedure

Having established the context and the role of participants in the current study, the research procedure followed the cyclical nature of action research, as a systematic and practical approach to address the research question. According to its unique characteristics, action research is constructivist, situational, practical, systematic and cyclical. Based on its cyclical nature, action research starts with a research question and ends with applying the knowledge acquired, generating new questions and a new cycle (Mertler, 2014; Mills, 2011; Stringer, 2008).

At Rose Happy High School, the teacher-researcher taught Chinese language lessons to Classes 7A and 7D each Thursday. Linking this situation to the action research cycle, this study was divided into two research cycles, with each cycle comprising five weeks of teaching. Each cycle is one round of evidence-driven teacher-researcher action research (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014). The teacher-researcher outlined what she would teach while collecting the data for this research (see Appendix 8). Before each cycle, the teacher-researcher determined the teaching content with the mentor teacher based on the NSW Syllabus, identifying what types of oral corrective feedback would be employed in the Chinese classroom, and integrated different oral corrective feedback into her lesson plans.

As Kemmis and McTaggart (2014) conceive, the cyclical action research process works through a series of steps, including planning, action and observation, and reflecting on

the effects of the action. Therefore, each research cycle was further divided into three parts. The teacher-researcher included these steps into her own research (see Figure 1).

Plan: The lessons was crafted based on the teaching content indicated in the school curriculum. Before each cycle, the teacher-researcher designed her lesson plans and integrated different corrective feedback strategies accordingly. Thus, before each lesson, the teacher-researcher prepared the teaching content and developed a detailed lesson plan based on the NSW Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum.

Act and observe: In this phase, the teacher-researcher implemented the six different kinds of oral corrective feedback strategies according to the lesson plan with the two classes. Observation focused on students' responses to different corrective feedback strategies by utilising an observation checklist. The teacher-researcher enlisted the assistance of her mentor teacher to conduct the observation. After each lesson, the teacher-researcher interviewed the mentor teacher for constructive suggestions and feedback on the lessons. At the end of the cycle, the students from the two Year 7 classes completed a questionnaire about the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback. Some students were also invited for a focus group interview. During each cycle, the teacher-researcher reflected upon her own teaching through self-reflective journals.

Reflect: After collecting and analysing the research data, the teacher-researcher reflected on what she had learned in this cycle and what changes she could make to

improve her teaching in the next (or future) teaching cycle.

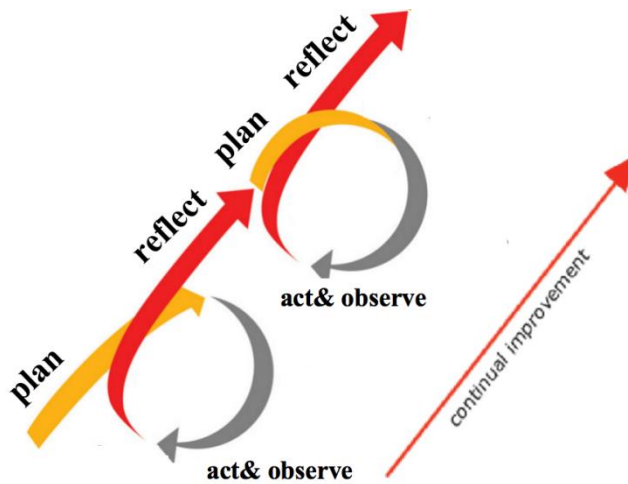


Figure 1: Action research process (adopted from Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014)

In the first research cycle, the teacher-researcher implemented all six types of oral corrective feedback over five weeks to examine how these foster students' engagement in Chinese L2 lessons. The teacher-researcher reflected on her own teaching while implementing the different types of feedback. Specifically, the teacher-researcher conducted six different types of corrective feedback in Cycle 1 to examine what oral corrective feedback was useful for learning. After the reflection and analysis of Cycle 1, the teacher-researcher made some adjustments to her teaching accordingly.

In Cycle 2, the teacher-researcher identified the preferred types of oral corrective feedback for the Year 7 students based on the initial assessment conducted in Cycle 1, while also incorporating the types of oral corrective feedback that she commonly used in the classroom. She also combined these corrective feedback types into Cycle 2 to further explore which combination of oral feedback could foster students' engagement.

The teacher-researcher also refined the various types of corrective feedback in the Chinese classes to improve their execution and use them in Cycle 2 for another round of data collection and analysis.

3.4 Data Collection Methods

In this research, data were collected from the two classes through focus group interviews with students, student questionnaires, classroom observations, semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher, and the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journals.

3.4.1 Interviewing the mentor teacher

An interview is a dialogue between the teacher-researcher and research participant whereby the researcher poses questions to the participant (Schmuck, 2006). It is a reflective process that provides opportunities for participants to review their experience in detail and reveal many features that affect the issue investigated (Stringer, 2007). An interview is typically a formal conversation between individuals (Mertler, 2014). To start an interview, the teacher-researcher identifies the purpose of the interview and their role in the interview, ensures the participants' involvement is entirely voluntary and allows them to determine the time and places of the interview so they feel as comfortable as possible. If participants feel uncomfortable, they have the right to terminate the interview or withdraw from the interview at any time. A key feature of successful interviews is that participants feel free to say what they really think and express their true feelings (Stringer, 2007). Therefore, to make participants feel as

relaxed as possible, the teacher-researcher should espouse a friendly role and conduct very informal conversations with participants. She also should avoid raising her voice during interviews as this would affect respondents' ability to express their feelings and experiences.

The participant interviewed in this study was the mentor teacher. The teacher-researcher used a semi-structured interview for practical reasons. In semi-structured interviews, the interviewer has an interview guide (see Appendix 3) and asks several 'base' questions, but the wording and order are usually substantially modified depending on the interview process and situation, and other unplanned questions are required to follow up on what the interviewee says (Mertler, 2014; Robson & McCartan, 2016). Therefore, the teacher-researcher had considerable freedom in the order of questions, exact wording, time and attention given to different topics (Robson & McCartan, 2016).

The teacher-researcher gathered feedback on the application of oral corrective feedback types used in the classroom. After each lesson, the teacher-researcher conducted a brief interview with the mentor teacher in the classroom or staff room for about 15 minutes to get her immediate feedback. The interview questions mainly focused on the teacher-researcher's teaching, students' responses and engagement after implementing different corrective feedback types, evaluation of corrective feedback types application, and some suggestions for the next class. The teacher-researcher audio recorded the

interviews with the permission of the mentor teacher. After each interview, the teacher-researcher transcribed and analysed the content of the interview.

3.4.2 Focus group interviews with students

Interviews conducted with groups are known as focus group or group interviews (Mertler, 2014). ‘Focus group’ is the name given to simultaneous interviews of people making up a relatively small group, usually no more than 10–12 people (Leedy & Ormord, 2005). In a focus group, all participants should have equal opportunities to express their opinions and describe their experiences. Participants should respect each other and not evaluate each other, and researchers should ensure discussions relate to the focus questions, which should be relatively neutral and non-dominant. Further, the researcher should assist the group in summarising the ideas generated and identifying the key features during the discussion (Stringer, 2007). Participants usually feel more comfortable when talking in a small group, and this is especially true in the case of young learners. Moreover, because people tend to feed off others’ comments during group discussions, interactions among focus group participants can provide extremely rich information. However, when conducting a focus group interview, it is very important to make sure every student has an opportunity to comment and share their views (Mills, 2003).

Robson and McCartan (2016) also note the following advantages of focus groups. Focus group interviews are a highly efficient technique for qualitative data collection. During the interview, participants tend to enjoy the experience and make comments in

their own words while being stimulated by others' thoughts and comments. Therefore, focus group interviews were clearly more efficient than one-on-one interviews for this research, as students would feel less stressed and more relaxed when several students were speaking at the same time in a comfortable and nonthreatening setting. Conducting the focus group interview requires specific interviewing skills to ensure every participant contributes and express their opinions and views. The teacher-researcher took the following measures to ensure the interviews were carried out effectively: (a) introduced the aims of the interviews at the beginning, (b) assured the participants of their rights to withdraw at any time and the confidentiality of the conversation, (c) gave simple instructions on responding to the interviewer's questions, and (d) provided encouragement to get more powerful feedback from the respondents.

There were two focus groups in this study. Class 7A and Class 7D each had one focus group based on different gender and language proficiency levels. In each focus group interview, five students in each class were interviewed. At the beginning of the study, the teacher-researcher tried to mix the genders of the student participants to balance the male to female ratio. The role of gender in the occurrence and effectiveness of corrective feedback has been a topic of interest in numerous studies. While Oliver's (2002) study, which focused on the negotiation of meaning in child interactions, did not show impact of gender on the occurrence of negotiation for meaning, some other studies have suggested otherwise. Van Der Slik et al.'s (2015) large-scale survey study of Dutch as an L2 found that female students outperformed male students in speaking and writing tests, highlighting a gender gap in language learning. Nakatsukasa's (2017) study on the

effectiveness of corrective feedback found that gender did not influence the effectiveness of verbal recasts during two communicative tasks, but female students benefited more from gesture-enhanced recasts in the long run. In a recent study by Van Ha et al. (2021), which employed an explanatory sequential mixed-methods research design, it was found that female students in a typical public high school in Vietnam held more positive beliefs about oral corrective feedback than their male counterparts. It was speculated that this difference may be because female students are more successful students than males in this context. These findings emphasize the importance of considering the role of gender in second language teaching and the need for further research to address the gender gap in second language acquisition.

However, there were almost no male students in 7D class, so the gender of 7D student participants was all female. The teacher-researcher encouraged participants to express their different views to explore as many different perspectives as possible (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014). At the end of each cycle, four focus group interviews were conducted for these two groups, focusing on student engagement with oral corrective feedback. Some of the questions (see Appendix 3) included: ‘How do you feel about these different types of corrective feedback you received?’ and ‘What types of corrective feedback do you prefer?’ Each focus group interview lasted approximately 20–30 minutes. The interviews were conducted during Chinese language revision lessons in another quiet classroom. During the focus group interviews, the teacher-researcher used an audio recorder to capture the interaction between herself and the students with permission from the students and their parents/carers.

3.4.3 Classroom observation

Observation, as an approach to collecting qualitative data, includes carefully watching and systematically recording what you see and hear in a particular environment (Schmuck, 2006). It is not simply a matter of writing down the facts of looking at something. Gray (2009) asserts that observation is a complex combination of sensation (sight, sound, touch, smell and even taste) and perception. The main advantage of observing as a technology is its directness. Researchers do not need to ask people about their opinions, feelings or attitudes; they can simply watch what participants do and listen to what they say (Zeedy & Kelly, 2003). Instead of asking students to report their views or feelings, the teacher-researcher could gather data about actual student behaviours through observations. In this study, the teacher-researcher carefully selected 4–6 students (across different levels of ability) to observe in each class rather than observing the whole class. The mentor teacher helped the teacher-researcher conduct classroom observations with an observation checklist (see Appendix 4) based on the three engagement dimensions: cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement. The classroom teacher completed the student engagement checklist during each lesson conducted by the teacher-researcher. The main focus of observations in this study was to understand how students engage with the types of oral corrective feedback.

3.4.4 Reflective journal

Reflective journals provide opportunities for the teacher-researcher to maintain narrative accounts of her own professional reflections on practice. Such journals become a constant attempt by teachers to ‘systematically reflect on their practice by

constructing a narrative that honours the unique and powerful voice of the teachers' language' (Mills, 2003, p. 68). If researchers record their thoughts, especially how they change over time, they can understand their progress continuously. As they begin to think about their concerns, they will already have some experience with the evolution of thinking. A reasonable way to record what has happened is to note the events in a journal or diary. Keeping self-reflective journals can gradually help the teacher-researchers surface their methodological tendencies and effectively think about conduct subsequent analysis (Yin, 2011). Action research is a spiral cycle that aims to improve the teacher-researcher's professional quality and enhance their ability to understand their strengths and weaknesses in teaching. Therefore, self-reflective journals are particularly useful for action research.

After every lesson, the teacher-researcher wrote her self-reflective journals. In this study, the teacher-researcher used a double-entry journal to help her reflect more thoroughly and process information more comprehensively. Therefore, the personal self-reflection journal data were divided into two parts. The first consisted of two components: audio recordings for each class and written reflections on the three dimensions of engagement, including cognitive engagement with corrective feedback, behavioural engagement and affective engagement with corrective feedback. A sample is provided in Appendix 9.

The teacher-researcher carried her an audio recorder while teaching to record her own voice, and this became an important source of reflection. The teacher-researcher

recorded and described what happened in the classroom, which oral corrective feedback types she used in the last class, and details of student engagement. The audio recordings provided particularly useful information for analysing teacher speech in the classroom, such as exploring the teacher's questioning practice. This guaranteed the naturalness of the teacher's and students' behaviour and facilitated the transfer of first-hand materials by the researcher (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2014). During the lesson, the teacher-researcher hung the small recorder on her clothes to clearly capture the conversation between herself and the students. Sometimes, the classroom area was too large or a student's voice was inaudible, making it difficult for the recorder to capture the student's voice clearly. Therefore, during the class, the teacher-researcher would repeat a particular student's response to her feedback as needed.

During each 40-minute lesson, the teacher-researcher spent about 10–15 minutes using corrective feedback types when interacting with students. In this study, the audio-recording data came from 10 Chinese lessons for each class in Term 3 of 2019, which the teacher-researcher carefully transcribed. A three-step analysis was then conducted on the transcribed audio recordings. First, all mistakes produced by the students were identified. Second, the teacher-researcher carefully examined the types of corrective feedback provided after students made mistakes. The corrective feedback types used during the Chinese class were classified according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model. Third, the teacher-researcher identified the learner engagement with corrective feedback based on Ellis's (2010) three dimensions framework to examine the different types of corrective feedback.

After processing the audio-recording data and written reflections, the teacher-researcher reflected on these three engagement dimensions, revised the corrective feedback types and then summarised her own teaching reflection. The process of data analysis indicates the students' responses and engagement to different types of oral corrective feedback, but it also facilitates understanding of teacher-researcher's continuous development.

Finally, the teacher-researcher categorised the reflective journal data into key themes and summarised them as they emerged from each week and each class (see Appendix 10).

3.4.5 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is a specific type of instrument that involves the administration of written questions to participants. The questions must be carefully phrased and their intention clear and unambiguous (Mertler, 2014). Questionnaires can use two types of questions: open-ended questions (individuals provide their own responses) and closed-ended questions (individuals choose their response from a set of options offered) (Mertler, 2014; Tomal, 2010). Closed-ended questions provide respondents with choices to select from, similar to multiple-choice questions, which allow respondents to rate or select a numerical value for the questions (Tomal, 2010), while open-ended questions give respondents limitless responses. As the main participants in this research were Year 7 students, the questionnaire allowed the teacher-researcher to summarise the data and report results relatively easily (Mertler, 2014).

The questionnaire (see Appendix 5) aimed to collect information about students' reflections and their opinions on how they engage with the different types of oral corrective feedback, and whether they felt engaged in their learning. The questionnaires were completed at the end of each research cycle and took students approximately 10 minutes to complete.

The student survey questionnaire used in this study consisted of eight declarative statements sourced from surveys by Han and Jung (2007) and Lee (2013). The original surveys were developed to reflect different types of corrective feedback and examine students' preferences for oral corrective feedback. However, these surveys do not further explore the relationships between oral corrective feedback and student engagement based on cognitive, behavioural and affective perspectives. Therefore, the eight declarative items were adjusted based on the characteristics of these three dimensions. The current study used Ellis's (2010) componential framework for corrective feedback, consisting of cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions. Briefly, cognitive engagement relates to how students attend to the corrective feedback they receive and how they deeply process corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010), so among these eight questions, Items 3 and 7 aimed to explore cognitive engagement with oral corrective feedback. Behavioural engagement focuses on whether and in what ways students uptake oral corrections and observable actions to generate revisions (e.g., concentration, attention, asking questions) (Ellis, 2010), so Items 1, 5 and 6 aimed to explore behavioural engagement with oral corrective feedback. Affective engagement involves learners' attitudinal responses to the oral corrective feedback (e.g., anxiety,

dislike, enjoyment) and the emotions that emerge and evolve as they receive, process and use oral corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010; Fredricks et al., 2004; Han, 2017; Han & Hyland, 2015), so Items 2, 4 and 8 focused on exploring affective engagement with oral corrective feedback.

Choosing the best scale is crucial for the students to respond to each item easily and for the researcher to later analyse the data effectively (Tomal, 2010). A five-point or seven-point scale may produce a higher relative average score and lead to more reliable research results (Dawes, 2008). This research used a five-point Likert-type scale (where 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree and 5= Strongly Agree) for each declarative statement in the survey questionnaire. Students were also provided with an opportunity to provide qualitative feedback at the end of the questionnaire. Later, the teacher-researcher compared and analysed the data to assess whether these corrective feedback types foster student engagement.

3.5 Data Analysis

3.5.1 Qualitative data analysis

Generally, the diverse approaches to research tend to be classified under two competing perspectives: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Practitioners should base their decision whether to use qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods based on the nature of their research questions, study focus, research setting, and interests and dispositions (Efron & Ravid, 2013). Qualitative research mainly explores the answer to ‘what’, ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions, whereas quantitative research focuses on ‘how often’, ‘how many’,

‘how far’ or ‘how wide’ (Tomal, 2010). Each methodology has its strengths. Flick (2009) describes qualitative research as a naturalistic, interpretative approach that focuses on exploring phenomena ‘from the interior’. Indeed, the rich details provided by qualitative research gives insight into the complexity of teaching and learning, which are neglected in other ways (Cooley, 2013).

Qualitative data analysis is an open-ended inductive process that moves from particular categories to general patterns (Efron & Ravid, 2020). Qualitative data analysis aims to bring meaning and order to a large collection of data by finding recurring themes, patterns and categories (Efron & Ravid, 2020; Hatch, 2002; Shank, 2006). Through this insight, the researcher can discover important connections and relationships among these parts to create a coherent interpretation and present logically structured results (Efron & Ravid, 2020; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Shank, 2006). The newly acquired understanding enables researchers to answer the research questions and consider the implications of newly acquired knowledge on their practice (Efron & Ravid, 2020; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Shank, 2006).

The current study applied thematic analysis, a data analysis strategy commonly used in all qualitative designs. Thematic analysis is a method of ‘identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data’. It is a descriptive method that reduces data in a flexible manner, consistent with other data analysis methods (Castleberry & Nolen, 2018).. A coding strategy is also needed to analyse the qualitative data collected (Creswell & Clark, 2018). In this study, based on the conceptual framework for student

engagement with corrective feedback, qualitative data analysis took an inductive approach comprising six phases: familiarisation with the raw data, initial coding, searching for initial themes, refining themes, defining and naming themes, and writing-up (Braun & Clarke, 2008).

First, the teacher-researcher had to become familiar with all the data by reading and re-reading the database, transcribing data and taking some notes. In this research, the qualitative data came from focus group interviews, semi-structured interviews, self-reflective journals and observation records. All types of oral corrective feedback provided by the teacher-researcher were also identified and classified according to the model provided by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Second, based on the extracts from the original information, the teacher-researcher applied initial manual coding to generate pithy labels for relevant data (see Table 1). During this process, it was necessary to put different kinds of data together and connect these data with the research questions to find the similarities and differences. Third, with the key concepts or terms coded, the teacher-researcher identified similarities in the data and generated initial sub-themes. For instance, excerpts from the focus group interviews ‘Students agreed that gesture can help them remember the tone’ and semi-structured interviews ‘Gestures can be very direct, clear to the students’ could both be coded as ‘body language’. Fourth, the review work commenced, double-checking whether each sub-theme worked and all relevant data was coded and included. Fifth, the teacher-researcher began to define and name themes. For instance, one of the main themes of this research was oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes, which included sub-themes such as ‘types of oral

corrective feedback’ and ‘students’ responses to oral corrective feedback’. The last step of writing-up consisted of systematically interpreting the data extracts and themes and relating them back to the research questions and the literature.

Table 1 shows the extracts of relevant materials relating to the main themes, sub-themes and the contributory research questions. Overall, in this research, thematic analysis was designed as the main data analysis tool, aiming to answer SQ1 and SQ2.

Table 1: *Samples of thematic coding*

| Research Question | Main themes | Sub-themes | Quotes |
|---|--|--|--|
| <p>SQ1: How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?</p> | <p>Oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes</p> | <p>Types of oral corrective feedback</p> | <p>Extract 1 : S: 茶 (chà). T: chà? S: (Instantly) I know it! 茶 (chá). (Extracted from the self-reflective journal)</p> |
| <p>SQ1: How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?</p> | <p>Oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes</p> | <p>Students' responses to oral corrective feedback</p> | <p>Extract 2 : Sienna:I like to combine explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback together. (Extracted from the first focus group interview)</p> |
| <p>SQ2: How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student's engagement with oral corrective feedback?</p> | <p>The Teacher-researcher's Teaching Practice</p> | <p>Employment of oral encouragement</p> | <p>Extract 3 : Mentor teacher: When you use explicit correction, try to put sandwich feedback: positive, negative and positive. (Extracted from the semi-structured interview)</p> |
| <p>SQ2: How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student's engagement with oral corrective feedback?</p> | <p>The Teacher-researcher's Teaching Practice</p> | <p>Body language</p> | <p>Extract 4 : Corrective feedback can combine with the gestures or hand post, which is more effective. (Extracted from the self-reflective journal)</p> |
| <p>SQ2: How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student's engagement with oral corrective feedback?</p> | <p>The Teacher-researcher's Professional Development</p> | <p>The Teacher-researcher's English Language Proficiency Development</p> | <p>Extract 5 : Lily: I think your English progressed a lot through life in Australia. (Extracted from the second focus group interview)</p> |

3.5.2 Descriptive analysis

In this research, the teacher-researcher combined the main themes that emerged from the qualitative data analysis and the quantitative results for a deeper understanding of the student engagement with oral corrective feedback. A quantitative methodology uses exact numbers and data to explain science (Clarke & Erickson, 2004). By gathering numerical data from individuals or groups, quantitative research uses statistical tests to analyse the data collected (Slavin, 2007). The goal of quantitative educational research is to produce an efficient and effective education system that aims to improve all students' academic achievements and enhance the quality of teaching and the learning process (Efron et al., 2020).

After the qualitative analysis, descriptive analysis was designed to investigate student engagement with oral corrective feedback and students' response to oral corrective feedback via the student survey questionnaires for each class at the end of each cycle. Descriptive statistical analysis was performed to test whether these oral corrective feedback types can foster student engagement. In the process of descriptive analysis, a five-point Likert-type scale was adopted for eight declarative statements (where 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree and 5= Strongly Agree). The means of the eight items from Cycles 1 and 2 for two classes were calculated and compared via a line graph to graphically represent the items' performance for the two cycles for each class. Percentages of the responses for each declarative statement for both cycles were also compared via a pie chart to further explore student engagement with oral corrective feedback based on cognitive, behavioural and affective dimensions.

Thus, the quantitative data from the student survey questionnaire aimed to provide an overall picture of students' responses to oral corrective feedback and measure any differences in students' preferences for oral corrective feedback types between the first cycle and the second cycle. In this research, the quantitative descriptive data analysis specifically helped address SQ1: *How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?*

3.6 Ethical Issues

In recent decades, ethical issues have been extensively discussed in education and other academic disciplines as well as by government, international agencies, higher education institutions, funding agencies and researchers themselves (Brooks et al., 2014). Hammersley and Traianou (2012) contend that ethical research aims to 'produce conclusions that reach a relatively high threshold in terms of likely validity, and make a worthwhile contribution to collective knowledge' (p. 134). Although action research is conducted by practitioners in their own practice, it should be monitored and implemented by ethical guidelines (Efron & Ravid, 2013). However, as Bell and Nutt (2012) note, ethical dilemmas can arise when researchers who are also practitioners face multiple responsibilities and sensitivities.

Researchers should ensure the safety, confidentiality and well-being of the people they are studying or those affected by the research. Therefore, the ethical considerations of students and colleagues should be a key element of action research (Mertler, 2014), and researchers need to protect all participants' interests and well-being (Stringer, 2008).

Researchers also need to guarantee the confidentiality of findings and all participants' rights, regardless of the information collected. To protect research participants' anonymity and avoid identification by name or any other identifying information about students or other participants, the researcher uses pseudonyms or a general description and removes names and other contact information from the documents used in the study (Efron & Ravid, 2013). Although the information was collected in an identifiable form initially, once the transcripts for the focus group interviews were produced and the mentor teacher checked the interview transcript, all personal identifiers were removed immediately. In this research, only de-identified data were used for the data analysis and reporting.

Therefore, before collecting data, the teacher-researcher obtained ethical clearance for this study from the ethics and review committee at Western Sydney University, the State Education Research Approval Process (SERAP) and the participant school. Before the teacher-researcher obtained the first approval to conduct this research, she presented the research design and discussed the details of the proposed research and volunteer teaching plan with a panel of professors from the School of Education (SOE) and the Centre for Educational Research (CER) at Western Sydney University as part of her confirmation of candidature. Then, the National Ethics Application Form (NEAF) was submitted to Western Sydney University's Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) for review and approval. Each part of the NEAF contained specific details of all ethical considerations related to human participants. The committee approved the ethics submission on 24 June 2019 and allocated an approval identification H13310

(see Appendix 11). This project gained another level of ethics approval through the NSW Department of Education and Communities' SERAP. The ethics application outlines the research process in-depth to protect school personnel, student participants, parents or legal guardians and the Department themselves. Approval of the SERAP application was received on 25 July 2019 and allocated Approval ID 2019311 (see Appendix 12).

A final level of approval was successfully granted at the school level. The school principal (see Appendix 13) and the mentor teacher (see Appendices 14 and 15) were initially contacted by letter and a meeting was conducted to introduce the Chinese research program. Then, the participants (or their parents or legal guardians, if they are minors) were fully informed about this research project in the Chinese class (see Appendices 16 and 17). Recruitment documentation was distributed to the student participants, including an information sheet and a consent form completed by the parents/carers. The majority of participants in the study were Year 7 students who were minors, so the teacher-researcher sent a letter of introduction to the parents or legal guardians of the children. In the letter, the researcher described the purpose of the study, introduced herself and her role in the school, and outlined the students' participation in the study (Efron & Ravid, 2013). Only students whose parents or legal guardians signed the consent form would be included in the study. The information sheet would be for their parents or legal guardians to keep, and the consent form was retained by the teacher-researcher. After all approvals were successfully received, research data collection commenced.

For some student participants, receiving oral corrective feedback can be a sensitive issue, particularly if it is delivered in front of their peers or in a way that is perceived as overly critical. To mitigate these risks, the study was conducted with the utmost consideration for the student participants involved, ensuring that their privacy and dignity were respected throughout the process. However, if the participants felt uncomfortable at any time, they had the right to withdraw from the study and request that their data be destroyed. All participation was entirely voluntary and no one was obliged or required to participate. The participants could withdraw at any time, for any reason, and did not suffer any consequences. To further minimize the risk of discomfort, oral corrective feedback was delivered in a more constructive and supportive manner, with an emphasis on identifying areas for improvement rather than highlighting flaws.

3.7 Quality of Action Research

Throughout the implementation of action research, qualitative research should meet high methodological standards, and its results should be robust. Validity and reliability are the two most commonly used essential standards to ensure the quality of the data in educational research (Howitt, 2016).

Validity refers to the degree to which the data is useful and accurate (Gay et al., 2009).

According to Denscombe (2003), internal validity is the degree to which the research instruments or other data collection measures what it intends to measure, while external

validity is the degree to which research findings can be generalised to other situations. It is vital to ensure the quality of data in action research. Validity concerns in teacher action research involve ensuring the research procedures are rigorous and specific (Winter, 1989). If the data collected is not exact or imprecise, it could mislead others (Mertler, 2013). Reliability refers to the extent to which the instrument will consistently obtain the same results over time, focusing on the consistency of the collected data (Golafshani, 2015; Lee et al., 2010; Merriam, 1995; Yin, 2011). The consistency and accuracy of methods mainly relate to the use of quantitative methods (Sheri, 2012). Objectivity is another concept commonly used to assess the quantitative research standard (Yin, 2011).

However, these concepts cannot be applied and measured in the same way in qualitative research. Instead, credibility and confirmability are the two corresponding criteria identified (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and widely used to assess the trustworthiness of qualitative research. The teacher-researcher applied a set of approaches during the research process to guarantee high methodological standards that can be evaluated based on the following criteria in this action research.

Credibility: Instead of internal validity in quantitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1990) put forward credibility in qualitative research, which is whether the research findings are trustworthy and plausible. In this research, the teacher-researchers first reviewed the literature on oral corrective feedback, young learner engagement and L2 learning and produced a detailed description of the topic, providing a solid foundation

for this research. Next, to answer each of the research questions and ensure the findings are trustworthy, data was collected through semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews, survey questionnaires, self-reflective journals and classroom observations. Appendix 6 shows how to collect data to address the research questions, including location, time, duration, frequency and target participants. The credibility of the qualitative data in this study was enhanced by providing all student participants with equal opportunities to answer each of the focus group interview questions and accurately capture each student participant's thoughts on different types of oral corrective feedback and Chinese language learning. Member checking was also used to establish the credibility of the data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005). The teacher-researcher asked the participants to check their interview transcripts to ensure their opinions were accurately expressed and captured during the research process (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Mertler, 2013).

Confirmability: Lincoln and Guba (1994) assert that confirmability in qualitative research findings is the equivalent of the criteria for objectivity in data collection and interpretation. A clear connection between the data and the research findings is used to show how researchers reflect the actual views and experiences of research participants, rather than their personal views, through detailed descriptions and the use of citations.

First, in this study, the actual behaviours of 4–6 students (across different levels of ability) in each Chinese L2 classroom were carefully observed based on an observation checklist (see Appendix 4). The mentor teacher conducted Chinese classroom

observations, which may increase the objectivity of data collection. Next, the confirmability of the qualitative findings was met through using reflective journals to ensure the objectivity of any interpretations produced during data analysis (Smith et al., 2009). However, researchers tend to interpret data based on their personal opinions, so personal bias and opinions may affect data analysis and findings (Roberts et al., 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to avoid the bias of the teacher-researcher's own beliefs. Self-reflective journals originated from the actual lesson content and reflection, which helped the teacher-researcher prepare to interview each research participant and enter their subjective reality (Hays & Singh, 2012). In this research, the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journals consisted of two parts: an audio-recording part for each class and a written reflection part on student engagement. To ensure the written reflections data objectively reflected the actual phenomena in this research, the teacher-researcher repeatedly listened to the audio recordings and checked these against the written reflections. Therefore, the teacher-researcher strived to enclose assumptions and biases to enhance the objectivity of the qualitative data and not superimpose her expectations or subjective interpretations on reflective journals, interviews and observation data (Smith & Osborn, 2008).

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed, explained and justified this study's overall research methodology to explore the research questions, which is an action research methodology employing both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Four types of qualitative data collection methods were outlined: semi-structured interviews with

the mentor teacher, focus group interviews with students, classroom observation and self-reflective journals. To complement the qualitative data collection tools, student survey questionnaires were used as a quantitative method to examine the students' preferences for oral corrective feedback.

Thematic analysis and descriptive analysis were applied to two cycles of data coding for a thorough analysis and reliable interpretation of the collected data. Finally, ethical issues were considered an indispensable part of the whole conduct of the research.

Chapter 4: Student Responses Towards Oral Corrective Feedback

While the previous chapter outlined the methodology of this action research, Chapters 4 and 5 present the findings of this study. This chapter focuses on understanding how students respond to oral corrective feedback in general through the analysis of quantitative data from survey questionnaires. The descriptive analysis of the surveys is presented prior to the qualitative analysis as it provides an overview of the studied phenomena of how students respond to oral corrective feedback. It forms the basis for further inquiry through qualitative analysis of the various sources of data. Thematic analysis was also employed to analyse the qualitative component of the survey questionnaire.

4.1 Questionnaires

The student survey questionnaire consisted of eight declarative statements designed to investigate student engagement with oral corrective feedback (see Appendix 5). Some of these statements include: 'I think it's a good thing to make errors' and 'The teacher's feedback is very helpful to me'. Students rated their levels of agreement with these declarative statements. The responses collected from the survey questionnaire were analysed to explore student engagement with oral corrective feedback based on the three dimensions of cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement.

The items in the survey questionnaire were adopted from Han and Jung (2007) and Lee (2013), modified to reflect oral corrective feedback and categorised according to Ellis's (2010) corrective feedback framework. Briefly, cognitive engagement with oral

corrective feedback focuses on how the student attends to the oral corrective feedback they receive; behavioural engagement with oral corrective feedback refers to the ways students take oral corrections and observable actions to generate corrections; and affective engagement with oral corrective feedback focuses on how students respond attitudinally to the oral corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010). Questionnaire Items 3 and 7 were designed to explore students' cognitive engagement with oral corrective feedback; Items 1, 5 and 6 aimed to explore students' behavioural engagement with oral corrective feedback; and Items 2, 4 and 8 focused on exploring students' affective engagement with oral corrective feedback. At the end of the questionnaire, the student participants were also provided with an opportunity to provide qualitative comments for profound exploration (Jenkins, 2014).

Descriptive analysis was performed to provide an overall picture of students' responses to oral corrective feedback. Thematic analysis was then utilised to identify the key themes of students' comments over the two research cycles for more in-depth analysis of students' response. The student questionnaire aimed to answer SQ1: *How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively, and affectively?* The results were organised according to the responses from two classes of students involved in this study (Classes 7A and 7D, respectively) to explore whether the student engaged cognitively, behaviourally and/or affectively in their Chinese language classes from Cycle 1 to Cycle 2 of the action research. Survey questionnaires were completed at the end of each research cycle; the average time for each student to complete the questionnaire was approximately five minutes.

4.1.1 Student engagement for 7A students

Based on the teacher-researcher's observations and the assignments for each term, Class 7A's Chinese proficiency level was comparatively lower than Class 7D in speaking, listening, reading and writing. The students in 7A class were generally passive and tended to be shy and quieter in the Chinese class. There were seven students in the first cycle and six students (one student was absent) in the second cycle. All participants were native English-speaking students.

As shown in Table 2, comparing the means of the responses from the two survey questionnaires, all items except Item 2 ($M1 = 4.14$, $M2 = 3.83$) improved in the second cycle. The line graph in Figure 2 provides a graphical representation of the performance of the items for the two cycles of research, indicating that Class 7A were generally more cognitively, behaviourally and affectively engaged after two cycles of action research.

Table 2: *Mean of the eight items for 7A*

| | Mean of Cycle 1 | Mean of Cycle 2 |
|--------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Item 1 | 3.714 | 4.167 |
| Item 2 | 4.143 | 3.833 |
| Item 3 | 3.571 | 4 |
| Item 4 | 1.714 | 2.167 |
| Item 5 | 3.714 | 3.833 |
| Item 6 | 3.571 | 4 |
| Item 7 | 3.286 | 3.5 |
| Item 8 | 3.429 | 4 |

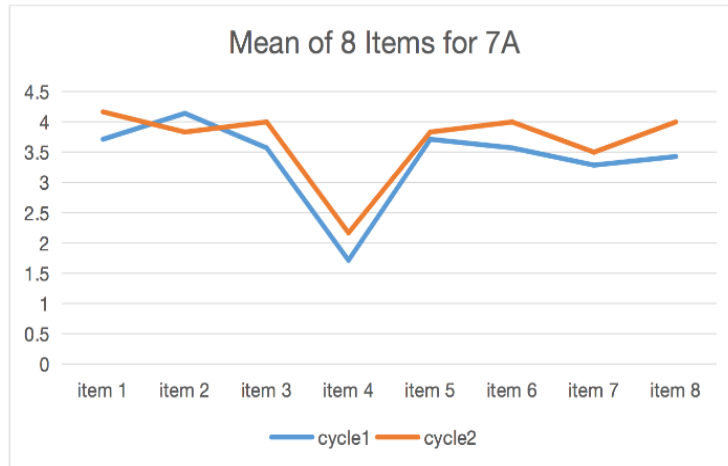


Figure 2: Line graph of survey results

4.1.2 Cognitive engagement for 7A

In the questionnaire, Items 3 and 7 referred to cognitive engagement with oral corrective feedback. Item 3 ('I think it's a good thing to make errors') had a mean score of $M = 3.57$ in Cycle 1, and increased to $M = 4$ in Cycle 2. The percentages of the responses for Item 3 for both cycles are illustrated in Figure 3.

Although the figures are small, it is apparent that more students felt that making errors helped them to improve in Cycle 2. In the first cycle, only 14% of the participants strongly agreed that it was good to make errors, and this number rose sharply to nearly 50% in the second cycle. In contrast, the percentage of participants who held neutral ('neither agree nor disagree') and agreeable attitudes towards Item 3 declined significantly from 72% to approximately 34% between Cycle 1 and Cycle 2, while the figures for 'disagree' only fluctuated slightly. As Figure 3 indicates, after two cycles of action research, more students in Class 7A were less afraid of making errors as they felt

making errors helped improve their learning. Therefore, based on Item 3, the students in 7A improved their cognitive engagement from Cycle 1 to Cycle 2.

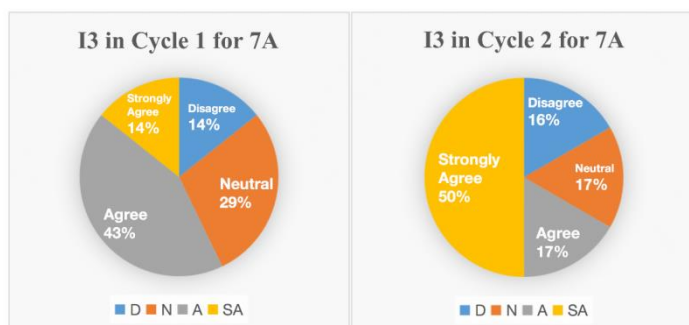


Figure 3. Pie chart for Item 3

Item 7 corresponded to the statement, ‘I really want the teacher to give me more feedback’. The mean for this item was $M = 3.29$ in Cycle 1 and rose to $M = 3.5$ in Cycle 2. The percentages of responses gathered from Item 7 in Cycles 1 and 2 are compared in Figure 4. The percentage of strong disagreement was close to 14% in the first cycle, whereas no one responded with ‘strongly disagree’ in the second cycle. Meanwhile, the percentage of agreement soared from about 14% in Cycle 1 to 29% in Cycle 2. There is no change in the percentages of disagreement, neutrality and agreement between the two cycles. It can be concluded that 7A students’ perception about the usefulness of oral corrective feedback improved, as they felt the teacher-researcher’s feedback was helpful for them to learn Chinese and were eager to receive more oral corrective feedback from the teacher-researcher. Thus, the responses gathered from Item 7 indicate that students from 7A became more cognitively engaged in Cycle 2.

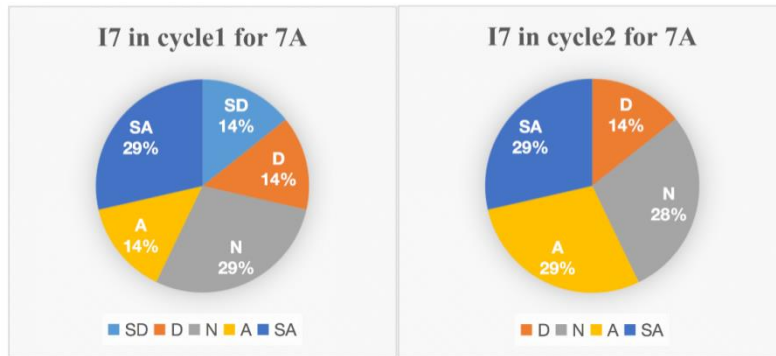


Figure 4. Pie chart for Item 7

Overall, the means and percentages for Items 3 and 7 illustrate that 7A students were more cognitively engaged with oral corrective feedback in Cycle 2 of the research.

4.1.2.1 Behavioural engagement for Class 7A

In the questionnaire, Items 1, 5 and 6 aimed to explore students' behavioural engagement with oral corrective feedback. For Item 1, 'I really like this class and learned a lot because of the teacher's feedback', the mean rating was $M = 3.71$ in Cycle 1, which increased to $M = 4.17$ in Cycle 2, the highest mean among all eight items in both cycles. Figure 5 further illustrates the findings from Item 1. Comparing Cycle 1 with Cycle 2, 14% of 7A students strongly disagreed with Item 1 in the first cycle, while no one responded with 'strongly disagree' in the second cycle. In contrast, the percentages of 'neutral', 'agree' and 'strongly agree' for Item 1 all increased in the second cycle. Figure 5 illustrates that at the beginning of the research, some students in 7A did not really like Chinese class, and did not think they could learn a lot in the Chinese classroom. However, such negative feelings were not observed in Cycle 2,

suggesting 7A students were more engaged in learning the Chinese language as they felt they learned a lot in Chinese lessons.

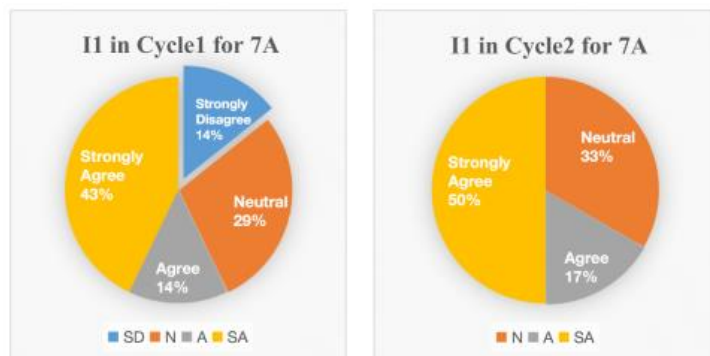


Figure 5: Pie chart for Item 1

Item 5 is ‘After the teacher gives me feedback, I become more engaged’. The mean score of this item in Cycle 1 was $M = 3.71$ and $M = 3.83$ in Cycle 2. The percentages of responses for Item 5 in the first and second cycles are shown in Figure 6. The percentage of disagreement decreased sharply from approximately 29% in the first cycle to 0% in the second cycle, while ‘strongly agree’ and ‘agree’ increased from 47% in Cycle 1 to about 67% in Cycle 2. As Figure 6 shows, one in three students thought feedback discouraged their engagement in Cycle 1. However, 7A students’ perception toward feedback changed, and they tended to believe they would be more engaged after receiving the teacher's feedback. As with Item 1, Item 5 responses also indicated that students from 7A were more behaviourally engaged after the two cycles of action research.

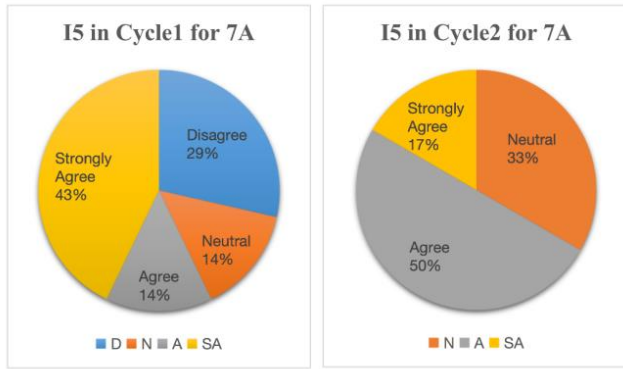


Figure 6: Pie chart for Item 5

Item 6 sought to explore students' perception about feedback for learning Chinese ('The teacher's feedback is very helpful to me'). According to Figure 1, the mean of Item 6 was $M = 3.571$ in the first cycle, which increased to $M = 4$ in the second cycle. Figure 7 illustrates the percentages of responses for Item 6. Approximately 14% of students disagreed with the statement in Cycle 1, whereas no one strongly disagreed in the second cycle. The percentages of 'strongly agree' and 'agree' sharply increased from 43% to nearly 66% over the two cycles. Figure 7 indicates that compared with Cycle 1, 7A students were more receptive toward the teacher-researcher's feedback and believed it was helpful for improving their Chinese language proficiency. Thus, Item 6 showed that the 7A students made progress on their behavioural engagement with corrective feedback during this research.

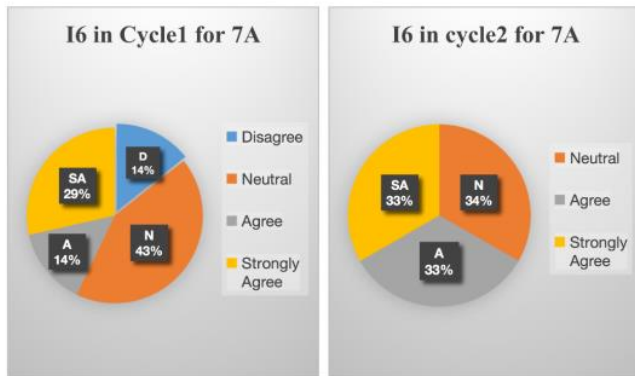


Figure 7: Pie chart for Item 6

The responses gathered from Items 1, 5 and 6 suggest that 7A students became more behaviourally engaged after the two cycles of research and were generally positive towards oral corrective feedback.

4.1.2.2 Affective engagement for 7A

In the questionnaire, Items 2, 4 and 8 aimed to investigate whether the 7A students engaged affectively with oral corrective feedback in this research. In Figure 1, the means of Item 2 ('I really like the teacher's feedback and teaching style') in two cycles showed a slight decrease from $M1 = 4.14$ to $M2 = 3.83$. Figure 8 further shows the findings of Item 2 for 7A students. The difference between the percentages of 'neutral' in Cycle 1 (14%) and Cycle 2 (17%) is negligible. In Cycle 1, the participants who held the 'strongly agree' and 'agree' attitudes accounted for 29% and 57%, respectively. However, other than those selecting a 'neutral' attitude, all the 7A students responded with 'agree' (83%) in Cycle 2. Due to the means of Item 2 experiencing a slight fluctuation, the proportion of 'agree' increased but 'strongly agree' declined to 0, so it was hard to identify whether the 7A students were engaged affectively. However, the

means of Item 2 were still above the mid-point of $M = 3$, so the 7A students comparatively enjoyed the teacher-researcher’s teaching style in this study. Overall, for this item, it was difficult to determine whether 7A students became more affectively engaged in Cycle 2.

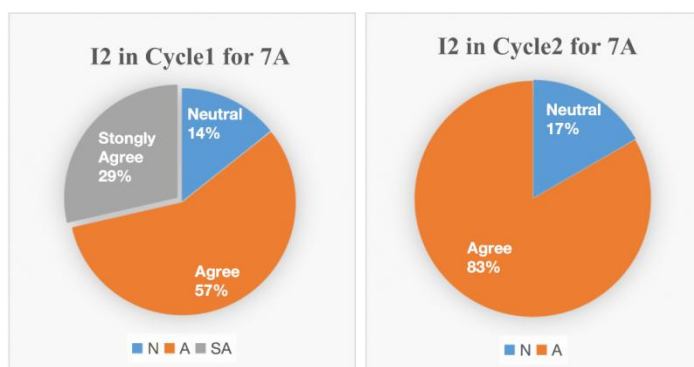


Figure 8: Pie chart for Item 2

Based on Figure 1, the mean of Item 4 in Cycle 1 is only $M1 = 1.71$, which slightly increased to $M2 = 2.17$ in Cycle 2. Notably, the mean of Item 4 is far lower than any of the other seven items. Item 4 is ‘I will feel not embarrassed when the teacher points out my error directly’, meaning the students were not afraid of making mistakes in the Chinese classroom. In the first cycle, three 7A students responded to Item 4 with ‘strongly agree’; specifically, one female student, Hannah, wrote ‘extremely’ next to ‘strongly disagree’. In the second cycle, Hannah also answered ‘strongly agree’ to Item 4, but this time she marked ‘-’ (minus) next to this option, suggesting that although she still disagreed with Item 4, she was not as embarrassed as before when the teacher-researcher pointed out her errors directly.

Figure 9 shows the proportion of responses gathered from Item 4 in two cycles. It can be seen from the pie chart that the percentage of ‘strongly disagree’ decreased from 43% in Cycle 1 to 33% in Cycle 2. Meanwhile, 14% of 7A students recorded disagreement with the Item 4 statement in Cycle 1, but no one answered in this way in Cycle 2. In contrast, the proportion of ‘neutral’ attitude climbed substantially from about 29% to 50% over the two cycles, while the ‘agree’ figures remained stable. These results suggest that the students who held a negative attitude towards making mistakes in Cycle 1 gradually changed their minds to a neutral attitude in Cycle 2. In the beginning, they felt embarrassed about making mistakes; however, after two cycles, 7A students felt more relaxed and less nervous when their mistakes were pointed out directly in the Chinese classroom. Therefore, based on the means and percentages of Item 4, although the mean is comparatively lower than other items due to the way the statement was crafted, it is evident that 7A students were more affectively engaged with oral corrective feedback over the period of the two cycles.

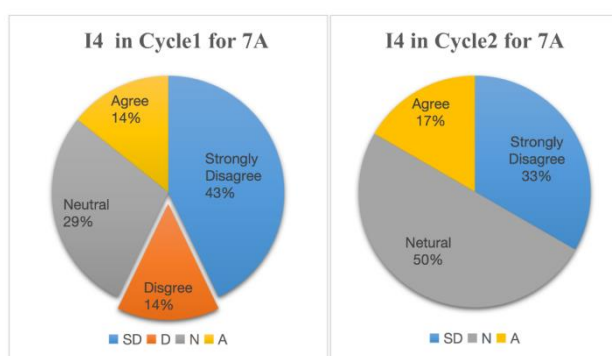


Figure 9: Pie chart for Item 4

The last item of the survey questionnaire was Item 8, ‘I enjoy learning Chinese because of the teacher’s feedback’. The mean score for this item ascended from $M1 = 3.429$ in Cycle 1 to $M2 = 4$ in Cycle 2. Figure 10 shows the proportion difference between the cycles. In this figure, the ‘agree’ percentage jumped sharply from 29% in the first cycle to 67% in the second cycle. While 28% of students held the ‘strongly disagree’ and ‘disagree’ attitudes for this statement in Cycle 1, no one held such attitudes in Cycle 2. This indicates that most of the 7A students enjoyed learning Chinese more and more because of the teacher-researcher’s feedback in class. Thus, Item 7 is evidence of 7A students becoming more affectively engaged over the period of two cycles.

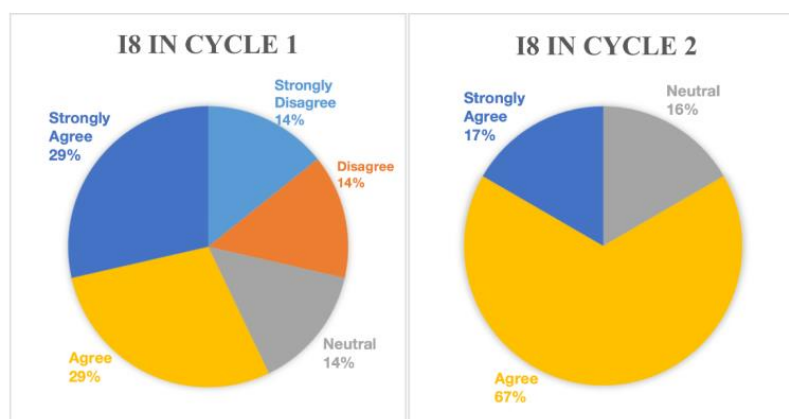


Figure 10: Pie chart for Item 8

Overall, the responses to Items 2, 4 and 8 in this questionnaire illustrate that 7A students became more affectively engaged with oral corrective feedback after the two cycles of action research.

4.1.2.3 Comments of 7A

After comparing the means and percentages for each item in the two cycles of action research, it was found that 7A students' cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement improved over time. To further examine these three dimensions, students were asked to comment on their learning experience using the survey questionnaires. Through thematic analysis, key findings emerged for each cycle of research based on 7A students' comments. Table 3 provides a comparison of both sets of comments. The key findings that emerged from the first cycle were:

- 1) Students love learning Chinese, but Chinese is hard to understand.
- 2) Repeating the words and making stories about the Chinese characters are helpful learning strategies.
- 3) Students are afraid of making errors.
- 4) Students do not like learning content that has little to do with their experience.

However, the key findings that emerged from the second cycle were different:

- 1) Students like Chinese classes, and learning Chinese can be very engaging.
- 2) Revising and practising pronunciation are very helpful strategies.
- 3) Teacher–student rapport is important given that students like the teacher-researcher's teaching style.
- 4) Students requested more fun activities that they could relate to (e.g., food).

Overall, based on the 7A students' survey questionnaires, it appears that 7A students' engagement all progressed cognitively, behaviourally and affectively.

Table 3: *General key findings from Cycle 1 to Cycle 2 for 7A*

| General Key Findings | Cycle 1 | Cycle 2 |
|-----------------------------|--|--|
| 1 | Students love learning Chinese, but Chinese is hard to understand | Students like Chinese classes and learning Chinese can be very engaging |
| 2 | Repeating the words and making stories about the characters are helpful strategies | Revising and practising pronunciation are helpful strategies |
| 3 | Be afraid of making errors | Teacher–student rapport: students like the teacher-researcher’s teaching style |
| 4 | Students do not like learning the content when it has little to do with their experience | Students want more fun activities |

4.1.3 Student engagement for 7D

In this study, students from Class 7D performed better in their learning and were more cooperative than students from 7A. The same survey questionnaire was distributed to 7D students to examine their engagement with oral corrective feedback at the end of the two action research cycles. The average time for each student to complete the questionnaire was about five minutes. There were nine students in the first cycle and eight students in the second cycle, as one participant was on leave the day the teacher-researcher conducted the student survey questionnaire and focus group interview.

The results of 7D showed discrepancies between Cycle 1 and Cycle 2 (see Figure 11). Notably, the average mean score of 7D was higher than 7A. The overall means for 7D improved in Cycle 2, except for Item 4 (M1 = 2.67 and M2 = 2.5) and Item 6 (M1 = 4.56

and $M_2 = 4.38$). As Figure 12 shows, except for Items 4 and 6, students scored better in all items in Cycle 2. Overall, the results illustrated that 7D students became more engaged cognitively, behaviourally and affectively with oral corrective feedback after the two cycles of action research.

Table 4: *Mean of the eight items for 7D*

| | Mean of Cycle 1 | Mean of Cycle 2 |
|--------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Item 1 | 3.889 | 4.25 |
| Item 2 | 4 | 4.125 |
| Item 3 | 4.333 | 4.375 |
| Item 4 | 2.667 | 2.5 |
| Item 5 | 4.111 | 4.25 |
| Item 6 | 4.556 | 4.375 |
| Item 7 | 3.556 | 3.75 |
| Item 8 | 3.444 | 4.25 |

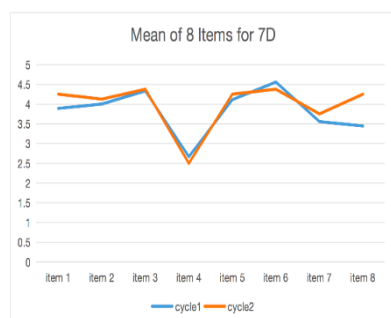


Figure 11: Line graph of survey results for 7D

4.1.3.1 Cognitive engagement for 7D

As already noted, Items 3 and 7 aimed to explore cognitive engagement with oral corrective feedback. The average score for Item 3, ‘I think it’s a good thing to make errors’ was $M = 4.333$ in Cycle 1 and slightly increased to $M = 4.375$ in Cycle 2, which are relatively high scores for 7D across the eight items. The percentage results of Item

3 are shown in Figure 12. Between Cycles 1 and 2, the percentages of ‘strongly agree’ and ‘neutral’ attitudes for this statement both had an upward trend over, from 56% to 63% and 22% to 25%, respectively. The percentage of the participants who responded with ‘agree’ slightly declined from 22% in Cycle 1 to 12% in Cycle 2. As Figure 12 shows, all 7D students had a high acceptance of making mistakes in these two cycles of research. This was especially the case in the second cycle, as more than half the students strongly agreed that making mistakes could help them improve their Chinese language ability. Therefore, based on Item 3’s means and the percentages, 7D students’ cognitive engagement progressed slightly from the first cycle to the second cycle.

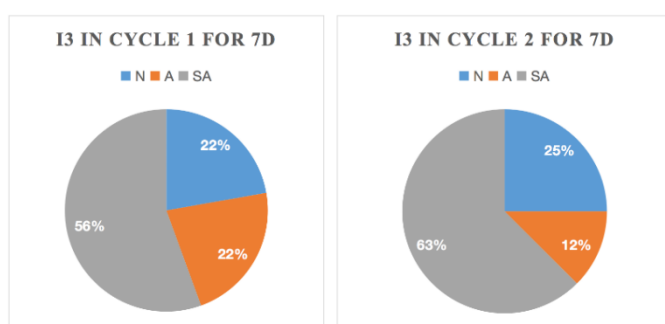


Figure 12: Pie chart for 7D Item 3

Item 7 is ‘I really want the teacher to give me more feedback’. The mean of this item in Cycle 1 was $M = 3.556$, which increased to $M = 3.75$ in the second cycle. The percentages of Item 7 are illustrated in Figure 13. The percentages of ‘strongly agree’ remained unchanged between these two cycles. The percentages for ‘agree’ climbed sharply from 33% in Cycle 1 to 50% in Cycle 2, while the proportion of ‘neutral’ responses declined from 56% to 38% over the two cycles. Notably, there were no responses for ‘disagree’ or ‘strong disagree’ in both cycles of research for this item.

Such findings suggest that students from 7D understood the teacher-researcher’s oral corrective feedback and felt they needed more feedback for learning Chinese. This result shows that 7D students had great cognitive engagement and became more cognitively engaged after the two cycles of research.

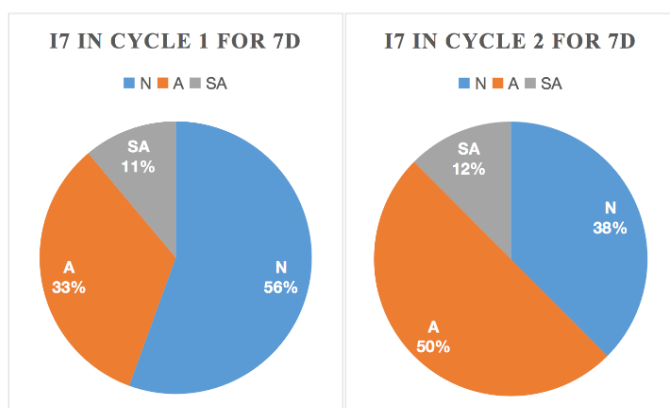


Figure 13: Pie chart for 7D Item 7

Both Items 3 and 7, which sought to understand students’ cognitive engagement, improved over time. This indicates that 7D students became more cognitively engaged with the teacher-researcher’s introduction of oral corrective feedback.

4.1.3.2 Behavioural engagement for 7D

Items 1, 5 and 6 aimed to explore whether 7D students engaged behaviourally in the two cycles of research. The mean of Item 1 (‘I really like this class and learned a lot because of the teacher’s feedback’) is $M = 3.889$ in the first cycle and increased to $M = 4.25$ in the second cycle of research. The percentages of Item 1 are illustrated in Figure 14. In Cycle 1, 33% of 7D students held a neutral attitude to Item 1, whereas no

one responded in this way in the second cycle. In contrast, the percentage of agreement sharply climbed up from 45% in Cycle 1 to 75% in Cycle 2, while the figure for strong agreement only fluctuated slightly. Overall, Figure 14 illustrates that after two cycles of action research, students in 7D enjoyed Chinese class and indicated that the teacher-researcher’s oral corrective feedback helped them engage in Chinese learning. Thus, based on the Item 1, 7D students engaged more behaviourally with oral corrective feedback in the second cycle.

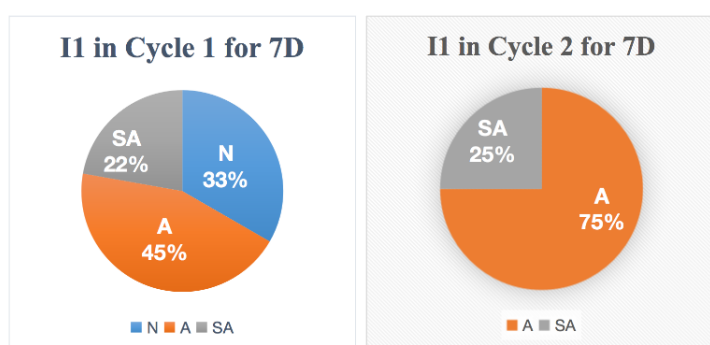


Figure 14: Pie chart for 7D Item 1

Similar to Item 1, the mean of Item 5 (‘After the teacher gives me feedback, I become more engaged’) was $M = 4.111$ in Cycle 1 and increased to $M = 4.25$ in Cycle 2. The charts in Figure 15 also shows the change between Cycles 1 and 2. The proportion of ‘neutral’ accounted for nearly 22% in the first cycle but decreased to about 12% in the second cycle. Conversely, the percentages of the participants who hold ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’ attitudes for Item 5 increased from 78% to 88% over the two cycles. Thus, 7D students had a high behavioural engagement in the Chinese classroom and

became more behaviourally engaged after the action research because of the oral corrective feedback.

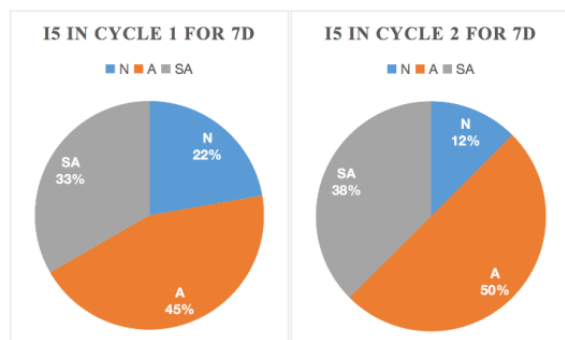


Figure 15: Pie chart for 7D Item 5

The last item of behavioural engagement is Item 6 ('The teacher's feedback is very helpful to me'). According to Figure 11, the average mean score of Item 5 is $M = 4.556$ in the first cycle and slightly decreased to $M = 4.375$ in the second cycle. Figure 16 shows the percentages of a neutral attitude fluctuated slightly and remained at approximately 11%, while the percentage of 'strongly agree' declined from 67% in Cycle 1 to 50% in Cycle 2. However, the students who chose 'agree' increased from 22% to about 38%. This suggests that about 17% of participants who 'strongly agree' with this statement in Cycle 1 chose 'agree' in Cycle 2.

It is clear that in this action research, most 7D students believed the teacher-researcher's corrective feedback helped them learn Chinese. However, comparing the two cycles, students were more behaviourally engaged in Cycle 1. These results indicate that the

students have high behavioural engagement in both cycles, but 7D students in Cycle 2 were less engaged than in Cycle 1.

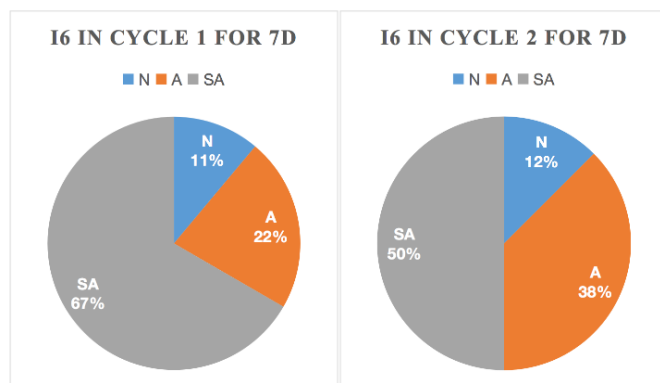


Figure 16: Pie chart for 7D Item 6

Overall, although Item 6 did not prove an upward trend in student behavioural engagement, the results of Items 1 and 5 in the questionnaires indicate that 7D students became more behaviourally engaged with oral corrective feedback.

4.1.3.3 Affective engagement for 7D

The last three items on the survey questionnaire, Items 2, 4 and 8, aimed to explore whether the 7D students engaged affectively after two cycles. The mean of Item 2 ('I really like the teacher's feedback and teaching style') is $M = 4$ in the first cycle and slightly increased to $M = 4.125$ in the second cycle. The percentages are shown in Figure 17. Approximately 34% of students responded with a 'neutral' attitude in Cycle 1, but there were no recorded neutral responses Cycle 2. The 'strongly agree' percentage increased sharply from 33% in Cycle 1 to 88% in Cycle 2. These results suggest that all the participants in 7D liked the teacher-researcher's teaching style.

Thus, the 7D students really enjoyed the oral corrective feedback in the Chinese class.

Subsequently, 7D students became more affectively engaged in this research.

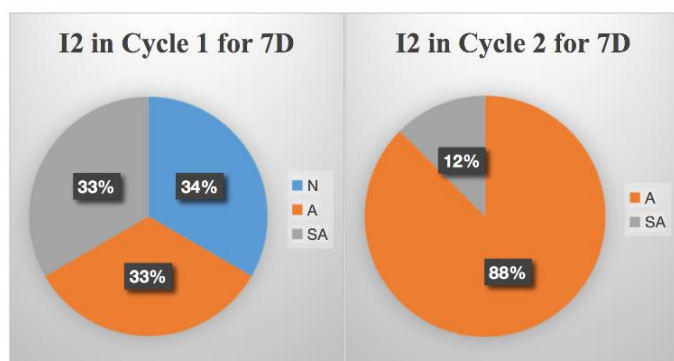


Figure 17: Pie chart for 7D Item 2

Item 4 is 'I will feel not embarrassed when the teacher points out my error directly'. As previously stated, the mean of Item 4 is $M = 2.667$ in Cycle 1 and slightly decreased to $M = 2.5$ in Cycle 2. Figure 18 illustrates the percentages of the responses for Item 4 across the two cycles. In Cycle 1, no one selected 'strongly disagree' for Item 3, but about 12% of the 7D participants answered 'strongly disagree' in Cycle 2. Meanwhile, the proportion of 'disagree' declined from 45% (Cycle 1) to 38% (Cycle 2), and the figure for 'neutral' decreased from 44% (Cycle 1) to 38% (Cycle 2). This means some of the students who answered 'neutral' and 'disagree' in Cycle 1 showed strong disagreement in Cycle 2. Such results illustrate that the students felt more embarrassed when their mistakes were pointed out directly, which means students would be less engaged affectively. Therefore, based on the result of Item 4, 7D students became less affectively engaged when their errors were pointed out directly.

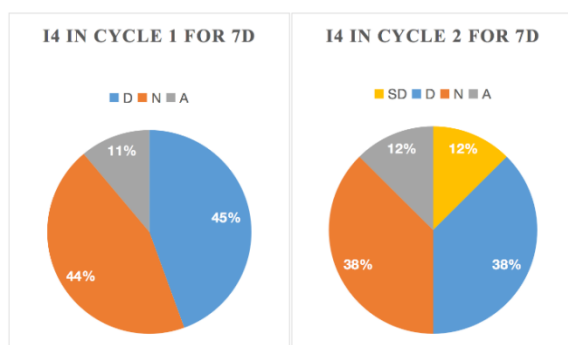


Figure 18: Pie chart for 7D Item 4

Lastly, Item 8 is ‘I enjoy learning Chinese because of the teacher’s feedback’. The average mean score in Cycle 1 is $M = 3.444$, which climbed sharply to $M = 4.25$ in Cycle 2. Figure 19 shows the considerable progress on student affective engagement with oral corrective feedback. In Cycle 1, approximately 11% of the participants disagreed; however, in Cycle 2, everyone held a ‘neutral’ or ‘agree’ or ‘strongly agree’ attitude for this item. Further, the percentage for ‘agree’ showed considerable progress, increasing from about 22% in the first cycle to 50% in the second cycle. Thus, it can be concluded that the 7D students enjoyed learning Chinese.

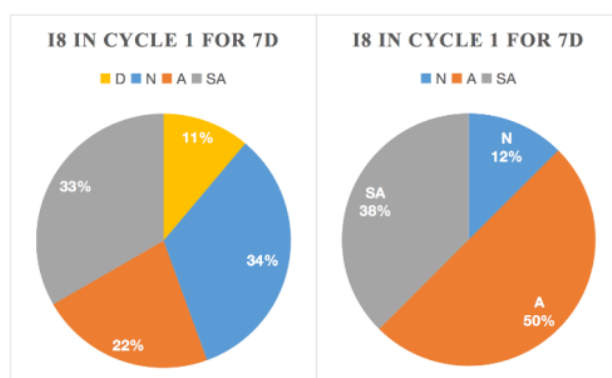


Figure 19: Pie chart for 7D Item 8

Although the results of Item 4 showed less affective engagement after two cycles, based on Items 2 and 8, the overall findings proved that 7D students became more affectively engaged with oral corrective feedback in the second cycle.

In conclusion, based on the eight items of this questionnaire, except for Items 4 and 6, results from the other six declarative statements indicate that 7D participants became more engaged cognitively, behaviourally and affectively in this research.

4.1.3.4 Comments for 7D

After comparing the means and percentages of responses for each declarative statement in these two cycles, it was found that 7D students were highly engaged cognitively, behaviourally and affectively after these two cycles of action research. The 7D students' comments further elucidate the data for student engagement based on the three dimensions. Some general key findings emerged for each cycle by thematic analysis, and both sets of comments were compared (see Table 5). According to 7D participants' comments in Cycle 1, the key findings were:

- 1) Teacher–student rapport is important given that 7D students like the teacher-researcher's teaching style.
- 2) Continuous development: the teacher-researcher needs to improve her English language skills.
- 3) 7D students like the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback, which is constructive for them.
- 4) Encouragement.

The general key findings that emerged in Cycle 2 were slightly different:

- 1) Teacher–student rapport is important given that 7D students enjoyed the teacher-researcher’s teaching style more.
- 2) Continuous development: the teacher-researcher made great progress on her language skills.
- 3) 7D students like and want more oral corrective feedback, which is engaging and supportive for them.
- 4) Encouragement.

Table 5: *General key findings from Cycle 1 to Cycle 2 for 7D*

| General Key Findings | Cycle 1 | Cycle 2 |
|-----------------------------|--|--|
| 1 | Teacher–student rapport: students like the teacher-researcher’s teaching style | Teacher–student rapport: students more enjoyed the teacher-researcher’s teaching style |
| 2 | Continuous development: English language skills | Continuous development: English language skills |
| 3 | Students like the teacher-researcher’s oral corrective feedback | Students want to get more the oral corrective feedback the teacher-researcher |
| 4 | Encourage students | Encourage students |

Generally, based on the 7D students’ survey questionnaires, it was found that 7D students already had high cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement with oral corrective feedback in Cycle 1, but they still made some progress in Cycle 2.

4.1.4 Comparing the responses of 7A and 7D

Based on responses for the eight declarative statements in the student survey questionnaires, it was concluded that the 7A and 7D students in this study became more engaged cognitively, behaviourally and affectively after two cycles of action research.

Comparing the result of these two classes, 7D has a higher mean score than 7A from the first cycle to the second cycle. Notably, both classes have low scores for Item 4, 'I will feel not embarrassed when my error was pointed out. directly' in both cycles. 7A's mean of Item 4 is $M1 = 1.71$ and $M2 = 2.17$, which 7D's average score on Item 4 is $M1 = 2.67$ and $M2 = 2.5$.

Overall, after comparing the means and percentages of responses for each declarative statement in these two cycles, both two classes made great progress on cognitive engagement, behavioural engagement and affective engagement with oral corrective feedback. However, due to different proficiency language levels, 7D students felt less embarrassed about making mistakes while 7A students felt more embarrassed and anxious.

Chapter 5: Students engagement with the different types of oral corrective feedback

In Chapter 4, descriptive analysis including means and frequencies were used to analyse the survey questionnaires. Thematic analysis was also used to analyse the qualitative components of the survey responses. Such analyses provided an overall understanding of students' engagement with oral corrective feedback. To further understand how students engage with the different types of oral corrective feedback, there is a need to analyse data gathered from focus group interviews with the student participants from 7A and 7D, self-reflective journal entries, semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher and classroom observations for the two participating classes. In the process of analysing these qualitative data, three main themes emerged: oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes, teacher-researcher's teaching practice, and teacher-researcher's professional development.

5.1 Oral Corrective Feedback in the Chinese Classes

5.1.1 Types of oral corrective feedback

The current study employed oral corrective feedback based on the classifications of Lyster and Ranta (1997): explicit correction, recast, clarification correction, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition. During the research, the teacher-researcher employed these six types of oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes. Students' responses to oral corrective feedback were recorded through a self-reflective

journal, focus group interviews, student survey questionnaires and classroom observations.

In this research, Chinese pinyin was used by the teacher-researcher for students' mispronounced words to encourage them to process the target language and learn to self-correct when they used the wrong tone. The six types of oral corrective feedback and corresponding examples are shown below (T for teacher, S for student) :

(1) Explicit correction: a feedback move in which the teacher provided the explicit correction to signal to the student that they had made an error.

S: 茶 (chà).

Note: this was pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect.

T: No, it is not chà, it is 茶 (chá).

Note: the teacher then corrected the student by saying that this should not be the fourth tone but should be pronounced using the 2nd tone.

S: 茶(chá).

Note: student repeated after the teacher with the accurate intonation.

(2) Recast: a reformulation of the student's erroneous utterance.

Student: 茶 (chà).

Note: this was pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect.

T: 茶 (chá).

Note: the teacher then corrected the student by pronouncing it using the 2nd tone.

Student: 茶 (chá).

Note: student repeated after the teacher with the accurate intonation.

(3) Clarification request: a feedback move which related to meaning or form is made after a student made an error on pronouncing the word “茶” which means tea.

S: 我喜欢喝茶 (chā). (I like to drink tea.)

Note: this was pronounced using the 1st tone of tea which is incorrect.

T: 茶 (chá) , is that what you want to say?

Note: the teacher encouraged the student to reformulate it.

S: emm... it's 茶 (chá) ?

Note: the student hesitated but self-corrected with the accurate intonation.

(4) Metalinguistic feedback: a type of feedback that involved the teacher's comments or brief analysis of the student's language form, without explicitly providing the correct form.

S: 茶 (chà).

Note: this was pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect.

T: it's the question tone.

Note: the teacher didn't explicitly provide the correct answer, but hinted to the student that it should be the 2nd tone.

Student: oh, 茶(chá)!

Note: student pronounced with the accurate intonation.

(5) Elicitation: a feedback move in which the teacher intended to give the student a chance to self-correct their responses through specific language and skills without asking a direct question.

S: tea.

Note: the student only provided the answer in English.

T: so in Chinese that is...

Note: the teacher encouraged the student to self-correct by pausing.

S: it's 茶(chá)!

Note: the student realised the need to pronounce in Mandarin and successfully pronounced with the accurate intonation.

(6) Repetition: a kind of feedback in which the teacher repeated the student's erroneous utterances with a questioning tone, a rising intonation, or a prominent accent to highlight the error.

S: 茶 (chà).

Note: this was pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect.

T: chǎ?

Note: the teacher repeats the student's error by using a questioning tone.

S: (Instantly) I know it! 茶(chá).

Note: the student realised the error and successfully self-corrected with the accurate intonation.

(Extracted from the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal Weeks 4, 6 and 8 in Term 1, 2019)

During the research, in addition to these six types of oral corrective feedback used, the teacher-researcher discovered the need to employ a combination of corrective feedback: explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback. This combination was also proposed by the 7D students, the high-level participants, in the first focus group interview.

The teacher-researcher used this kind of combined corrective feedback when the student used the wrong tone. For example:

Combination: explicit correction with met-linguistic feedback

(1) *S: chǎ*

Note: this was pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect.

T: No, it's not the 4th tone. It's the 2nd tone.

Note: the teacher then pointed out the student's error but didn't explicitly provide the correct answer by saying that this should not be the 4th tone but should be pronounced using the 2nd tone.

S: oh! It's chá.

Note: the student realised the error and successfully self-corrected with the accurate intonation.

(Extracted from researcher's self-reflective journal, Week 5 in Term 1, 2019)

(2) *S: xián. (咸 salty)*

Note: the student said the word is 'salty', but this should be 'sweet'.

T: No, it is not xián. xián is salty. But the pronunciation of sweet is very similar to salty.

Note: the teacher then pointed the student's error but did not explicitly provide the correct answer by explaining that what the student said was 'salty' and this should be 'sweet'.

S: okay, is that tián?

Note: the student hesitated but realised the error and successfully self-corrected with the accurate intonation.

(Extracted from researcher's self-reflective journal, Week 8 in Term 2, 2019)

Initially, this research used Lyster and Ranta's (1997) model of six types of corrective feedback (explicit correction, recast, clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition). However, during the first focus group interview, when the 7D student participants were asked which types of oral corrective feedback they preferred, one of the 7D student participants pointed out that the combination of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback could clearly show their mistakes and also explain the correct tones. All the rest of the 7D student participants in the focus group interviews agreed with this kind of combination because it allowed them to understand what errors they made and how to rectify the errors by themselves. The following section discusses the responses of the students and the teacher-researcher to these seven types of oral corrective feedback.

5.1.2 Students' responses to corrective feedback

Based on the data from focus group interviews, self-reflective journals and student survey questionnaires, students from 7A had different responses to oral corrective feedback than 7D students in the Chinese L2 classroom. The findings concerning students' response to oral corrective feedback are as follows.

5.1.2.1 7A students' responses to corrective feedback

In this research, the 7A class was a relatively lower level class in terms of language proficiency. At the end of each cycle, the student participants of 7A students were invited to attend a focus group interview with the teacher-researcher so their opinions regarding student engagement with oral corrective feedback could be collected. At the beginning of each focus group interview, the teacher-researcher reiterated different types of corrective feedback and explained why corrective feedback was provided in the Chinese classroom to understand the student's preference for different corrective feedback types.

As shown in Table 6, the number of 7A student participant votes during the focus group indicate their most and least preferred types of oral corrective feedback in Cycle 1 and Cycle 2.

Table 6: *Number of 7A students' most and least preferred corrective feedback types*

| Number of 7A Students' Most and Least Preferred Types of Corrective Feedback | Metalinguistic Feedback | Repetition | Recast | Explicit Correction |
|---|--------------------------------|-------------------|---------------|----------------------------|
| Cycle 1 | 5 | 3 | 0 | -5 |
| Cycle 2 | 4 | 2 | 2 | -4 |

Table 6 provides an overview of the number of 7A student participants' most and least preferred types of corrective feedback. During the first focus group interview, out of

the six students interviewed, the most preferred corrective feedback for 7A student participants was metalinguistic feedback, followed by repetition feedback (3 out of 5 students), while explicit correction was their least preferred type of corrective feedback.

In the second cycle, metalinguistic feedback (4 out of 5 students) was still their first choice but recast feedback (2 out of 5 students) and repetition feedback (2 out of 5 students) were both ranked the second. Additionally, four student participants chose explicit correction as their least preferred type of corrective feedback. Students' responses to these types of oral corrective feedback will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

Metalinguistic feedback

Here, metalinguistic feedback refers to the reason for the errors and explanation for the answer. In the Chinese classroom, grammar explanations and tone explanations were the main forms of metalinguistic feedback. Metalinguistic feedback involved the teacher-researcher's comments or brief analyses of students' erroneous utterances without providing the correct form explicitly. Thus, it allowed the students to self-correct their errors, and 7A students preferred this type of corrective feedback.

During these two focus group interviews, when 7A students were asked which types of corrective feedback they preferred, they provided various perceptions of metalinguistic feedback. For example:

Student (Kayarn): I like the fifth one (metalinguistic feedback), because it does

not actually just say what it is, it's like helping you how to correct it. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Student (Jet): I still love the fifth one (metalinguistic feedback). If I made a mistake, and you said that is question tone, so we can remember that it is about the question, that is go up. so oh, right! It's chá (tea). So this kind of feedback is really helpful. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

From the 7A students' focus group interviews, it is inferred that the majority of 7A students need the nature of their error explained to help them understand how to correct it. This finding aligns with the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journals, which included the transcribed speech:

I was always nervous about how to make my corrective feedback clear and noticeable for the students. However, in contrast to other types of corrective feedback, metalinguistic feedback could be employed in this class successfully, 7A students could generally understand my corrective feedback and then sometimes they could even correct their errors by themselves. For instance, As I gave Riley [pseudonyms] the metalinguistic feedback, I told him "it's a rising tone, the second tone". Riley just thought for two seconds and shouted out excitedly, "Oh! Oh I know, it's chá! (pronounced as second tone)". Then I asked the rest of the class "Is he right?" and most students replied "Yes!". (Reflection for 7A, Week 3, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

The data from the self-reflective journal indicates that the metalinguistic feedback could help students pay attention to the right tone the teacher-researcher wanted to convey. When the teacher-researcher provided metalinguistic feedback, this kind of corrective feedback was able to benefit individual learners and enabled the rest of the class to reflect on the error, helping them engage in learning Chinese cognitively and behaviourally.

Repetition

Following metalinguistic clues, repetition ranked second in students' most preferred types of corrective feedback. Three out of five 7A student participants favoured receiving repetition feedback during their oral production in the first cycle of this research, and two out of five 7A student participants preferred repetition feedback in the second cycle. In this research, the teacher-researcher repeated the students' errors by using a rising questioning tone so the students could recognise the corrective intention of the repetition feedback. The following examples show two students' comments on repetition feedback during the focus group interviews:

Student (Jasmine): I like repetition feedback. You will not directly say I am not right then showed me the answer but emphasise the wrong part in particular so that I can quickly realise and correct the mistake by myself.

(Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Student (Kayyan): Repetition is good, especially when you combine with the facial expressions and gestures. So sometimes I know how to say it by myself. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

Repetition feedback is not explicit enough, but this kind of implicit feedback could help 7A students to self-correct by emphasising the errors and encouraging them to locate the incorrect component and find the right form. Thus for 7A students, repetition could help them focus on making the correction by themselves and might foster students' autonomy in learning Chinese.

Recast

The teacher-researcher mainly used recasts when students made errors in pronunciation, vocabulary, phrases and grammar. Based on the audio-recording data, recasts were mostly used for phonological errors. When asked about their most preferred type of feedback in the first focus group interview, no one chose recast. However, in the second cycle, both recast feedback and repetition feedback became the second choice on the list of preferred feedback. Some students provided explanations of why they chose recasts; for example:

Student (Riley): When I made mistakes, you give me direct answer by using recast feedback and we can easily understand and get it, I will feel relaxed and easy. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

The above student's comment demonstrates that recast feedback can help students correct forms easily and clearly. In this research, recast belonged to implicit correction, which helped students recognise their errors and self-correct. Further, recast feedback is non-obtrusive, so it does not interrupt the conversational flow as much nor increase the student's anxiety (Long, 2007; Doughty, 1999). Therefore, since this kind of feedback made the student's mistakes less obvious, it might not affect the student's conversation flow and students might feel less embarrassed

Explicit correction

Conversely, it was observed that explicit correction was still 7A student participants' least favourite corrective feedback in this research. During the first focus group interview, all 7A student participants did not favour explicit correction feedback; in the second focus group interview, most of them still disliked it (5 of 5 students in the first cycle and 4 of 5 students in the second cycle).

At the beginning of this research, 7A students were not very accustomed to how the teacher-researcher taught, so they were afraid of making errors and would easily feel stressed about making mistakes. When the explicit correction feedback was employed in the first cycle, the teacher-researcher would directly tell 7A students: 'No, it is not right'. This could easily increase students' anxiety and interrupt the conversational flow. During the first focus group interview, one of the female student participants in 7A made a compelling comment:

Student (Hannah): I am really afraid of making mistakes. I hate it because I am always not right and I always make mistakes. And for someone, they are perfect and just feel like they can improve and become better when making mistakes. But not for me, like me, I make mistakes at least four or five times every day. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Hannah was very shy and sensitive in the Chinese classroom. In the first focus group interview, she had quite a negative attitude towards making mistakes, which was typical of the students in the 7A class. It was also observed that she was really afraid of making errors based on the student survey questionnaires.

In the first student survey questionnaire, she responded with ‘strongly disagree’ to Item 4, ‘I will feel not embarrassed when the teacher points out my error directly’. She also marked ‘extremely’ next to the ‘strongly disagree’ option for Item 4, which meant this student was afraid of making errors and would be easily embarrassed if her errors were pointed out directly.

Another student made a similar comment in the student survey questionnaire:

Student (Jet): Hope I can learn from my mistakes more easily when you point out my mistakes. (Students’ survey questionnaire, Cycle 1)

It could be found that some of the 7A students were easily embarrassed and frustrated when they made errors. Although some students knew that making mistakes could help them improve Chinese learning, they did not want to be mocked by their classmates

when the teacher-researcher pointed out that what they said was incorrect. The following transcribed speech of the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal supports this finding:

This week was the first Chinese class of my action research. I just thought I was fully prepared for this class, but in the real class, the 7A students did not give the response I expected. For example, when I used the explicit correction feedback to Hannah, I directly uttered 'no, you are not right'. She hesitated for nearly half a minute and finally chose to remain silent. After giving feedback, Hannah appeared so embarrassed and anxious. It seems really hard for her to fully understand this type of corrective feedback. (Reflection for 7A, Week 1, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

When the teacher-researcher provided explicit corrective feedback in the Chinese class, 7A students needed to carefully listen to this type of corrective feedback and also consider what they were going to say. In addition, if the teacher-researcher gave 7A students explicit corrective feedback and directly told them their sentences were incorrect—such as 'no, you are not right'—it would discourage them and cause them to be less engaged in the Chinese class. In the first focus group interview, 7A student Kayvin made the same comments as Hannah and Jet on explicit corrections and some confusion:

Student (Kayvin): When I got obvious mistakes like chá (茶 tea in Chinese), if I say chà (this was pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect), and you

say 'no, it is not chà, it is chá.' (the teacher-researcher then corrected the student by saying that this should be pronounced using the 2nd tone), immediately I lost my thought and felt anxious. You need to give me several seconds to understand. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Therefore, 7A students tended to feel confused and anxious about this kind of corrective feedback from the beginning of this research. However, in the second cycle, the teacher-researcher tried to add inspiring and encouraging words on explicit corrections to help the 7A students in the Chinese class. The relationship between the teacher-researcher and 7A students became more harmonious, and the students could gradually adapt to the teacher-researcher's teaching style. Although 7A students were still afraid of making mistakes, even when the teacher-researcher made comments to students such as 'No, you are not right. It should be X, not Y', they were observed to be more relaxed and less anxious after the teacher-researcher pointed out their mistakes in this way.

Hannah, the shy participant in class, also chose the 'strongly disagree' option for Item 4: 'I will feel not embarrassed when the teacher points out my error directly' in Cycle 2. However, this time she marked '-' (minus) next to the 'strongly disagree' option, indicating she felt less embarrassed when making mistakes than in the first cycle. Meanwhile, student Riley could gradually understand and adapt the teacher-researcher's feedback:

Student (Riley): I used to figure out how it should be said properly, it's just like go through it in my head. I know what you are saying, but I still need to

correct self-correct several times. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

Rather than being embarrassed to make mistakes as they were in the first cycle, 7A students started to push themselves further to self-correct in the second cycle. Indeed, some students even realised that it was good to make errors in order to learn from them. One speculation is that the teacher-researcher gradually established a good rapport with 7A students in this context. The following transcribed speech from the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal supports this finding:

This week's Chinese class was progressing smoothly. 7A students appeared to be very focused and concerned during the class. The majority of 7A students could understand the teacher-researcher's corrective feedback in class and can respond quickly, even when the teacher-researcher used their least favored explicit correction. For example, when the teacher-researcher helped them review the word milk (niú nǎi) in Chinese for the whole class, many students mispronounced it as 'niú lǎi'. The teacher-researcher said to them: 'no, it's not niú lǎi. It should be nai, niú nǎi.' They did not seem to focus on 'no', nor did they show any frustrated expressions, rather than very focused and repeated the words 'nǎi, niú nǎi' loudly. In this research, the teacher-researcher's made an effort to build a good relationship with students and facilitate young student engagement in learning Chinese. What makes the teacher-researcher happy is that, unlike the first few weeks of leaving class without saying goodbye, the current 7A students will warmly say goodbye to the teacher-researcher after every class, like 'Bye

Miss!' 'Bye bye!' 'Thank you, Miss!' 'Thanks for teaching us!'. During regular classes, students often express their gratitude to the teacher-researcher as well, like 'You are really a good teacher!' ' We love you so much!'. It could be seen that the relationship between the teacher-researcher and students is becoming more and more harmonious, which also allows the teacher-researcher to better implement her oral corrective feedback, even their least favourite types. (Reflection for 7A, Week 5, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher' s self-reflective journal)

In this research, instead of explicit correction, 7A student participants tended to opt for more implicit types of corrective feedback, as they preferred the opportunity to think about the correct forms on their own before receiving a direct answer. Learning would be more effective for 7A students when the teacher-researcher provided them with an implicit answer without pointing out their errors directly. Thus, it was found that although 7A students were more inclined towards receiving implicit corrective feedback, their attitude towards explicit correction changed. Further, this kind of oral corrective feedback no longer negatively engaged 7A students cognitively and affectively at the end of the second cycle.

5.1.2.2 7D students' response to corrective feedback

Compared to 7A, 7D had a relatively higher language level. Like 7A, they participated in focus group interviews and student survey questionnaires at the end of each cycle. 7D student participants provided their own opinions on student engagement with oral corrective feedback and responses to types of corrective feedback. Table 7 indicates the

number of 7D students participants' votes for the most and least preferred types of corrective feedback in two cycles.

As shown in Table 7, the results demonstrated that in the first cycle, the 7D students most preferred the combination of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback. Recast feedback (2 out of 5 students) was ranked second on the list of preferred corrective feedback. In the second cycle, the combined feedback of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback was still 7D student participants' favourite feedback, but repetition (2 out of 5 students) became the second choice, followed by recast feedback (1 out of 5 student).

Table 7: *Number of 7D students' most and least preferred corrective feedback types*

| Number of 7D Students' Most and Least Preferred Types of Corrective Feedback | The Combined Feedback | Recast | Repetition |
|---|------------------------------|---------------|-------------------|
| Cycle 1 | 5 | 2 | 0 |
| Cycle 2 | 5 | 1 | 2 |

Combined feedback

During the first and second focus group interviews, the 7D student participants insisted that they preferred to receive the teacher-researcher's combination of feedback as often as possible. The combination includes explicit correction and metalinguistic clues, which matches the explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation proposed by

Sheen and Eills (2011), whereby the student is supplied with the correct form explicitly. Sheen and Eills (2011) contend that this combination belongs to the explicit category. In addition to signalling the error has been committed and providing the correct form, there is also a metalinguistic comment. One example of the 7D students' responses to the combined oral corrective feedback is:

Student (Sienna): My favourite corrective feedback should be explicit correction with reason, the reason here is an explanation or metalinguistic feedback. Like when I say the wrong tone of 茶 (tea), you told me that 'not chà (4th tone), it's chá (2nd tone), because it's the question about tone.' So actually it combines explicit correction and metalinguistic together. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

In the above example, Sienna pointed out that she preferred the teacher-researcher to employ combined types of feedback, which was explicit and clear, rather than the original six types of corrective feedback. The other 7D student participants immediately expressed their approval of Sienna's view, agreeing that this combination could help them fully understand the teacher-researcher's feedback.

In the second focus group interview, the 7D student participants were asked if they still preferred this kind of combination when talking about the types of oral corrective feedback. They gave similar responses as the first focus group interview. For example:

Student (Trinity): I still love the explicit correction with the reason. If you just follow the teacher to say the answer directly, sometimes you do not fully understand, and you will get it wrong the next time, but this type of feedback could fully explain the nature of the error and its reason, so it is useful to help us correct the errors. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

7D students stated that explicit correction could help to identify their mistakes immediately and directly tell them the correct form for the wrong answer, while the metalinguistic feedback helped explain their mistakes so they could fully understand and thus avoid them in the future.

For 7D student participants, this kind of oral corrective feedback combination was very constructive and focused. Therefore, they preferred to receive the combination of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback through teacher–student interaction.

Recast

Like the 7A student participants, 7D also favoured the recast type of corrective feedback, which was seen as an implicit type of feedback. In the first focus group interview, two out of five 7D student participants supported recast feedback, but only one 7D student participant preferred it in the second focus group interview. Notably, two 7D interviewees who favoured the recast feedback had much lower language proficiency levels than other 7D student participants:

Student (Paige): I like recast. If you say the correct form directly and I can

immediately grasp. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

In this research, Paige's language proficiency level was lower than other students and she was always inattentive and afraid of making errors. This student felt that she could receive the most accurate answers through recast feedback instead of the teacher-researcher telling her the answer was wrong. Thus, students with a lower level of language proficiency like Paige might not feel anxious and frustrated by making errors. Therefore, recast feedback could promote the affective engagement of students with basic language proficiency.

Repetition feedback

In Cycle 2, two out of five students also indicated that they prefer the repetition type of oral corrective feedback. The following excerpt shows student Sienna's view on repetition feedback:

Student (Sienna): When you repeated what the student said with a rising intonation, it can show the difference, telling them how it should mean to be. Not this, but this. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

Repeating students' utterances and emphasising their errors could help 7D students realise what errors they made and activate their conscious attention, thereby promoting their cognitive engagement.

Generally speaking, explicit correction belonged to the category of explicit corrective feedback, while recast, repetition and metalinguistic feedback were implicit category.

In this research, metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction were included in the combined types of feedback. 7D student participants were more inclined to choose explicit feedback than 7A students. The 7D (advanced level) students preferred to receive the teacher-researcher's explicit corrections as much as possible because this kind of feedback helped them identify their mistakes immediately and provide the right form directly.

5.1.2.3 Comparing the response of both classes of students

Given that the oral corrective feedback provided could be implicit or explicit, it was interesting to see that 7A and 7D students had similar and different views on types of oral correction feedback. The results revealed that both 7A and 7D students preferred metalinguistic feedback, recast and repetition, which tend to be implicit corrections. Especially for the metalinguistic feedback, they perceived they could benefit more from this kind of feedback than other types of corrective feedback.

In contrast, an obvious discrepancy between the 7A and 7D students was also observed in the focus group interviews. Specifically, explicit correction was 7A students' least preferred feedback, while it was the favoured form of feedback for 7D (the more advanced level students). Students from each class responded differently to explicit corrective feedback. 7D participants believed explicit correction feedback was useful for highlighting tone errors, while 7A participants did not think so. Thus, it revealed that different proficiency levels might affect students' responses to the types of oral corrective feedback.

Meanwhile, depending on students' attitudes towards error correction, corrective feedback can assist or hinder the processing and development of learning a language (Haifaa I, 2015). As a result, it was found that 7A and 7D students' different responses to explicit correction also depended on their attitudes towards making errors.

In this research, 7A students were easily embarrassed and frustrated when they made errors. They did not want to be mocked by their classmates when the teacher-researcher pointed out that what they said was incorrect. Therefore, if the teacher-researcher directly told 7A students that their sentences were incorrect (e.g., saying 'no, you are not right') and then gave them explicit corrective feedback, it would discourage them, causing them to be less engaged in the Chinese class.

Instead of feeling frustration or anxiety when making mistakes or errors in front of their classmates, the 7D students welcomed the chance to correct their errors and mistakes during teacher–student interactions. When the 7D students were asked in the first focus group interview, 'When you make errors and I give you feedback, will you feel nervous, anxious or happy?', they responded positively:

Student (Trinity): Sometimes the feedback I get is negative feedback, I feel like I can do better. And you give us feedback very nicely, so it made me feel like I didn't make something wrong, but just feel like this is the way I improved for what I done. When you give feedback, you will know what you are talking about, not just talking about "you are wrong", but focus on how to correct and

how to improve. Taking a step back, what you said really help us to learn better. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Student (Fiona): No, I will not feel nervous, because you always try to minus (minimise) the embarrassment as low as you can get. I will focus on the factors that I made mistakes. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

For the 7D students, the meaning of making errors was to improve and do better next time. How to correct and improve is the purpose of the teacher-researcher providing corrective feedback to students. Thus, it was found that there were great discrepancies between 7A and 7D students' attitudes to corrective feedback and making errors. Compared with 7A participants, 7D students could easily accept the teacher-researcher's explicit correction feedback. Therefore, 7D students (the high-level students) had a more positive attitude towards error correction and oral correction feedback than 7A students' (the low-level students) attitudes.

Overall, taking into account the difference in language proficiency levels and students' attitudes towards making errors, it was found that the low-level students (7A) tended to favour more implicit oral corrective feedback, while the advanced level students (7D) preferred to receive more explicit and immediate corrections. Therefore, the teacher-researcher could use different types of corrective feedback to promote student engagement based on their different language proficiency levels.

5.1.3 Frequency of teacher-researcher's feedback

After showing 7A and 7D students' responses to different types of corrective feedback, the frequency of different oral corrective feedback types used in the Chinese lessons was also calculated. The frequency of different types of oral corrective feedback is related to the different students' uptake following each corrective feedback type (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The effectiveness of the different types of oral corrective feedback is measured based on the kind of student uptake following the corrective feedback. There were some discrepancies between the students' responses and the actual corrective feedback provided by the teacher-researcher.

At the beginning of the research, the teacher-researcher utilised the same corrective feedback strategies in 7A and 7D classes. However, when faced with some similar types of corrective feedback, the two classes' responses were relatively different from what the teacher-researcher expected. In the second cycle, the teacher-researcher made some adjustments to the corrective feedback strategies for 7A and 7D classes based on their performance in the first cycle.

In this research, a total of 152 corrective feedback episodes were observed during the 400 minutes of the 7A classroom interaction, while a total of 119 feedback episodes were identified for the 7D class. As noted earlier, seven corrective feedback types were identified. Table 8 shows these types of corrective feedback and their number of occurrences and percentages for 7A and 7D classes.

As indicated in Table 8, audio-recording and classroom observations demonstrated that recast was the most frequently employed feedback type, at a rate of 54.6% of all feedback moves in 7A and 47.9% in 7D. The second most commonly employed corrective feedback type for 7A was metalinguistic feedback (21.1%), followed by repetition feedback (10.5%). The remaining three types—combined feedback, elicitation and clarification requests—ranged from 1.3% to 5.9% of all corrective feedback moves.

For 7D, the second most frequent corrective feedback was the combined feedback, accounting for 19.3%. The other corrective feedback types used were: explicit correction (10.1%), metalinguistic feedback (9.2%), repetition (7.6%), elicitation (3.4%), and clarification requests (2.5%).

Table 8: *Frequency and distribution of different corrective feedback types*

| Corrective Feedback types | Language proficiency level | | | |
|--|-----------------------------|-------------|----------------------------------|-------------|
| | 7A Class Low-level class | | 7D Class Advanced level class | |
| | numbers | percentages | numbers | percentages |
| 1. Recast | 83 | 54.6% | 57 | 47.9% |
| 2. Metalinguistic clues | 32 | 21.1% | 11 | 9.2% |
| 3. Explicit correction | 7 | 4.6% | 12 | 10.1% |
| 4. The combined feedback- explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback | 9 | 5.9% | 23 | 19.3% |
| 5. Repetition | 16 | 10.5% | 9 | 7.6% |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|-----|------|-----|------|
| 6.Elicitation | 5 | 3.3% | 4 | 3.4% |
| 7.Clarification request | 2 | 1.3% | 3 | 2.5% |
| Total | 152 | 100% | 119 | 100% |

Further, it was found that recast feedback became the teacher-researcher's most frequent type of corrective feedback, while clarification requests and elicitation were the teacher-researcher's least frequent and least favoured type of corrective feedback.

5.1.3.1 Recast

The target language in this research is Chinese, which is a tonal language, while tones do not exist in English. For Chinese, the same syllable with the same pronunciation but different tones may have completely different meanings. Thus, for young L2 students whose mother language is English, Chinese tones present a huge challenge. Due to the characteristics of the Chinese language, the most common errors young L2 students made were phonological errors observed in this research. Given that recast could help students correct the pronunciation errors of one word or phrase, the teacher-researcher preferred to use recast feedback. The following example from the teacher-researcher's self-reflection illustrates the reasons why recasts were favoured:

After completing the first cycle, the audio-recording data of all Chinese classes were sorted out and analysed. It was very interesting that the most used oral corrective feedback in the first cycle was recast feedback. Due to this situation, the following reasons could be summarised: 1. It is easy for teachers to employ recast feedback because sometimes teachers just need to

correct one word or phrase for the student, especially the student's pronunciations. 2. Recast feedback belongs to the implicit category, which will not interrupt the conversational flow as much and will not increase students' anxiety. (Reflection for 7A& 7D, Week 5, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

As the students were all beginner level students and their errors were generally focused on a word or a phrase, the teacher-researcher tended to conduct recast feedback, which was more clear, direct and salient for the students and simple for the teacher-researcher. In addition, the teacher-researcher considered that recasts could better help students' actual use of pronunciation corrections and facilitate student engagement. Thus, this type of feedback became the most favoured and frequent type of corrective feedback for the teacher-researcher.

5.1.3.2 Clarification requests and elicitation feedback

There are several reasons why a low number of clarification requests and elicitation feedback were employed in this research. An excerpt from the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal demonstrates:

As the students could not give the corresponding responses that the teacher-researcher expected, she would feel nervous and not confident, especially providing clarification requests and elicitation these two types of corrective feedback.

For the clarification requests, the students could not immediately recognise

what their errors were and they look frustrated and embarrassed. First of all, this feedback made them feel embarrassed as they really thought the teacher did not carefully listen to what they were talking about. When the teacher-researcher replied to the students “Oh, sorry?”, the students did not take it seriously as feedback, but they really felt that the teacher-researcher did not hear clearly just now. Secondly, clarification requests were too vague and unclear, so the students could not clearly get the purpose of the teacher-researcher’s feedback, which also made them felt uncomfortable.

For the elicitation corrective feedback, students tended to be confused. Meanwhile, the short and strategic pause caused temporary embarrassment in the classroom. The students’ responses towards these two types of corrective feedback greatly discouraged the teacher-researcher and made her feel anxious and suspicious, so the teacher-researcher was instinctively reluctant to use these two feedback, which became the least commonly used feedback. (Reflection for 7A& 7D, Week 5, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher’s self-reflective journal)

This data illustrates that students’ responses towards different types of corrective feedback in a Chinese classroom could encourage or hinder the teacher-researcher from employing some types of corrective feedback. Thus, the teacher-researcher would automatically provide the number of corrective feedback types based on students’ responses and behaviours in this research.

5.1.3.3 Explicit correction

At the same time, another interesting finding is that there was a different frequency and distribution of explicit correction between 7A and 7D (based on Table 8). As previously noted, it was found that the high-level students in 7D had a more positive attitude towards error correction and oral correction feedback than the low-level students in 7A. Because 7A and 7D students had relatively different attitudes towards corrective feedback and making errors in Cycle 1, the implementation of explicit correction varied across the two classes. Due to 7A and 7D showing different attitudes towards errors and corrective feedback in Cycle 1, the teacher-researcher tended to implement more explicit correction feedback to 7D and less explicit corrective feedback to 7A. Therefore, in the Chinese classroom, the actual usage proportions of explicit correction in the 7D class were much greater than in 7A.

The teacher-researcher also compared the results of the actual frequency of seven corrective feedback types with the students' ratings of these corrective feedback types. Table 9 gives an overview of the actual frequency rank of each corrective feedback type, together with the 7A and 7D students' responses ranking.

Table 9: *Rankings of the seven types of corrective feedback*

| Ranking Type | Ranking |
|------------------------------|---|
| The 7A actual frequency rank | Recast > Metalinguistic feedback > Repetition > The combined feedback > Explicit correction > Elicitation > Clarification request |
| The 7A students' responses | Metalinguistic feedback > Repetition > Recast |
| The 7D actual frequency rank | Recast > The combined feedback > Explicit correction > Metalinguistic feedback > Repetition > Elicitation > Clarification request |
| The 7D students' responses | The combined feedback > Recast > Repetition |

From the rankings, it is evident that recast was the most frequently used corrective feedback type employed by the teacher-researcher in Chinese teaching. However, recast feedback ranked third in 7A and second in 7D students' responses. The 7A students perceived metalinguistic feedback to be the most effective type of corrective feedback while the 7D students considered the combined types most useful.

As Table 9 shows, there was a discrepancy between what feedback types the teacher-researcher provided in the Chinese teaching and students' responses to oral corrective feedback. The mentor teacher also provided some deep insights into the differences between the two classes regarding their different confidence and proficiency levels during the semi-structured interviews:

Between 7A and 7D classes, we can see students' confidence is different, their actual level and capability with language are also different. So to peel these things, we need to shape and adjust the feedback they really need. And think about what types of corrective feedback you need to take into account based on these types of factors. (Week 5, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

The semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher revealed that based on students' responses and proficiency levels, the teacher-researcher needed to shape the oral corrective feedback and provide the type of oral corrective feedback the students really needed. Three previous empirical observational studies (Han & Jung, 2007; Panove & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2004) also indicated that it is necessary to implement different types of corrective feedback in relation to students' proficiency levels, which might influence the teacher-researcher's employment of oral corrective feedback during the Chinese classes. In addition, if students do not perceive the corrective nature of feedback, and if their perception differs from the teacher's intention, they may not benefit from the corrective feedback (Amrhein & Nassaji, 2010). Due to this situation, in the second cycle, the teacher-researcher used more explicit feedback to the advanced level class than the low-level class, which could explicitly foster 7D learning Chinese from their mistake while encouraging 7A and building their confidence.

Overall, in this research there was a discrepancy between students' responses and the teacher-researcher's usage in the Chinese classroom. While the students preferred to receive metalinguistic feedback through teacher–student interactions, the teacher-researcher preferred using recast feedback. In summary, there was a gap between the young L2 students' corrective feedback responses and the actual corrective feedback the teacher-researcher used in the Chinese classroom. This finding suggests the teacher-researcher's approach to providing feedback may not always align with students' needs.

5.2 Teacher-Researcher's Teaching Practice

5.2.1 Employment of oral encouragement

Feedback can be positive and negative. Oral corrective feedback constitutes a kind of negative feedback (Eills, 2009), while the oral encouragement is a type of positive feedback. With the teacher-researcher's encouragement and inspiration, 'motivated L2 students with a positive attitude toward the target language and culture are more likely to be successful than those whose feelings toward the same things are negative or fearful' (Mitsutomi & McDonald, 2005, p. 231). In this research, the teacher-researcher adapted Belludi's (2008) compliment sandwich feedback—make positive feedback first, then provide critique, and end with positive comments—to further modify the oral corrective feedback. In this case, providing critique was most important in the teacher-researcher's approach. It was meant to encourage students to think about their answers. For instance, when the teacher-researcher said to the student, 'That's a good try. But you didn't get the tone quite right; it should be the question tone. Would you like to have another go?', it was meant to help the student re-think their initial response.

As noted earlier, it was found that the 7A students (the lower level) were easily embarrassed and frustrated when they made the errors in Cycle 1. They did not want to be mocked by their classmates when the teacher-researcher pointed out what they said was incorrect and gave them too harsh and direct feedback. For example:

S (Hannah): shuì. (water, she pronounced using the 4th tone which was incorrect. It should be the 3rd tone.)

T: No, not right. Not shuì, shuǐ. (The teacher-researcher pronounced using the correct tone.)

S (Hannah): shuǐ... (She pronounced using the correct tone but in a very low voice and looked shy.)

Student Hannah said water (水 shuǐ), but she said the fourth tone “shuì” instead of the correct second tone “shuǐ”. The teacher-researcher directly used the explicit correction to directly pointed out her error and said “No, not right.” Student Hannah looked extremely embarrassed and shy: her face flushed immediately. She lowered her head and did not dare to look into the teacher-researcher’s eyes. Another student also had similar reaction when was told that his answer was wrong:

S (Jet): shuì. (water, student pronounced using the 4th tone which is incorrect. It should be the 3rd tone.)

T: No, it’s not the fourth tone. It’s the third tone. (The teacher-researcher the teacher didn’t explicitly provide the correct answer, but hinting to the student that this should be the 3rd tone.)

S (Jet): shuì. (He said ‘shuì’ hesitantly and doubtfully, but the tone was still wrong.)

T: Not the fourth tone, it should be the third tone. (The teacher-researcher tried to hint the student again.)

S (Jet):.... (The student was too shy, refused to answer the question and kept silent.)

T: okay, follow me, shuǐ. (The teacher-researcher then corrected the student by directly pronouncing it using the 3rd tone.)

S (Jet): shuǐ (The student repeated softly after the teacher with the accurate intonation..)

For Student Jet, the teacher-researcher provided both explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. To help Student Jet with his pronunciation, the teacher-researcher provided him with feedback three times consecutively. In the first time, when the teacher-researcher told him, “ No, it’s not the fourth

tone. It's the third tone.”, Student Jet does not look confident and was hesitant to respond. Because his second self-correction was still not right, the teacher-researcher gave him the oral corrective feedback again. However, this time the student just lowered his head and kept silence so the teacher-researcher had to give him the direct answer. Student Jet just followed what the teacher-researcher said softly and he was so quiet and not willing to answer questions actively throughout the lesson. Therefore, this kind of approach in providing feedback might be too harsh for the students who are shy and quiet and may discourage some students in 7A. (Reflection for 7A, Week 2, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

The data of reflective journal results indicated that if the teacher-researcher told the 7A students directly that their sentences were incorrect, such as ‘no, you are not right’, it discouraged them and they became less engaged affectively in the Chinese class. Thus, appropriately using explicit correction in 7A class became a challenge. In this research, the compliment sandwich feedback was suggested by the mentor teacher:

There's a very effective strategy, which is called 'PNP'- the sandwich feedback. Sometimes, no is too negative for students, and there are many ways to say 'no'. You can say, 'close!', 'can you elaborate?', or 'would you like to consider another way of doing it?'. So there are another expressions of saying no and try to use the positive psychology in teaching. (Week 3, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

Lyster et al. (2013) pointed out that explicit correction usually combines positive and negative feedback. To allow 7A students to adapt to explicit feedback, the compliment sandwich feedback was employed in the second cycle to build students' self-confidence through oral encouragement and then help them be more engaged in the Chinese class. Instead of directly saying 'no, you're not right' to the 7A students, the teacher-researcher adjusted her approach by using a softer tone such; for example, 'Can you elaborate it?' or 'Would you like to consider other ways of doing it?':

Student (Riley): tián (sweet, but the answer is xián which means salty)

T: very close! But this is for sweet, think about how to say salty in Mandarin. Their pronunciations are quiet similar. Do you want to try again?

Student (Riley): oh! That's xián! (very confident voice)

T: good job! Let's give him a clap!

In this class, when Student Riley gave the wrong answer, this time the teacher researcher did not correct him immediately. Through the compliment sandwich feedback, the teacher-researcher gave Riley encouragement first in order to build his confidence, then provided the feedback that the teacher-researcher really wanted to give. Last the teacher-researcher inspired him again by saying 'Do you want to try again?'. Surprisingly, this method was very effective because it could help him reflect upon his response and actively correct his error. He quickly remembered how to say salty in Mandarin and gave the correct answer to the teacher-researcher. After everyone applauded, Student Riley raised his head proudly and made a grimace at his classmates, appearing very confident. Therefore, the feedback sandwich was useful in this

case. So instead of saying “no” directly, teachers could adjust their approaches in providing feedback so that students may build their confidence and engage in reflection. (Reflection for 7A, Week 7, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher’s self-reflective journal)

Instead of directly saying ‘no’, in the second cycle, the teacher-researcher tried to use different ways to express ‘no’. At the same time, the teacher-researcher included inspiring words in the feedback, like ‘good girl!’ ‘good boy!’ ‘that’s it!’ and ‘好!’ (‘good job!’ in Chinese). She found the 7A students became more engaged in Cycle 2 when applying the compliment sandwich feedback to the corrective feedback. Notably, 7A students’ attitudes towards making errors changed a lot in the second focus group interview:

Student (Hannah): If it is the normal practice, it will be okay to make mistakes because you always encourage us.. But if it is a test, then yes, I will still be a little nervous, because I want to get it right though. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

Student (Kayvon): Your corrective feedback is really helpful for me, because you encouraged me a lot when I made mistakes. So I know why I do it wrong, and I will just try harder and harder next time. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

In Cycle 1, they did not want the teacher-researcher to provide explicit corrective feedback because such corrective feedback would partly dampen their confidence in

learning Chinese. Hence, instead of utilising explicit correction feedback, the teacher-researcher notably used more implicit corrective feedback for 7A students in the second cycle and applied the compliment sandwich feedback by adding inspiring and encouraging words to ease their fear of making errors and make them more willing to accept feedback. Then in Cycle 2, some 7A students started to perceive that the teacher-researcher's corrective feedback was helpful for them in improving their Chinese language ability. Especially for Hannah, whose attitude towards making errors changed from extreme fear to mostly acceptable.

Therefore, it was found that due to employing the compliment sandwich feedback, many 7A students' (the beginner level) attitudes towards making errors changed a lot, and they were more willing to accept the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback. The previous example shows that some types of corrective feedback (i.e., metalinguistic feedback) inspired students to correct themselves and motivated their enthusiasm in learning Chinese language. This means 7A students made progress on cognitive, behavioural and affective engagement with oral corrective feedback.

In the same vein, the compliment sandwich feedback also worked in 7D class in this research:

T: xián (salty 咸)

S (Fiona): Is that sweet?

T: Pretty much. But focus on the beginning, xián, not tián. Would you like have another go?

S (Fiona): oh! Wait! Is that salty?

T: yes! You got it!

S (Fiona): High five!

During the Chinese class, Student Fiona of 7D was invited to translate what the teacher-researcher said into English. She was not confident enough, so the compliment sandwich feedback was decided to employ. Firstly, the teacher-researcher encouraged her 'Pretty much!', then the teacher-researcher provided the corrective feedback that was meant to help Fiona to re-think her answer. Finally, the teacher-researcher inspired her again by saying 'Do you want to try again?'. After Student Fiona got the right answer, she looked so excited and asked to high five with the teacher-researcher.

(Reflection for 7D, Week 7, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

As described in the excerpt above, oral encouragement could also engage this 7D student cognitively, behaviourally and affectively.

Meanwhile, based on the fourth key finding of 7D students' comments for student survey questionnaires, it was found that 7A students always emphasised the importance of encouragement, which was an important aspect of the teaching progress:

She is very helpful and encouraging. She always tells you that you are doing a good job and kindly tells you how to improve (Student survey questionnaire comment by Amaris, Cycle 1).

In this first cycle, the teacher-researcher tended to incorporate encouragement in the oral corrective feedback. Student Amaris's survey questionnaire comment illustrated

that the teacher-researcher always helped the students to solve difficulties and encouraged 7D students in the Chinese class.

In the second cycle, the teacher-researcher continued to include encouragement in the oral corrective feedback and more students referred to ‘encouragement’ in their second cycle comments.

She is very encouraging and supportive. Become a lot more confident. Sooo nice! And appreciative (Student survey questionnaire comment by Amaris, Cycle 2).

Student Fiona shared the same views as Amaris on the students’ survey questionnaire comments. They both really appreciated that the teacher-researcher’s oral corrective feedback was encouraging and supportive. When delivering the oral corrective feedback, the teacher-researcher always aimed to help them improve and encourage them next time rather than just telling them they were not right.

Therefore, it can be seen from these comments that 7D students show their preference for oral encouragement. However, although the compliment sandwich feedback had a positive impact on both classes, it was more effective for 7A class, the comparatively lower level class.

5.2.2 Body language/paralinguistic signal

Body language includes body posture, gestures, facial expression, touch and eye movement. These kinds of physical behaviours can convey information. To further

facilitate students' comprehension of corrective feedback, the teacher-researcher relied on extensive body language in this research, including hand gestures and facial expressions (i.e., hand signals, raised eyebrows and a funny face). This means the teacher-researcher used gestures to indicate the student's error (Eills, 2009). Such an approach coincided with the new type of 'paralinguistic signals' (i.e., hand signals, facial expressions, a funny face and raised eyebrows) introduced by Sheen and Ellis (2011). These signs were known as nonverbal corrective feedback. Lyster et al. (2012) also identify paralinguistic signalling as 'an attempt to non-verbally elicit the correct form from the student'.

Chinese and English are two types of language: Chinese is a typical tonal language, whereas English is a stress language. Tonal languages use tones to determine the meaning of each syllable, which is in direct contrast to stress languages (Yang, 2015). Because of its distinctive quality, the same sounds in Chinese pronounced with different tones can refer to different meanings. For instance, the first sound of 'tian' in Mandarin means sky, whereas the second sound of 'tian' means sweet. While for English, tone may just convey emotional information about the speaker; it indicates nothing about the meaning of the word. Thus, for non-tonal native speakers of a second language, tonal acquisition is more difficult. Chinese language has four principal tones. In the Chinese classroom, these four tones were described in detail. The following flash cards (see Figure 20) were posted on the Chinese classroom wall to help students remember the Chinese tones.

The *first tone* is a high continuous tone. Like the reciting of ‘A, B, C, D’ etc.

The *second tone* is a rising questioning tone. Like a surprised ‘Huh?’ or the question word ‘what?’.

The *third tone* is a drawling tone. First falling then rising, such as an indecisive ‘well...’.

The *fourth tone* is a sharp falling tone. Like a purposeful ‘Yes!’ or short and brief answering word ‘no’.

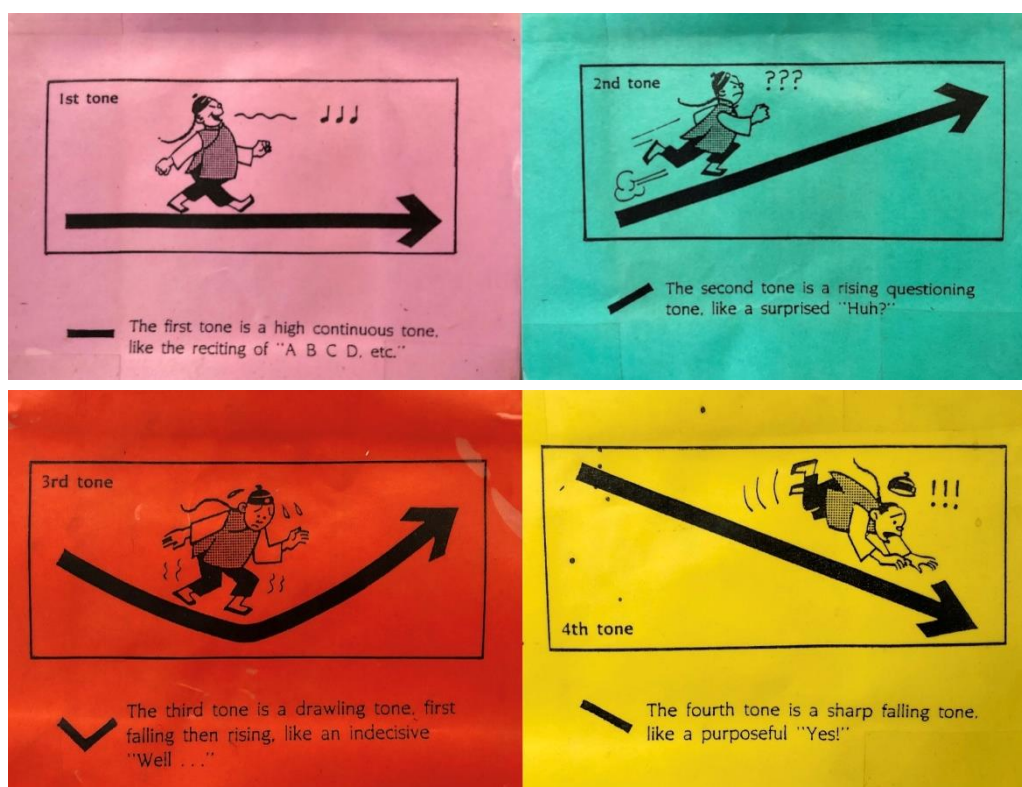


Figure 20. Chinese four primary lexical tones

In this research, all the student participants were native English speakers, so learning to hear and speak tones was a completely new skill for them. Due to the unique tonal characteristics of Chinese, the teacher-researcher mainly focused on correcting tone and pronunciation for these early-stage students. During the semi-structured interview with

the mentor teacher, the paralinguistic signals were also suggested to aid these four tones of Pinyin:

Gestures can be very direct, clear to the students. When the teacher just says the first, the second, the third or the fourth tone, students can not correct it properly and quickly. But if you describe them and use your gesture, it can help them to imagine how to say it. Like tea (chá) 茶, they are struggling to say the word, but the tone is still incorrect. Because in English, we don't have tones. The only tone for English is question. After learning the words, we will put the words into the context, which became the sentences. People will understand how it flows, how the words around change the tone, etc. This is really helpful, and it can also help them revise the other words. Language teaching is like building a house. It starts with single bricks, but once you have basic single bricks, you need to put them into a line and build on it, and each time you build a layer, you keep coming back to the previous layers to make enhance stability. So it is not easy for them to forget. And students will become more confident. (Week 4, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

Lightbown and Spada (1990) also reported that a teacher's explicit paralinguistic signals may have drawn students' attention to their erroneous utterances, leading to successful pedagogical intervention. Further, it is reported that incidental interventions such as paralinguistic signals do not hinder the flow of interaction in meaning-based classrooms (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Kim, 2004; Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Thus, paralinguistic signalling is a good technique to help students learn linguistic materials.

Notably, during the first cycle, when the teacher-researcher used a variety of hand gestures or facial expressions, she could help maintain students' interests and reduce distractions during the Chinese class. Therefore, paralinguistic signalling was used alongside other corrective feedback types the teacher-researcher implemented to help students pronounce the four Chinese tones. For instance:

S (Kayvon): wǒ xǐ huān hē shuǐ. (我喜欢喝水, I like drinking water. But the tone of the last word is wrong.)

T: Good! I like drinking water. But focus on the last word, it's the third tone. wǒ xǐ huān hē? (I like to drink.....?)

S (Kayvon): em... shui (He looked doubtfully.)

T: okay, follow me, shuǐ. (The teacher-researcher used her hand gesture like 'v' to indicate the third tone.)

S (Kayvon): shuǐ. (He repeated the teacher-researcher's pronunciation and action together.)

T: good! So that's wǒ xǐ huān hē shuǐ. (The teacher-researcher used her gesture again.)

S (Kayvon): wǒ xǐ huān hē shuǐ. (He imitated the teacher-researcher's action again.)

In this case, the teacher-researcher combined metalinguistic feedback and recast feedback together. Metalinguistic feedback was provided to Student Kayvon for the first time, but he looked confused. The response by Student Kayvon implied that he didn't grasp the real difference between the third tone and the fourth tone. So in the second time, the teacher-researcher employed the recast feedback with using aid hand gesture such as 'v' to help him distinguish the difference. Then Student Kayvon immediately knew how to pronounce the third tone and repeated what the teacher-researcher said with

same action. At the third time, when the teacher-researcher used the recast feedback to repeat the whole sentence again with her hand gesture of the third tone, then Student Kayvon repeated and imitated the teacher-researcher's gesture as well. He not only imitated with his hands, but also swayed the top of his body by following the teacher-researcher's instructions. He looked to be enjoying this action. (Reflection for 7A, Week 3, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

This data illustrates that paralinguistic signal processing invited and pushed this student to self-correct the erroneous part of his utterance. Hand gesture is a dynamic activity, while repetition is static; thus, it is more likely to attract students' attention. Moreover, through this method, students could control their own body movements and act according to their own wishes, which helped them form a sense of self-regulation (Goodenow, 1993). Therefore, it was found that paralinguistic signals could behaviourally and affectively engage students in learning Chinese tones.

7A and 7D students have a lot of trouble in remembering tones, which presents great challenges to them. Meanwhile, when providing the corrective feedback, the teacher-researcher had to spend a lot of time describing which tone should be used. During the class, the teacher-researcher used the 'up' hand gestures to indicate the second tone when she tried to describe the tone. Interestingly, it was found that the students could master the tones faster than before. They looked as though they were concentrating more effectively when employing

the hand gestures on the corrective feedback. Many students spontaneously put their elbows on the desks and imitated the hand gestures after giving the corrective feedback. (Reflection for 7A, Week 5, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

Among these four Mandarin tones, the second and third tones were difficult for young students to perceive and produce in this research. Therefore, the paralinguistic signals describing the tones must be clear and not cause confusion or ambiguity. In this way, paralinguistic signals are a valuable learning tool that helps students retain the correct form (Saeb, 2017).

The evidence from the first focus group interviews also showed that most of the students liked the teacher-researcher's hand gestures. They agreed gestures could help them remember the tones and they wanted the teacher-researcher to use these more often. Therefore, paralinguistic signals could further help students understand and internalise the tones of Pinyin. The combination of paralinguistic signals and other oral corrective feedback types by the teacher-researcher could promote student engagement and autonomy in grasping the exact pronunciation.

In the second cycle, facial expressions could also affect student engagement when providing oral corrective feedback. This can be seen in the following excerpt:

T: how to say spicy in Chinese?

S (Paige): lā. (spicy, but she should pronounce the 4th tone.)

T: là! ((The teacher-researcher frowned her eyebrows while talking, sticking out her tongue, pretending to eat something very spicy.))

S (Paige): là! (The whole class all join in to imitate the funny facial expression.)

T: good job!

When teaching how to describe different kinds of flavour in Chinese, Student Paige was asked how to say 'spicy' in Chinese, but she gave the wrong tone.

So in this case, the teacher-researcher exaggerated her facial expression while giving recast feedback to her. The teacher-researcher pretended to eat very spicy food, frowned and stuck her tongue out.. Then not only Student Paige, the whole class all joined in imitating this funny facial expression and followed the teacher-researcher to say "là" loudly and aggressively.

(Reflection for 7D, Week 6, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

When the teacher-researcher exaggerated the facial expressions, the students found this interesting and imitated the actions. This could help students remember the tone quickly and let them become more focused during the Chinese class. By using body language, the teacher-researcher could display different facial expressions and hand gestures in response to the students' erroneous utterances in the Chinese classroom. Moreover, students could further understand the four tones through the connection between visual images and auditory sense. Therefore, body language had a positive impact on student engagement with corrective feedback in this research.

5.2.3 Making Chinese learning relevant

Singh and Han (2014) considered that making Chinese language learnable is to make a connection between Chinese and English so students can learn the language by applying existing knowledge to the language, which benefits students in learning Chinese. In the process of research exploration, the importance of students' prior knowledge of the first language had gradually become prominent. Thus, the mentor teacher encouraged the teacher-researcher to try to help students make a link between their prior knowledge of the first language and the second language:

When you teach students Chinese, just pretend they all come from Mars, and they have not any idea about Earth. So what you need to do is help students make a link: link what they have learned before with the new teaching content now, then they can remember forever. That's a much better quality level of teaching and students can get faster and stronger with previous teaching.

(Week 2, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

Corrective feedback strategies should be built on what they have learned before. They should have some basic knowledge. For example, when you help students read the poetry, but they have not read these before. If you only focus on the meaning of this poetry, the corrective feedback will be hard to carry out. (Week 6, Cycle 2, interview with the mentor teacher)

Therefore, first and foremost, the teacher-researcher should find the similarities between English and Chinese and build students' prior knowledge into the new

language. This can help build up students' learning confidence and interest in learning Chinese. The mentor teacher also provided many effective teaching techniques during the Chinese classes. For instance, the Chinese character '吃' (to eat) looks like a little boy eating with his mouth wide open (see Figure 21). The following excerpts also show how to teach '叫' (be called) and '果汁' (fruit juice) in the Chinese classroom:

'叫' is very easy to remember, what numbers it looks like? Right! It looks like the number '0' and '4'. Maybe '0' and '4' are the telephone number and you need to call someone, so the meaning of '叫' is 'be called'. (Week 2, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

This week, the teacher-researcher just learned how to teach a new Chinese word- fruit juice (果汁) from the mentor teacher. The way pronounce for the fruit juice is "guǒ zhī", and the first Chinese character is "果". In order to help students deeply remember this word for fruit juice, the teacher-researcher told them that 'I see an up-side down pineapple' and draw a pineapple for them as well. Interestingly, they remember this word immediately and they looked like so happy and excited because of the teacher-researcher's painting. (Reflection for 7D, Week 6, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

For the young L2 students, these Chinese characters were completely new and strange, and they had no idea how to write them. The success of teaching these words might be attributed to the link between their prior knowledge and the new language. Therefore,

these data indicate that making a link eliminated students' fear of learning a new language, reduced students' cognitive load, and increased their participation in the class.

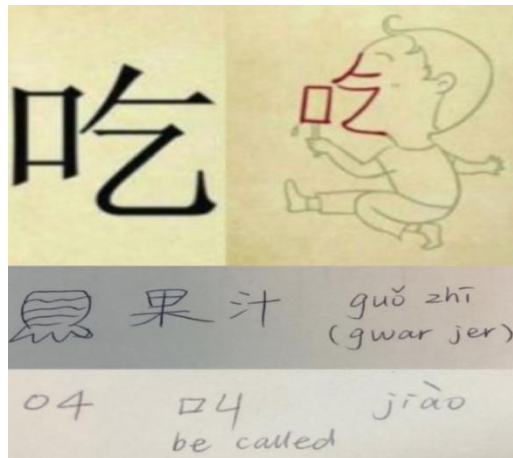


Figure 21. ‘吃’ (to eat), ‘果汁’ (fruit juice) and ‘叫’ (be called)

Further, composing stories for Chinese character is another teaching technique to help students who are non-native Mandarin speakers establish a connection with the Chinese language. In accordance with the second key findings of 7A students' survey questionnaire comments, the student participants held the view that making a little story based on Chinese characters was appealing to students:

I like how you makes small stories about the characters to help us remember, the meaning of them. I also like how we continually revise over previous work.

(Student survey questionnaire comment by Riley, Cycle 1)

Small stories could help them establish the connection between their knowledge and Chinese, so they could remember the Chinese characters easily. For instance, ‘我’(I/me) are like the images of Captain Jack from the movie *Pirates of the Caribbean*:

Have you seen the movie ‘Pirates of the Caribbean’? (most of students will answer ‘yes!’) Do you think Captain Jack is a good person or bad and why? Right, he is a bad guy because he is really selfish and he only focuses on his own interests. So this is the Chinese character ‘me/I’. Firstly, we can see that Captain Jack has a very long hat on his head. Then, here is his long arms and two legs with his boots. Next, do you know what weapons he uses? Right, he has a gun on his left hand and a sword on his right hand. And finally, there is a little monkey on his shoulder! So that is the Chinese character ‘我’ (I/me) with Captain Jack’s image. (Week 2, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

It was really hard for the bilingual novice teacher to teach this Chinese character and not easy for the students to remember it because of the complexity of ‘我’. Figure 22 shows the images of Captain Jack and ‘我’. During the teaching process, the students would feel bored easily and find it difficult to learn Chinese when the learning content was less relevant to their own experience. However, learning Chinese became interesting through storytelling, and the story also was very familiar to the students.

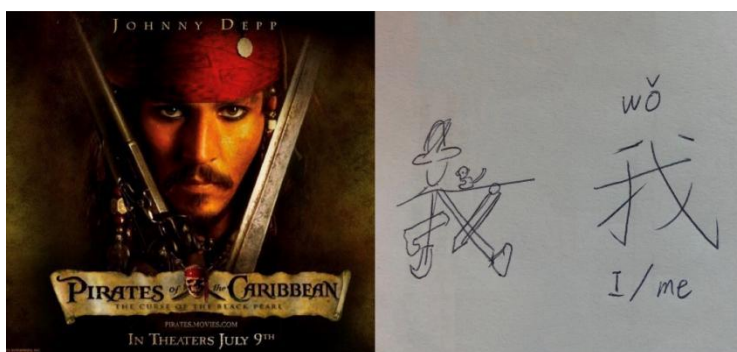


Figure 22. Captain Jack and 我 (I/ Me)

Therefore, it was found that making a link from the perspective of students would make the Chinese class more interesting so they would better engage in learning Chinese. The young bilingual teacher-researcher needs to develop a new second language based on their prior knowledge and values and then find the connections between Chinese and Australian cultures.

5.2.3.1 Contextualising learning

Student engagement with corrective feedback is mediated by contextual factors (Ellis, 2010; Evans et al., 2010; Murphy & Roca de Larios, 2010). Contextual factors can shape student engagement with corrective feedback in authentic classrooms. Based on the fourth key finding from 7A's comments, 7A students emphasised that they did not like learning the content when it had little to do with their experience:

I sometimes like Chinese depending on what we learn. It's sometimes fun and other times hard (Student survey questionnaire comment by Jayden, Cycle 1).

At the beginning, this participant expressed his preference for Chinese according to the difficulty level of the content. If the context was easy to learn, he would enjoy learning

Chinese. However, if the context was hard to understand, he would feel it was tough to learn:

Try to make assessment tasks fun e.g. going to Chinese shop (Student survey questionnaire comment by Jet, Cycle 1).

Additionally, sometimes boring and difficult contexts would affect student engagement in the class. They really enjoyed the fun activities, like the food excursion. Thus, in the first cycle, 7A students would easily get bored and find it hard to learn Chinese when the learning content was less relevant to their own experience.

In their comments from the second cycle, 7A students again asked the teacher-researcher for more fun activities related to their own experiences:

I like how at some point in the term we do a fun activity that we all have been looking forward to. E.g. the restaurant (Student survey questionnaire comment by Hannah, Cycle 2).

Students Jet and Jayden shared similar views with Hannah. Thus, the teacher-researcher applied more fun activities to this research.

Meanwhile, when 7A students were asked during the first focus group interview, ‘Do you think what factors will affect teacher’s feedback? And why?’, they also came up with some interesting insights:

Student (Jet): You can put sort of activities to practice the tone and pronunciation and make them interesting. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Student (Riley): I love 'charades' game, that is one person acts out a task and the other have to guess what it is. It is so fun and we enjoy it. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

It was found that these activities or games, like charades, helped increase students' interest in various pronunciations and tone challenges. When 7A students were asked in the second focus group interview, which part they learned best that year, most answered, 'the food unit'. Student Kayvon also expressed that the food unit was his favourite part, and it was good:

Teacher: what part you learned best in last year?

Students (Kayvon, Jet, Jayden, Hannah): food unit!

Student (Kayvon): It's my favourite. Foods are good!

(Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

When encouraged to say their favourite words or sentences this year during the second focus group interview, the vast majority of 7A students also expressed their love for food and drinks in Chinese:

Student (Jayden): Em.. 可口可乐 (Em... coca cola)

Student (Hannah): 茶! (tea!)

Student (Jet): 我喜欢可乐. (I like coca cola.)

Student (Kayvon): 我喜欢吃甜蜜鸡. (I like eating honey chicken.)

(Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

The second focus group interviews results revealed that 7A student participants really learned and progressed a lot in the food unit. Compared with other units in this research, an interesting context or topic could make the Chinese class more appealing, so 7A students could better cognitively, behaviourally and affectively engage in learning Chinese after two cycles.

At the same time, 7D students also proposed many constructive suggestions about contextualising learning in their first focus group interview:

Student (Sienna): If you want to role-play in the Chinese lessons and put yourself into the situation, you can design more activities to make students competitive, and everyone wants to be involved in. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Student (Lily): We want some activities or games, which is fun, like flashcards, memory games and drawing games. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Like 7A, the 7D students also showed great interest in various activities and topics that could help them become more engaged in the Chinese classes. Specifically, some games stimulated their competitiveness and passion for learning Chinese. Many

students also expressed their love of the food assessment in the second cycle, and strongly recommended that the teacher-researcher continue with similar activities in the future:

Student (Lily): I really like the food assessment in DARE week, it doesn't like the normal assessment, but like we are ordering the food in a real Chinese restaurant. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

At the end of the second focus group interview, when the teacher-researcher invited 7D students to say some sentences that most impressed them during this year, most provided sentences about various food and drink:

Student (Chole): 我喜欢吃小笼包. (I like eating soup dumplings.)

Student (Sienna): 我不喜欢皮蛋, I don't like it (I do not like eating 1000 years eggs soft tofu salad, because I do not like it.). (she gave wry smile to the teacher-researcher)

Student (Lily): 我不喜欢, wait, 喝茶 (I do not like... wait, drinking tea.) (struggling to say 'drink tea' in Chinese, but finally she did it.)

Student (Fiona): 我喜欢吃甜蜜鸡, 因为好吃。 (I like eating honey chicken, because it's good to eat.) (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

They were all very enthusiastic about showing their work during the focus group interviews.

In this research, the most impressive and favourite unit for both 7A and 7D students was the food unit. But compared with 7A students, 7D students tried to challenge themselves with longer, harder sentences rather than simple words or sentences. Thus, fun activities and games like characters and role-play could really increase student engagement with corrective feedback in the lesson.

In this study, the mentor teacher also provided some fun games to the teacher-researcher, like ‘left or right hand’:

There is one way to know whether students are engaged by this game. The teacher says a word in the class and students need to judge whether it is correct. Raise your right hand if you think it's correct, raise your left hand if you think it's wrong. Some students will actively ask the teacher-researcher 'Miss, is that right?'. After correcting their errors, they will say 'thank you Miss'. While answering the questions, they also eager to say the answer and actively rise their hands. (Week 3, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

Therefore, it is really important for the teacher-researcher to make Chinese learning fun. Without an interest in learning Chinese, students would consider Chinese so hard and dull to learn that they could not find meaning in it. Indeed, even the highly motivated student even may miss the potential benefits of oral corrective feedback when an activity lacks appropriate fun and effective pacing. It was evident that interesting activities or contexts often lead to positive emotions and engagement in the

authentic Chinese classrooms, so the Year 7 students in this research were highly engaged in Chinese learning cognitively, behaviourally and affectively.

5.2.4 Teacher–student rapport building

Early research has already shown the close connection between student learning in the class and the quality of teacher–student rapport (O’Connor, 2010). A good teacher–student rapport may improve student motivation and engagement (Estepp, 2015). Thus, it is very important for a novice teacher to establish a good rapport with students. As learning Chinese was a great challenge for these Year 7 students, how to engage them in the Chinese classroom was the primary task. In this research, the teacher-researcher’s purpose was to pay great attention to building a good relationship with students, creating a positive learning atmosphere and facilitating their engagement in learning Chinese.

In the first cycle, 7A students did the following warm actions after the Chinese class:

Today was very special day. After Chinese class, oftentimes the students just rush out of the classroom without saying goodbye. But today some 7A students warmly said goodbye to the teacher-researcher, like ‘Bye Miss!’ ‘Bye bye!’ ‘Thank you, Miss!’ ‘Thanks for teaching us!’, which made her feel that the class was very successful today and the relationship with students was getting better and better. (Reflection for 7A, Week 5, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher’s self-reflective journal)

It could be seen that a good rapport with students was built gradually, which shortened the distance between the students and the teacher-researcher. In the second cycle, the students also gave the teacher-researcher great encouragement:

During the class, the teacher-researcher tried to move around the whole class. She listened carefully to each student's questions and explained the problems patiently. Suddenly, Jordan told the teacher-researcher 'Miss, you're really a good teacher!' and the student next to him also nodded in approval. The teacher-researcher was really surprised for what he said and asked him why. Then he said 'We know how hard working you are, thank you!'. Therefore, it was really an effective way to build a good rapport with 7A students, which deconstructed the invisible wall between the teacher section and the student section of the Chinese classroom. Meanwhile, good relationship increased the student engagement and participant. (Reflection for 7A, Week 7, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

The teacher-researcher moving around the whole class was an effective way to establish a good relationship with the students. Based on the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal, it was found that the 7A students recognised the teacher-researcher's hard work and devotion to them. Once the teacher-researcher established a high-quality rapport with the students, further understood their needs and diagnosed their levels of language proficiency, her teaching was likely to promote student learning and engagement.

Similarly, the teacher-researcher also developed a high-quality relationship with 7D students from the first cycle to the second cycle. Based on the first key finding of 7D students' survey questionnaire comments at the beginning of this research, the teacher-researcher had established a good relationship with 7D students, so the students liked her teaching style. During the Chinese class, they could easily follow and understand the teacher-researcher's instructions:

I love this class and everything being taught in it. I feel like Chinese will somewhat help me in the future. The teaching technique is also really easy to follow and I can understand everything being told. (Student survey questionnaire comment by Sophie, Cycle 1)

This female participant loved Chinese class and loved the learning content in the Chinese class. She also expressed her opinions that the teacher-researcher's teaching technique was easy to follow and the content was easy to understand:

Thank you for teaching me! (Student survey questionnaire comment by Paige, Cycle 1)

The participant was a comparatively low language proficiency student in 7D class, but she expressed her willingness for the teacher-researcher to continue teaching her in Cycle 1.

In accordance with the self-reflective journals, it was found that 7D students were able to adapt the teacher-researcher's teaching style and corrective feedback strategies well:

After the teacher-researcher taught the 7D students how to say 'what I like eating and drinking' in Chinese, all the students gave her applause, which greatly inspired the teacher-researcher. It means that the 7D started to accept the teacher-researcher's teaching style and corrective feedback strategies.
(Reflection for 7D, Week 3, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

Further, during the first focus group interview, 7D students gave the teacher-researcher a good evaluation:

Student (Piggie): You are really nice, really patient, really care everyone.

Student (Sophie): Very very nice of supporting all of us and all the way.

Student (Fiona): You are great teacher, good luck! (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

It was evident that the teacher-researcher built a good relationship with 7D student participants in Cycle 1 and these participants were happy that the teacher-researcher could teach them.

Then in the second cycle, the teacher–student rapport became more harmonious than in the first cycle and the 7D students enjoyed the teacher-researcher's teaching style more.

This is based on the first key finding of 7D students' comments:

Keep doing what you are doing! (Student survey questionnaire comment by Paige, Cycle 2)

This low-level student encouraged the teacher-researcher to keep doing what she did at the end of the research in Cycle 2:

You are a great teacher. You are an amazing teacher! (Student survey questionnaire comment by Fiona, Cycle 2)

This participant gave lovely comments in both cycles. In the second focus group interview, she also said:

Student (Fiona): You are doing great! You are good teacher! (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

This indicated that she really liked the teacher-researcher's Chinese class in this research. Many 7D students also mentioned that the teacher-researcher's teaching style was very informative, interesting and appealing during the second focus group interview:

At the end of the second focus group interview, what 7D girls said really surprised the teacher-researcher. They gave her great confidence and encouragement in continuing the teacher-researcher's education career in the future. It seems like that 7D girls really liked the teacher-researcher's teaching style and trusted her very much. In the end, they also expressed their honours to participate in this research and told the teacher-researcher 'You are great teacher, good luck!' and 'We gonna miss you!'. She was really

impressed by these lovely students. (Reflection for 7D, Week 10, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

A good teacher–student rapport is ‘more often observed in classrooms that are managed well such that teacher expectations are clear and the pacing and level of activities are appropriate’ (O’Conner, 2010, p. 191). Overall, the evidence showed that despite the students and teachers encountering some setbacks and embarrassment in the beginning, they became more familiar and harmonious with each other after several weeks of teaching and learning. In the class, the teacher-researcher finally gained the students’ trust, narrowed the distance between the students, and diagnosed the students’ real needs for Chinese learning. Thus, a high-quality teacher–student rapport could create a harmonious Chinese learning atmosphere and help students become more engaged in the Chinese class.

In addition, an indicator of an affectively relevant positive learning environment is the teacher–student rapport established through teacher–student interactions (Wilson et al., 2010). Therefore, in the Chinese L2, establishing a high-quality rapport with students was very important for students’ affective engagement.

5.2.4.1 Positive teaching strategy

At the beginning of the Chinese classes, the most frequent instruction the teacher-researcher used was ‘say after me’, which was simple and direct. However, as this kind of teaching instruction was repeated, the students gradually got bored and finally this instruction became invalid:

Today was kind of tough day because the mentor teacher was absent. Without the observation and help of the mentor teacher, the students were kind of crazy and out of control during the Chinese class, which made the teacher-researcher really felt frustrated. (Reflection, Week 8, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

It was found that the teacher-researcher was struggling with how to manage the classroom, how to control the whole class and how to maintain a good rapport with students.

Due to this situation, the mentor teacher offered much constructive feedback on the language of teaching instruction, classroom management and how to maintain a healthy teacher–student rapport during the semi-structured interviews:

Try to give very direct and positive teaching strategies. Novice teachers always use one type of teaching strategy and repeat it over and over again, which make students feel bored. You are crossing the culture now and you also need to learn how to manage the class internationally, which is really hard. So you really need to watch what other teachers do in primary school or high school. Different strategies will suit different context, or your strategies will be too baby or too scary for them. You applaud in the class to try to calm them down, it was really too baby and naive for Year 7 students. You can say very repetitive phrase, which is much cleverer than clapping, like 'Eyes to me.', 'Ears listening.' 'Mouth closed.' and do the actions at the same

time. You can tell them very directly ‘what I want you to do ? ’. If you say to the teenagers ‘Don’t run.’, the first thing they want to do is run. They want to do the opposite and it’s about the positive psychology. So try to use very positive verbs and give them positive things to do, then they just do it. And you must never ever give teenager a choice in terms of ‘do you want to listen to me?’, their answer is always going to be ‘no’, because you ask them if you want to do, and they don’t want to do, so just tell them what to do directly.

(Week 7, Cycle 2, interview with the mentor teacher)

After the last in-depth discussion with the mentor teacher, this week the teacher-researcher tried to manage and control the class independently. She used several teaching instructional language instructions in the class, such as keep your hands! Please concentrate! Eyes on me! Shh, listen (with hand gestures). These positive teaching language instructions were very effective for the teacher-researcher. In the following time, she still need to continuously refine her teaching language instructions. (Reflection, Week 9, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher’s self-reflective journal)

Therefore, based on the experienced teacher’s suggestions, the beginning teacher could gradually provide very direct and positive teaching strategies in the Chinese classrooms. Using these kinds of effective teaching strategies could reduce students’ distractions, foster teacher–student rapport and help students concentrate more in the Chinese class.

5.2.5 Teacher's voice

During the teacher-researcher's teaching practice in this research, the teacher's voice also played a significant role. When novice teachers want their students to keep quiet, they always use very loud voices to get students' attention. But yelling is never helpful, and it shows the teacher has lost control of the whole class:

When the class are very noisy, some teachers used to scream to let them calm down, but the mentor teacher suggested the teacher-researcher to do the opposite. The louder you get, the louder they get. Then it turns into the louder battle one. Volume is not the best way to manage the class, and the teacher-researcher should be very careful. For the new teacher, they always ask 'Can I be respected?' by themselves. This is the biggest problem for the new teacher. Just find the worth in being respected and you worth it. (Week 7, Cycle 2, interview with the mentor teacher)

Today, when some students were talking loudly, so the teacher-researcher was just standing there, but looking angry, not completely angry, just bored and annoyed. And the students could tell that the teacher-researcher was not happy, bored and annoyed. The teacher-researcher was just waiting on purpose until some students realised and said 'quiet, she's waiting!'. That was her cue and then she said 'I am waiting and I should not have to.', which made them feel guilty. The students could tell the teacher-researcher was not happy. The teacher-researcher was calling them naughty, without saying that.

Therefore, it is very important that the teacher-researcher need to be very careful to use the volume when many students are talking during the class.

(Reflection, Week 8, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

Therefore, teachers should be careful with using volume during the class. Notably, sometimes speaking softly is effective in attracting students' attention because when they realise teachers are saying something, they will definitely want to listen. Thus, in this research, the teacher-researcher was learning how to control whole class behaviour from the front of the room; for example, alerting students to the fact that she was waiting until they were all listening before continuing with her instructions.

At the end of the Term 3, the mentor teacher gave the following comment to the teacher-researcher:

Ling Ling has used this insight to inform her teaching. For example, when leading pronunciation practice during lessons she has begun to deliberately target and actively encourage the students who try to 'fly under the radar' because they are less confident /engaged. Ling Ling has strengthened her volume and 'teacher's voice' during lesson delivery and developed more strategies for dealing with individual student behaviours (Week 9, Cycle 2, ROSETE 11 Professional Learning Guide).

It was found that the teacher's volume also played an important role in the Chinese class. The rise and fall of the teacher's volume could help draw students' attention,

stimulate and maintain all students' interest, and can be very effective. Moreover, the students *attempting to 'fly under the radar'* also began to realise there was no hiding place in the Chinese classroom, and it is not easier to misbehave in the back of the classroom than in the front. Therefore, the teacher's voice can deconstruct the invisible wall between the student section and the teacher section and increase students' engagement in the Chinese class.

5.3 Teacher-Researcher's Professional Development

5.3.1 Teacher-researcher's English language proficiency development

As Lyster and Mori (2006) considered, 'teacher-student interaction has a clearly pedagogical focus that relates not only to meaning but also to formal accuracy, quality of expression, and literacy development' (p. 278; i.e., negotiation of the form). Thus, when providing corrective feedback, the teacher's teaching and language abilities are important. The first problem the bilingual novice teacher-researcher encountered was the language barrier. At the beginning of the research, the teacher-researcher was troubled by the broken English for a while:

When the students answered the questions, the teacher-researcher would feel particularly embarrassed and nervous. Because the teacher-researcher often did not fully understand what students said and said 'sorry?' Or 'pardon?' in the class. The teacher-researcher often struggled with how to express effective feedback in English and she was afraid that the students did not understand what she meant, so the teacher-researcher always doubted her English ability

and felt frustrated and anxious. (Reflection for 7A, Week 1, Cycle 1, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

Some students also pointed out the teacher-researcher's broken English during the first group interview:

Student (Chloe): If you really want to teach the class very well. Practice a lot. Just remember you are the teacher. So whatever you are saying, don't be hesitated, just know what you are saying, because you do know. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

It was found that the teacher-researcher's broken English made her feel insecure in the Chinese classroom, which also affected the effectiveness of interaction with students. Further, based on the second key finding of 7D students' survey questionnaire comments, some students also suggested the teacher-researcher should improve her English skills to avoid misunderstandings in the first cycle:

I liked your teaching style but at times you were hard to understand because of the broken English. (Student survey questionnaire comment by Lily, Cycle 1)

Although 7D students liked the teacher-researcher's teaching style and had a good rapport with her, sometimes broken English could be the biggest stumbling block between the teacher-researcher and students in communicating and understanding. This could affect the accuracy of the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback.

The teacher-researcher was also sensitive because of her broken English. She would feel uncomfortable and embarrassed when the students noticed that what she said was incorrect. Thus, during this research, the teacher-researcher spent a lot of energy improving her English ability:

It was so surprised that the teacher-researcher could gradually communicated with students smoothly. If she did not understand what the students said, the teacher-researcher would open her mind to ask them. She told them 'English is not my mother language, but it's my second language. You are learning Chinese language from me. I am also the learner and I am learning English from you guys! Let's make progress together!' So now the teacher-researcher's English language skills improved a lot. In addition, it was very useful to learn several English teaching language instructions from the mentor teacher, like 'Please concentrate!' and the English questioning teaching technique, like 'How many words you can recognise in this sentence?' to flexibly adjust the teaching practice, which made her feel more confident.

(Reflection for 7D, Week 8, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal)

Through continuously learning English from the students and acquiring teaching strategies from the mentor teacher, the teacher-researcher became more confident and natural in teaching. To improve her English language proficiency, the teacher-researcher tried to have conversations with her students outside the class time and

practised her teaching language instructions many times before class. During the second focus group interview, the students commented on the teacher-researcher's language progress:

Student (Lily): I think your English progressed a lot through life in Australia.

Student (Fiona): You are really good at speaking English. (Excerpt from the second focus group interview)

Some student participants also mentioned the great progress of the teacher-researcher's continuous language development from 'broken English' in the first cycle to 'huge progress' in the second cycle.

I really liked how your English has progressed through the year and your teaching style was fun and informative (Student survey questionnaire comment by Lily, Cycle 2).

At the end of the research, the teacher-researcher could communicate with students without any barriers, so her English ability improved greatly through the research.

After two cycles, the students enjoyed the teacher-researcher's teaching style better and could more easily understand her oral corrective feedback, so the students made progress on affective and cognitive engagement in this research. In addition, the teacher-researcher also built up her self-confidence in Chinese teaching. Therefore, the teacher-researcher's continuous development was really important.

5.3.2 Confidence building and awareness of effective teaching

At the beginning of this research, due to the broken English and weak teaching experience, the teacher-researcher did not have enough confidence in implementing the corrective feedback. During the first focus group interview with the Year 7 students, when asked them if they could provide some constructive suggestions to the teacher-researcher, they gave the following answers:

Student (Lily): When you give feedback, just become more confident, you know what you are talking about, you know what it is. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Student (Chloe): Confidence part. If you really want to teach the class very well. Be more confident and practice a lot. Just remember you are the teacher. (Excerpt from the first focus group interview)

Thus, a lack of self-confidence is a significant obstacle for the teacher-researcher in teaching Chinese language and providing feedback. The teacher-researcher subconsciously considers herself a novice teacher in the Chinese class, so every time she encountered a minor problem in teaching Chinese, she unconsciously sought help from the mentor teacher:

Today was the most embarrassing day in 7D. During the class, many students did not concentrate and the whole class was kind of noisy. The class was about to go into the listening comprehension part, but there were still some students talking and laughing. So the teacher-researcher had to stop and wait for the

class to be quiet. The teacher-researcher looked at them helplessly, but obviously, it didn't work at all, so she had to turn her gaze to the mentor teacher for help. The class became quiet suddenly after the mentor teacher expertly warned them proficiently. Then the mentor teacher asked the teacher-researcher to repeat what she just said to the students so that the teacher-researcher could exercise herself to deal with similar incidents in the future. However, the teacher-researcher did not hear what the mentor teacher said all carefully and clearly. She just vaguely remembered that the mentor teacher said 'Please concentrate!'. At this time, all the students looked at the teacher-researcher and waited for her to speak something. The teacher-researcher was so nervous that she just smiled awkwardly after saying 'Please concentrate!' unconfidently. Then the whole class burst into laughter. The teacher-researcher blushed, feeling extremely embarrassed and frustrated.

(Reflection for 7D, Week 3, Cycle 2, 2019, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal).

This excerpt shows that the establishment of the teacher-researcher's self-confidence is very important in teaching, which is also a key factor affecting effective teaching and teacher-student rapport. The teacher-researcher's strong self-confidence enabled students to believe what she said and accept the oral corrective feedback she provided. The mentor teacher also pointed out the importance of a teacher's self-confidence in teaching:

Confidence affects the way in which helps the students take on board your feedback. If you see confident, then students maybe more confident in saying 'I believe what you are telling me'. (Week 4, Cycle 1, interview with the mentor teacher)

It could be seen that self-confidence affects students' attitudes towards Chinese learning and the corrective feedback the teacher-researcher provided. Therefore, before each Chinese class, the teacher-researcher practised a lot and got many useful instructions from the mentor teacher. As the teaching strategies and her English ability developed, the teacher-researcher gradually became more confident. As novice teachers slowly come to treat themselves as formal teachers, they start to perform more confidently in the classroom, and their teaching contains a greater sense of control (Kanno & Stuart, 2011).

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter comprehensively analysed and demonstrated the qualitative findings of student engagement with oral corrective feedback based on the student survey questionnaire comments, focus group interviews, self-reflective journals, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations.

Three main themes emerged from the findings: oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes, the teacher-researcher's teaching practice, and the teacher-researcher's professional development. The first theme—oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classes—aimed to explore the main research question: *What types of oral corrective*

feedback will foster students' engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom?

In this research, there were seven types of oral corrective feedback employed: recast, metalinguistic clues, explicit correction, repetition, clarification request, elicitation and the combination of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback. Students' different responses towards each oral corrective feedback type and the actual frequency of the teacher-researcher providing each oral corrective feedback type in different level classes were considered.

The second theme—the teacher-researcher's teaching practice—aimed to provide data for the first contributory research question: *How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?* Regarding a positive impact on student engagement with oral corrective feedback, for example, while providing the oral corrective feedback, the teacher-researcher applied the compliment sandwich feedback to encourage students, used her body language to hint at students, established the link between students' prior knowledge and Chinese, and developed a more harmonious teacher–student rapport.

The third theme—the teacher-researcher's professional development—related to the second contributory research question: *How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student engagement with oral corrective feedback?* In the process of research exploration, the teacher-researcher's professional development also improved, including her English language proficiency development, confidence building and awareness of using effective teaching techniques.

Together, these findings provide the data to address the research questions. The next chapter fully elaborates the findings and their implications.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Conclusion

6.1 Overview of the Research

This research aims to explore the types of oral corrective feedback that could foster student engagement in the L2 classroom in the Australian context, thereby helping bilingual teachers improve their teaching ability. An action research was carried out to discover the types of oral corrective feedback that foster student engagement, and the five chapters of this thesis are summarised as follows.

In the first chapter of this thesis, the teacher-researcher discussed two research gaps. The first research gap highlights that although a number of studies have examined the impact of student engagement with written corrective feedback in L2 acquisition studies, student engagement with oral corrective feedback has been under-conceptualised and under-explored, and the term ‘student engagement’ is often used without being clearly defined (Han & Hyland, 2015). The second research gap illustrates a substantial number of studies investigating the effect of student engagement with corrective feedback for higher education, but only a few studies focus on primary and high schools. Therefore, the possible significance of this research is to develop a deeper understanding of young students’ engagement with oral corrective feedback based on three dimensions of student engagement in L2 classrooms to help younger students build their Chinese language proficiency.

In Chapter 2, a literature review was conducted to focus on the six types of oral corrective feedback based on the classification of Lyster and Ranta (1997), the categories of student engagement with oral corrective feedback based on three dimensions, and the characteristics of young L2 students in NSW public schools. Based on the extensive literature review, the main research question emerged: *What types of oral corrective feedback will foster students' engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom?* Two contributory research questions were also crafted to support the main research questions: (1) *How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?* (2) *How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to students' engagement with oral corrective feedback?*

Chapter 3 of this thesis mainly discussed the action research that was carried out in a NSW public school. This action research relied mainly on a qualitative research method, substantiated with some descriptive analysis. To answer the research questions, data was collected through semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher, focus group interviews with student participants, and a questionnaire was administered to the young students. Self-reflective journals from the teacher-researcher were also used as a data source, and classroom observations were carried out by the mentor teacher. Thematic analysis and descriptive analysis were then applied in this research to examine student engagement with oral corrective feedback.

While Chapters 4 and 5 presented the findings of this research, the current chapter focuses on the discussion of the findings and conclusion for the thesis. The implications for the research field, pedagogy and bilingual teacher, and the limitations of this research are also presented in this chapter.

6.2 Discussion of Findings

This research mainly investigated young students' engagement with oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classroom and the teacher-researcher's personal continuous teaching development. The following sections present a discussion of the findings.

6.2.1 Types of oral corrective feedback that could foster students' engagement in Chinese in the 2L classroom

In this study, descriptive analysis from the student questionnaires and qualitative data from the focus group interviews, teacher-researcher's self-reflective journal, semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher and observation field notes were considered in Chapters 4 and 5 to address the research question, *what types of oral corrective feedback will foster students' engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom?*

Compared with English, Chinese is a tone language. In this study, due to its tonal characteristics, the young beginning Year 7 students consistently made errors in intonation and pronunciation, which means phonetic errors occurred more often than grammatical or lexical errors in the Chinese classes. Thus, the oral corrective feedback

provided by the teacher-researcher was generally based on students' tone and pronunciation errors.

Initially, the corrective feedback coding system of Lyster and Ranta's (1997) involved six types of feedback to identify the types of the teacher-researcher's corrective feedback and student engagement. However, this research also proposed another corrective feedback type used by the teacher-researcher: the combined feedback. Altogether, it identified seven types of feedback in the Chinese classroom: recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, explicit correction, repetition and the combined feedback.

The results first suggested that the overall oral corrective feedback could foster student engagement but each type of corrective feedback influences student engagement differently. Li's (2010) meta-analysis of corrective feedback based on the SLA literature indicates that overall feedback was effective, ranging from medium to large in effect, and this effect was maintained over time. Therefore, after realising the importance of different types of oral corrective feedback and other factors, the next step is to further discuss how each corrective feedback strategy engages students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively, and how the teacher-researcher refines her pedagogy in the Chinese classroom, which links to the two contributory research questions.

6.2.1.1 Contributory Research Question 1: How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?

In this study, descriptive analysis from the student questionnaires and qualitative data from the self-reflective journals, focus group interviews and observations were analysed to address the first contributory research question.

In this research, the teacher-researcher used different types of oral corrective feedback in her teaching and examined student engagement with each instance of oral corrective feedback in authentic classroom interactions based on three dimensions of engagement: cognitive, behavioural and affective perspectives.

Explicit correction

Among these seven types of oral corrective feedback, explicit correction feedback was the most controversial form of feedback. The extent of explicit feedback required may depend on certain factors, such as learners' language proficiency levels (see Kim, 2004; Philp, 2003; VanPatten, 1990). This was why advanced level students preferred this kind of feedback. It could identify the precise location and nature of the error, so they could easily and clearly understand what errors they made, how to correct them, and get the best and most accurate answer from the teacher-researcher instantly (Carroll & Swain, 1993; Lee, 2013).

With regard to student cognitive engagement, explicit correction feedback might have contributed to students' perception of this type of feedback as a comment on the

linguistic code, making a comparison between the target and the non-target forms and facilitating the actual comparison of language forms (Yilmaz, 2012). Emotionally, advanced level students tended to view explicit corrective feedback as important and necessary. The result of two focus group interviews indicated that they showed a strong preference for explicit corrective feedback and welcomed the teacher-researcher correcting their errors. Therefore, in this research, explicit correction feedback could engage advanced level students cognitively and affectively to learn Chinese as L2.

From the case studies reported by Ferris et al. (2013), students' internal characteristics (attitude, confidence) appeared to influence their ability to benefit from feedback and instruction. During the first cycle of research, it was observed that students from class 7A who were beginner level students, were afraid of revealing their poor oral language skills in front of their classmates and worried about making mistakes. They did not seem to prefer the explicit type of corrective feedback, as such feedback made them uncomfortable given their mistakes were pointed out directly. Discouraging feedback that threatens self-esteem has been shown to decrease student learning and achievement (Shute, 2008). If students with beginner level proficiency did not fully understand the intention of the teacher-researcher's explicit corrective feedback, they would feel extremely frustrated and embarrassed. However, in Cycle 2 of this research, explicit corrective feedback became relatively more acceptable to the beginner level students because the teacher-researcher used different ways to express 'no'. She put oral encouragement into the corrective feedback by using the compliment sandwich feedback to build up their confidence (Dohrenwend, 2002; Henley & DiGennaro Reed,

2015; Parkes et al., 2013; Prochazka et al., 2020; Robson, 2014), feedback on what students need to improve, and end with positive comments. The sandwich feedback technique begins and ends with specific compliments to build students' trust and assurance (Dohrenwend 2002), increases students' receptivity to negative comments (Hesketh & Laidlaw 2002) and promotes motivation and engagement (Bienstock et al. 2007). Thus, the effort required to produce sandwich feedback has implications for teaching how to give feedback (Parkes et al., 2012).

From the first cycle of research, the teacher-researcher noticed the importance of making adjustments to the way she used explicit corrective feedback with the beginner level students. When explicit corrective feedback was used with the direct response of saying 'no', such feedback might create a negative impact on the beginner level students' affective engagement. However, if the teacher-researcher tries to embed encouragement and modify her way of expressing 'no' to beginner level students, the feedback would be effective and appreciated by students. This result is consistent with the experimental tests from Prochazka et al. (2020), who reported that students perform better on the next task when they receive sandwich feedback than when they do not.

Metalinguistic feedback

Previous studies showed that regarding phonological errors, metalinguistic feedback was one of the students' most preferred types of oral corrective feedback (Katayama, 2006, 2007; Papangkorn, 2015). This research also found that metalinguistic feedback was all students' most preferred type of corrective feedback. Metalinguistic feedback

emphasises giving clear and explicit explanations to the student's answer that can provide detailed information on why the answer should be used in this way (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015).

Due to the characteristics of the Chinese language, young students made pronunciation and tonal errors most often in this research. Thus, the teacher-researcher tended to provide an extended explanation of the rules of tones and pronunciation. Data from the focus group interviews and self-reflective journals indicated that young students preferred this type of corrective feedback as they knew why and how to correct their errors. For the beginner level students, they had limited knowledge of the Chinese language and lacked confidence in learning Chinese. From a pedagogical perspective, most students preferred being provided with an opportunity to reflect on their errors and the correct Chinese tones before receiving the correct answer from the teacher-researcher (Yoshida, 2008). Because of its explicitness, metalinguistic feedback is more likely to attract students' attention (Sheen & Ellis, 2011) and allow them opportunities to self-adjust their errors (Swain, 2005). As a result, this kind of relatively explicit feedback from the teacher-researcher encouraged students to self-correct errors while also avoiding causing emotional stress. Therefore, regardless of their language proficiency levels, metalinguistic feedback had a positive influence on student engagement.

Combined feedback

Most researchers that widely discussed the use of oral corrective feedback in SLA were based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) original taxonomy (Lee, 2013; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004; Yoshida, 2008). Further, the majority of studies were focused on English and other European languages, while Chinese as an L2 class has received little attention for decades in classrooms for children and adults (Li & Huang, 2017b; Fu & Nassaji, 2016). In Chinese language beginning level classes, phonological errors were more common than lexical or grammatical errors (Lu & Gao, 2015). Therefore, in this research, more effort was put into phonological error correction. It was also found that recasts, metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction were generally preferred by the teacher-researcher and young students on nearly all types of errors. These findings parallel Yang's (2016) study, which investigated Chinese language learners' preference for corrective feedback types and how they related to their proficiency level and error types.

As a result, in addition to recast feedback, a combination of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback emerged from Chinese language learning based on six identified categories of oral corrective feedback by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and the preferences of the teacher-researcher and young students. It also became the preferred type of corrective feedback among high-level students. In the process of the research, the teacher-researcher discovered and employed this kind of feedback based on students' responses in the Chinese classroom. Meanwhile, the advanced level students explicitly proposed this combination in the first focus group interview. They expected

the teacher-researcher to correct them explicitly because direct correction is a clear and unambiguous way to help students notice their errors (Carrion, 2016). Through this combination of corrective feedback, most advanced level students could pay attention to the errors and quickly follow the teacher-researcher's instruction. Based on the self-reflective journals and observation in class, students' concentrated expressions and imitative gestures indicated that they were highly focused on this new type of feedback. This combination not only helped to point out students' errors directly, it showed what errors they made, where they went wrong and how to correct them, so high-level students could fully understand the teacher-researcher's feedback and quickly self-correct their errors.

Therefore, for advanced level students, the combination of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback could engage them in Chinese L2 classrooms.

Recast

Recast feedback was the second most preferred corrective feedback for advanced level students and the third most preferred for beginner level students. Recast was also the most common type of oral corrective feedback used by the teacher-researcher in this study, which is consistent with the results obtained by Lyster and Ranta (1997), Ellis et al. (2001a) and Zyzik and Poliomyelitis (2008). For instance, when the student said the wrong tone of tea 'chà', the teacher-researcher would provide them with the correct tone of tea 'chá.', so this recast feedback was easy and clear for the teacher-researcher to employ in this research. Recast feedback is more useful for correcting phonological

errors than grammatical or lexical errors (Yang, 2016). In this research, the teacher-researcher was more likely to correct students' phonological errors in the Chinese classroom, so this type of corrective feedback was a suitable strategy to apply.

This type of feedback provides young students with the right answer form to make the immediate cognitive comparison between their own utterance and the teacher-researcher's words (Doughty & Varela, 1998). As beginner level students may lack the language knowledge and self-confidence to self-correct, compared with explicit correction, recast corrective feedback tended to be more implicit than explicit but could provide them with clear and direct answers.

However, due to the ambiguity of recast feedback, the recasts tend to be ignored by young students (Lyster, 1998; Sheen, 2007). Students respond to the recast feedback with less attention and do not consider it important (Eills, 2009), so recast feedback is less salient than explicit correction. Nevertheless, if the recast feedback only focuses on one word, this type of corrective feedback appears to be more salient than others (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In this research, to ensure the students pay attention to the recast feedback, the teacher-researcher provided this feedback on a particular word or a phrase to correct students' errors, so the recast type of feedback was observed to be an effective in Chinese L2 classrooms. Based on self-reflective journals and classroom observation, the teacher-researcher's recast feedback could help students identify and correct their errors more quickly. Moreover, recast feedback on one word or phrase makes it easier for students to build up their learning confidence and promote positivity. Therefore, in

the Chinese classroom, recast feedback could engage young students cognitively, particular when only correcting a single word or phrase.

Repetition and paralinguistic signals

Based on the focus group interviews, repetition feedback was the third most preferred corrective feedback for advanced students and the second favourite feedback for young low-level students. In the Chinese class, the teacher-researcher implemented repetition feedback by repeating the students' erroneous utterance with a rising intonation to highlight the errors (Fu & Nassaji, 2016). However, in the beginning, young students could not distinguish whether the teacher-researcher aimed to give them repetition feedback or help them correct their pronunciation because the rising intonation the teacher-researcher provided was like the second tone in Mandarin. For example, during the Chinese class, one student said 'wǒ xǐ huān hē chà' (I like drinking tea). In this sentence, the tone of tea was incorrect so the teacher-researcher only picked up 'tea' and use a rising intonation to ask the student 'chà? Are you sure?'

As a result, they did not understand the purpose of repetition feedback and did not know how to respond to this feedback. It means that at the beginning, students were not so accurate in perceiving repetition feedback. To avoid ambiguity and highlight young students' errors, each time the teacher-researcher employed repetition feedback, she tried to use an exaggerated tone, hand gestures and facial expressions to remind them she was using repetition feedback to correct them. In this case, the teacher-researcher's

repetition feedback on the contextual error was sufficient for students to correct their own errors (Li & Huang, 2017).

Every time the teacher-researcher used repetition, she would spread out her hands and repeat the students' errors with a confused expression to hint to the young students that this was repetition feedback. The young students could immediately concentrate on the repeated words and realised how to correct the errors. Therefore, after two cycles of action research, repetition feedback had a more positive impact on student engagement, mainly from cognitive and affective perspectives.

In addition to repetition feedback, these body signs could also be applied in other types of corrective feedback to promote young students' comprehension, help them self-correct their errors and remember the words. This could be called the eighth nonverbal, new type, 'paralinguistic signals'—an attempt to nonverbally elicit the correct form from the students by gestures or facial expressions (Lyster et al., 2012; Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

The teacher-researcher's explicit paralinguistic signals may have drawn learners' attention to their errors, which led to successful pedagogical intervention that did not impede the flow of communication in the meaning-oriented classroom (Lightbown & Spada, 1990). Doughty (2001) also pointed out that 'the learner needs some guidance as to what the something is when recognizing that the teacher is seeking something' (p. 255). In this research, analysis of the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journals

and mentor teacher's suggestions in the semi-structured interviews showed that paralinguistic signals captured students' attention and made them imitate the teacher-researcher's actions. This helped young students to quickly remember the Chinese tones and further helped them build a connection with their visual images and auditory senses. This finding aligns with the study from Kırkgöz et al. (2015) in primary school classrooms in Turkey, where paralinguistic signals were strongly recommended for correcting students' errors regardless of their language proficiency levels to save time in L2 classrooms and more likely lead to an uptake in case of errors. The previous survey results also indicated that the kinetic and paralinguistic signals of communication need to be taken seriously to get more attention (Kellerman, 1992; Wells, 2000). Thus, when the corrective feedback types were employed, paralinguistic signals could be combined to promote student engagement and autonomy in grasping the exact pronunciation. Consequently, paralinguistic signals in this research resulted in higher pronunciation accuracy gains (Saeli et al., 2021) and positively affected student engagement with oral corrective feedback.

Clarification requests and elicitation

In this research, the types of oral corrective feedback the teacher-researcher implemented least in the Chinese classroom were the clarification requests and elicitation; advanced level and beginner level students paid little attention to these two types of corrective feedback. Clarification requests and elicitation both constitute implicit corrective feedback and do not provide the correct form immediately after students' errors (Kim, 2004).

Clarification requests were often employed when the teacher-researcher intended to give the student a second try or when she did not understand the meaning the student was trying to convey (Lyster & Mori, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). However, in Chinese L2 class, the corrections were more focused on phonological errors, so the chance of the teacher-researcher not understanding the students' meaning was slimmer. Thus, clarification requests were the least frequented corrective feedback type in this research.

Although the teacher-researcher often tried to encourage students to self-repair by asking them to clarify, such an approach was not effective. The main reason for young students' low preferences for clarification requests (like 'sorry?') was that they were not obvious corrections and generally vague, so the students did not notice the teacher-researchers' intention and purposes and did not know how to respond. The high-level students misunderstood this kind of feedback as a barrier to communication between them and the teacher-researcher due to her accent, while the beginner level students thought the request feedback indicated their low language proficiency level or the teacher-researcher's inattentive listening to their conversation (Lee, 2013). Thus, in the second cycle of research, the teacher-researcher provided more detailed and specific follow-up questions after the clarification requests to make this kind of oral corrective feedback more concrete and effective, like 'Sorry, I don't quite understand this word'. This approach helped students figure out what they should do and improved the communication between students and the teacher-researcher.

Meanwhile, for the elicitation feedback, the teacher-researcher normally used a strategic pause to create an opportunity for students to ‘fill in the blank’ (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and elicit their reactions. However, in this research, pauses sometimes made young students feel very nervous and stressed when their proficiency levels were low, which caused temporary embarrassment in the Chinese classroom. Thus, when the teacher-researcher used a strategic pause to enlighten young students but it made them taciturn, withdraw or frustrated, she had to quickly switch to another corrective feedback strategy.

Therefore, in this research, students were not so accurate in perceiving clarification requests and elicitation feedback. These two types of oral corrective feedback could engage students in the Chinese L2 classroom, but compared with the other four types of feedback, they were less effective in student engagement with oral corrective feedback.

6.2.1.2 Contributory Research Question 2: How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to students’ engagement with oral corrective feedback?

To address the second contributory research question, the following aspects explain how the teacher-researcher refined her pedagogy in response to students’ engagement with oral corrective feedback.

Young students' language proficiency level

Language proficiency could have a role in affecting students' perceptions and preferences for corrective feedback and students' attitudes towards corrective feedback, thereby influencing student engagement with oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom (Zheng & Yu, 2018).

The questionnaire results showed that in the first cycle, 7A, the beginner level class, had a low engagement with corrective feedback. However, 7A made huge progress in their student engagement with oral corrective feedback in the second cycle. Conversely, 7D, the high-level class, had a high engagement with oral corrective engagement in the first cycle, which increased slightly in the second cycle, although the increase was not as great as that observed for 7A students. However, based on the three dimensions, 7D students' overall student engagement with oral corrective feedback still was higher than that of 7A students. This suggests that high-level students were more engaged in the L2 classroom than beginner level students. Thus, students' different language level may affect their degree of engagement in the Chinese classroom.

Regardless of their language proficiency, students may engage with the feedback to some extent, but the success of such engagement depends largely on their language proficiency level; thus, it is valuable to investigate students with different language proficiency levels (Zheng & Yu, 2018).

The focus group interview result revealed that 7A and 7D students with different language levels tended to differ in their preferences for and perceptions of the different types of oral corrective feedback strategies. Among these seven types of oral corrective feedback, beginner level students generally preferred the metalinguistic feedback, repetition and recast, which were generally vague, while high-level students favoured the combination of explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback, followed by recast and repetition. Thus, it was found that young students generally preferred metalinguistic feedback, recast and repetition feedback. High-level students tended to prefer more explicit correction, whereas beginner level students tended to more favour relatively implicit and vague correction.

Some studies have shown that students' proficiency level (Kaivanpanah et al., 2015; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Philip, 2003) and their first language cultural background (Yang, 2016) play a significant role in influencing their preferences for oral corrective feedback.

Indeed, in the context of second language Chinese learning, the impact of the learning environment or sociocultural learning context and the people with whom language learners are interacting is crucial (Li, 2022). Research has shown that matching learners' cultural learning styles with their teachers' teaching styles is essential for achieving effective language learning outcomes. However, achieving such a match is not a straightforward process, as it involves considering various factors, including the student's first language cultural background. As such, a comprehensive and thorough

needs analysis must be conducted before making decisions on matching cultural learning styles and teaching styles (Li & Gao, 2018; Li et al., 2020).

In this research, Class 7A consisted of 25 students, while Class 7D consisted of 27 students, and most of them had very little or no Chinese learning background. The average age of the students was 12 years old. All the student participants were native speakers of English, coming from local Australian English-speaking homes with parents whose socio-economic status was considered average. The study revealed that Class 7D, despite having no prior Chinese learning background, was more cooperative students and performed better than Class 7A. Therefore, the different language proficiency levels of these two classes were a plausible reason for their different preferences and perceptions towards types of oral corrective feedback. This finding suggests it is necessary for the teacher-researcher to consider students' language proficiency levels when examining their preferred types of oral corrective feedback (Yang, 2016). To create a welcoming and culturally inclusive learning environment, educators must first assess the needs of students from various cultural backgrounds (Li, 2022).

Moreover, based on the audio recordings of the self-reflective journals, recast feedback was the most frequently utilised type of oral corrective feedback employed by the teacher-researcher when the students made errors in the Chinese classroom. In other words, the types of oral corrective feedback the Year 7 students favoured were not necessarily the types the teacher-researcher tended to use in actual Chinese classrooms.

Mismatches of oral corrective feedback between what the teacher-researcher provides and students' preference can lead to negative effects on language instruction (Brown, 2009; Kartchava & Ammar, 2014; Lyster et al., 2013; Yoshida, 2010). Thus, it is important for the teacher-researcher to learn to listen to students' voices, particularly their preferences for and perceptions of oral corrective feedback types on errors (Yang, 2016).

Meanwhile, the focus group interviews indicated that different language proficiency level students hold different attitudes towards oral corrective feedback and errors. Given that oral corrective feedback could be provided explicitly, implicitly or together, it is interesting to find out whether different language level students have different attitudes and perceptions on types of corrective feedback and error correction. Moreover, the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback types on L2 learning is closely related to how students perceive the oral corrective feedback due to its explicitness of error correction and their response to the learning after oral corrective feedback (Yang, 2016).

The result of the focus group interviews revealed that high-level students showed a strong desire for corrective feedback and welcomed it to correct their errors. Conversely, beginner level students felt uncomfortable or embarrassed when their errors were pointed out directly, and expressed their anxiety and frustration when the teacher-researcher used oral corrective feedback to prompt their errors. This was especially the case with direct and explicit corrective feedback because beginner level

students sometimes did not fully understand the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback or how to respond. Although it was not the intention of this study to explore students' attitudes, it was found that their attitude towards receiving explicit corrective feedback was a factor determining whether students were receptive to engaging in the L2 classroom.

Learners' attitudes towards language learning are frequently recognised as potentially influential in successful L2 learning and considered a key factor that motivates students to learn the language (Zeinivand et al., 2015). Moreover, corrective feedback can help or hinder the process and development of language learning based on the student's attitude towards error correction and the type of corrective feedback (Faqeih, 2015). If students are aware of the purpose and types of oral corrective feedback, their anxiety does not negatively affect their attitudes towards oral corrective feedback (Zhang & Rahimi, 2014). Therefore, students' attitudes play an important role in student engagement with corrective feedback.

Havranek and Cesnik (2001) conducted a comprehensive developmental study that aimed to examine the relationship between student characteristics such as language proficiency level, attitude towards correction and the success of corrective feedback. The study reported that corrective feedback may be beneficial to students who have positive attitudes towards error correction and high language proficiency. Accordingly, there is a significant relationship between students' attitudes and language proficiency levels. In this research, students' attitudes have a positive effect on their language

proficiency levels. Thus, when delivering the oral corrective feedback, although student preferences may not actually be the best choice for acquisition, the teacher-researcher should be sensitive to students' attitudes towards language, especially their attitudes towards error correction (Truscott, 1999) and different types of corrective feedback.

Although the extent to which students engage with corrective feedback may be affected by many factors, language proficiency may play a role in mediating engagement and influencing its outcome (Zheng & Yu, 2018). The focus group interview results in the current study indicated that different language proficiency levels might affect students' perceptions and preferences for corrective feedback and their attitudes towards corrective feedback and errors, thereby affecting student engagement with corrective feedback.

Research by Saeli et al. (2021) found that teachers need to raise their awareness of their students' perceptions of oral corrective feedback. A thorough understanding of how students perceive oral corrective feedback can improve its effectiveness. Therefore, the teacher-researcher should consider students' different language proficiency levels when implementing different types of oral corrective feedback in Chinese L2 classrooms, and try to use individualised and appropriate corrective feedback techniques for different students.

Contextualisation

Another finding from the focus group interviews was that contextualisation of learning enables students to be more engaged in learning Chinese. Individual learner factors interact with contextual factors to mediate the oral corrective feedback received by students and their engagement with oral corrective feedback, thereby influencing the learning outcomes (Ellis, 2010). Therefore, except for the differences in student language proficiency among individual learners, contextual factors also influence student engagement with oral corrective feedback.

Students for whom the activities had been contextualised showed substantially greater gains in motivation, engagement and learning (Cordova & Lepper, 1996). In this research, the teacher-researcher designed and implemented various activities in the Chinese classroom aimed at fostering young students' interest in Chinese L2 and familiarising them with its pronunciation, tones and characters. To achieve these objectives, these activities strived to involve young students in Chinese language learning and connected playful and interesting contexts with accessible new learning content, such as charades, pictorial, and acting as customers ordering a Chinese restaurant.

During the focus group interviews, most of young students pointed out that the fun activities were useful for familiarisation with and motivation to learn Chinese language. They especially enjoyed the food unit in the second cycle, in which the key activity was role-play. This activity simulated the real scene of ordering food at a Chinese restaurant to help young students learn how to order food at a restaurant. Some young students

acted as customers to order their food in Chinese, while others acted as waiters to serve them. In this activity, young students had to use several Chinese sentences, like “你要几位?” (How many seats do you want?), “我想吃酸辣土豆丝。” (I want to eat spicy sour potato fries.) It allowed students to learn how Chinese people order food in a Chinese restaurant. The vast majority of students agreed that they would be more willing to speak Chinese and felt more engaged with Chinese learning through such activities. This is consistent with Cordova and Lepper’s (1996) findings that students displayed greater engagement, motivation and learning when the abstract learning activities were embedded in meaningful and appealing fantasy contexts.

The result showed that when using fun activities that the students find relevant during the teaching process, the oral corrective feedback no longer made young students feel negative about the teacher-researcher’s feedback, but rather to communicate with them easily and help them feel relaxed, like a normal chat. For example, young students had a shopping excursion at a Chinese supermarket, and they had to speak Chinese to buy what they wanted. During this activity, young students wanted to buy a variety of Chinese snacks, yet they made a lot of mistakes when they spoke the Chinese language. At this time, they were very glad the teacher-researcher could give them corrective feedback to help them. The teacher stood next to them and softly corrected how they should pay the cashier in Chinese. It was found that young students were very eager for the teacher-researcher to give them corrective feedback because they were very curious about these novel Chinese snacks. Thus, when the teacher-researcher gave corrective

feedback to one young student, the other young students were also listening carefully so they could check out more smoothly.

It was found that contextualisation of learning could facilitate such communication between teachers and students, improve young students' abilities to apply what they learned in their daily lives, strengthen the teacher–student rapport and foster student engagement with oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classrooms.

Teacher–student rapport

Some studies have suggested that early classroom engagement and the quality of the teacher–student rapport have important simultaneous and potential contributions to students' achievement (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Ladd & Dinella, 2009). A warm and friendly teacher – student rapport fosters students' engagement, while a highly conflicting teacher – student rapport lessens students' engagement in classroom tasks (Birch & Ladd, 1997).

Although at the beginning of the research, the teacher-researcher and young students encountered some setbacks and embarrassment in the Chinese classroom, after several weeks of teaching, the teacher – student rapport became more and more harmonious. As the teacher-researcher gradually overcame her language barriers and adapted to the teaching model in Australian public schools, she further understood the different needs of young students and diagnosed their different language proficiency levels. Consequently, she was able to promote young students' engagement in the Chinese

classroom through customised and personalised oral corrective feedback (Barrot, 2021).

When the learning contexts were personalised for students, the educational benefits were further heightened. Students for whom the learning context had been personalised, by incorporating incidental individualised information about their interests and background, showed greater gains in motivation, engagement and learning than their peers for whom the context had not been personalised (Cordova & Lepper, 1996). Therefore, in this research, the teacher-researcher attempted to provide each student with more personalised oral corrective feedback to establish a stronger rapport with them in the Chinese language classroom, allowing for better engagement with the oral corrective feedback given by the teacher-researcher.

This section has outlined the following obtained results to support the main research question. 1) The Chinese beginners made pronunciation and vocabulary mistakes most often. 2) The teacher provided corrective feedback to the students' mistakes in vocabulary, grammar and contextual understanding while ignoring half of the phonological mistakes. 3) Measured by the student's self-repair, explicit correction turned out to be the most effective corrective feedback type, while recasts, elicitations and linguistic clues were the least effective of the six strategies the teacher used. Teacher repetition seems very effective, while clarification requests were the least effective; however, given their infrequent use (i.e., only once), conclusions about their effectiveness in this study cannot be drawn. 4) Following the teacher's corrective

feedback, students could self-repair their mistakes more effectively when they related to contextual comprehension, which was not the case with grammar and vocabulary errors.

6.2.2 Summary of contributory research questions

To support the main research question—*What types of oral corrective feedback will foster students' engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom?*—the following results were obtained from the discussion of contributory research questions 1 and 2 in this research. 1) Oral corrective feedback, in general, may foster student engagement, but different types of corrective feedback have varying effects on student engagement. 2) The oral corrective feedback was mostly focused on students' tone and pronunciation errors. 3) The most controversial form of feedback was explicit correction feedback, the extent of which was determined by factors such as learners' language proficiency levels. Compliment sandwich feedback improves the quality of explicit correction feedback. 4) Recast, repetition and metalinguistic feedback were the students' most preferred oral corrective feedback, whereas they paid little attention to clarification requests and elicitation in the Chinese classrooms. 5) Recast was the most common type of corrective feedback employed by the teacher-researcher, while clarification requests and elicitation were the least implemented types. 6) Body language could give young students a signal that this was repetition feedback. 7) A combination of explicit correction with metalinguistic feedback could engage young students in Chinese L2 classrooms, especially high-level students. 8) Paralinguistic signals as a nonverbal new type could improve pronunciation accuracy gains and

positively affected student engagement with corrective feedback. 9) Students with different language proficiency levels may have various preferences and perceptions towards types of oral corrective feedback, thereby affecting young student engagement with corrective feedback. As a result, the teacher-researcher should take into account students' language proficiency levels when providing personalised corrective feedback strategies to different students. 10) Contextualised learning and good teacher–student rapports enable young students to be more engaged with oral corrective feedback in learning Chinese.

Therefore, the research has important implications and recommendations relating to young students' engagement with oral corrective feedback, the teacher-researcher's continuous development, and Chinese L2 teaching in an Australian educational system, which are discussed further in the sections below.

6.3 Implications and Recommendations

The main implications of this research are discussed in this section. This study contributes to the development of student engagement with oral corrective feedback in L2 teaching and exploration of the teacher-researcher's continuous development. The findings of this research have implications for the study of student engagement with oral corrective feedback, pedagogy and bilingualism. These implications could be beneficial to subsequent research and future teaching practices.

6.3.1 Research implications

This research explores student engagement with oral corrective feedback in Chinese L2 classrooms based on the two cycles of action research. The findings showed that young students generally made progress on engagement with oral corrective feedback.

First, the use of action research is critical in this context as it helps the teacher-researcher gain experience and knowledge in practice in order to discover the types of oral corrective feedback that foster student engagement. The goal of action research for the teacher-researcher is to constantly seek evidence to improve her teaching and promote her professional development by understanding students, solving problems or developing new skills in a study (Efron & Ravid, 2013). Action research was used to explore student engagement with each type of corrective feedback based on two cycles.

Second, descriptive analysis and qualitative analysis were useful in school situations and events that occur in the natural circumstances of the school (Efron & Ravid, 2020), which allowed a deeper understanding of the students' engagement with oral corrective feedback. This implies that it was useful to investigate young students' engagement with oral corrective feedback and students' responses to oral corrective feedback based on the following main research methods: semi-structured interviews with the mentor teacher, focus group interviews with students, classroom observation, self-reflective journals and the student survey questionnaires for each class.

Third, some findings indicated that context plays a tremendous mediating role in the effect of corrective feedback. Notably, the focus of previous research has been more on English teaching settings, with fewer studies examining feedback in other language classrooms for decades, both for children and adults (Li & Huang, 2017b; Fu & Nassaji, 2016). Therefore, compared to English and other European languages, the focus of this research was to investigate young students' engagement with oral corrective feedback in Chinese L2 learning contexts.

6.3.2 Pedagogical implications

The action research method and qualitative research method were employed, and the main data in this research were collected from the survey questionnaires, focus group interviews, semi-structured interviews and the teacher-researcher's self-reflective journals. During the analysis process, the teacher-researcher located and merged the data according to findings and the discussion of these research questions into relevant literature and identified three pedagogical implications that run through the whole thesis.

1) Oral corrective feedback based on proficiency level. The research findings discovered that young students with comparatively different language proficiency levels responded to and perceived differently oral corrective feedback, thereby altering young students' engagement with various oral corrective feedback types. Therefore, it is necessary for the teacher-researcher to consider students' different language

proficiency levels to implement individualised corrective feedback strategies in Chinese L2 classrooms.

2) *L2 teacher's continuous development.* This research also investigated young students' preferences and perceptions towards oral corrective feedback and the frequency with which the teacher-researcher implemented oral corrective feedback in Chinese L2 classrooms. The findings revealed a disconnection between young students' corrective feedback preferences and perceptions and what the teacher-researcher provided in the actual Chinese classroom, implying the teacher-researcher's approaches to providing corrective feedback may not always align with the needs of young students. Thus, the teacher-researcher needed to shape the oral corrective feedback and deliver it to the young students who really needed it.

3) *Contextualisation.* Oral corrective feedback type, individual difference factors and contextual variables together influence how students engage with the oral corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010).

6.3.2.1 Oral corrective feedback based on language proficiency levels

The first factor related to the main research question is student language proficiency levels: *What types of oral corrective feedback will foster students' engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom?*

Individual learner factors include age, language aptitude, memory, learning style, personality, motivation, language anxiety and learner beliefs (Ellis, 2010). In this

research, the biggest difference in learner factors was varying language proficiency levels. Meanwhile, different types of oral corrective feedback may affect student engagement to varying degrees in the Chinese L2 classroom. This research found that language proficiency level affected student engagement when the teacher-researcher implemented the different types of oral corrective feedback. Thus, it is necessary to consider students' language proficiency levels when examining their preferred oral corrective feedback types on their errors. There is also a need to apply different types of oral corrective feedback related to students' language proficiency levels (Han & Jung, 2007; Panove & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki, 2005) .

Therefore, the teacher-researcher must base the corrective feedback provided on students' proficiency levels. At the same time, there is no single panacea for correcting all kinds of errors effectively. So, depending on the language proficiency of students and the particularities of the teaching contexts, the novice bilingual teachers should choose the methods their practices indicate as the most appropriate for their particular student group (Kang & Cheng, 2014).

6.3.2.2 L2 teacher continuous development

The second factor corresponding to the two sub-research questions is the L2 teacher's continuous development: *How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?* and *How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student's engagement with oral corrective feedback?*

This action research could be drawn upon as a reference for newcomers who are going to be Chinese L2 teachers in local Australian schools and Confucius Institutes, especially future ROSETE teachers. Due to the limited teaching experience in the research process, the teacher-researcher struggled with many dilemmas and encountered a variety of teaching problems.

Compared with experienced teachers, novice L2 teachers have a rigid cognition of oral corrective feedback because of their lack of flexibility in their cognition of corrective feedback and teaching experiences (Yoshida, 2010). At the beginning of the teaching assignment at Rose Happy High School, sometimes the teacher-researcher's expressions were unclear due to her accent, pronunciation and body language. Thus, in the initial stage, the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback often confused the young student participants during the Chinese class. For example, in the first term of the teacher-researcher's Chinese lessons, a mispronunciation of 'three' as 'sree' caused a bit of chaos as the students continued to laugh for quite some time during that lesson. However, with the continuous progress of the teaching task and research, the younger students could understand the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback with her English ability improved the most.

Because of the teacher-researcher's limited English ability and little teaching experience, the first cycle of action research was filled with nervousness and lack of confidence. Especially when a student directly pointed out her mistake and other students laughed for a while, the teacher-researcher would doubt herself and feel

particularly embarrassed and frustrated after class. Like students, the teacher-researcher also inevitably made mistakes. Thus, adjusting her mindset, being confident teaching Chinese, gaining the younger students' respect and building a good teacher–student rapport were huge challenges for the teacher-researcher.

During the research process, the teacher-researcher made attempts to learn how to become a professional teacher like her mentor teacher. As the research continued, oral encouragement strategies and classroom management strategies were proposed. The mentor teacher provided the teacher-researcher with a great number of pedagogical experiences and teaching strategies so she could successfully conduct Chinese lessons, making the Chinese language more learnable for Rose Happy High School students.

Thus, L2 teachers should understand the real nature of students' problem, or the oral corrective feedback will not be facilitative (Zhang & Rahimi, 2015). To enable novice L2 teachers to cope with tough problems and benefit from theoretical knowledge, teachers should not only fully consider the cultivation of their theoretical knowledge, but also use this reflectively in various teaching contexts when designing oral corrective feedback in the L2 classroom. Therefore, for these L2 teachers, based on the experience of the teacher-researcher, this research may play an active role in Chinese language teaching and provide them with new Chinese teaching ideas.

6.3.2.3 Contextualisation

The third pedagogical implication involved contextualisation. Contextualisation of learning enables students to be more engaged with oral corrective feedback in learning Chinese.

The explicitness of oral corrective feedback is not a constant variable, which can be easily affected by contextual factors and students' differences (Lyster et al., 2013; Sheen, 2004). During the Chinese L2 classrooms, the teacher-researcher designed and employed various fun activities for learning Chinese conversation practice in L2 classrooms, with the goal of fostering young students' interest in learning Chinese and familiarising them with its pronunciation, tones and characters. Further, the contextualisation of learning strategies clearly has a substantial impact on students' learning from these materials with a few minimal modifications to the teaching materials. So the teacher-researcher linked playful and interesting contexts with accessible new learning content, such as charades and picture games. Subsequently, the students showed high engagement (especially affective engagement) with the teacher-researcher's oral corrective feedback.

As a result, contextualisation of learning could promote teacher–student communication, strengthen teacher–student rapport, improve young students' skills to apply what they have learned in their daily lives, and foster student engagement with oral corrective feedback in the Chinese classrooms.

Overall, it could be an important focus for future oral corrective feedback research in exploring the effects on student engagement in Chinese as L2 teaching in relation to different students' language proficiency levels and contextualisation of learning. Meanwhile, most other L2 classes could also be taught more effectively by using these kinds of meaningful learning contexts in the future.

6.4 Limitations and Future Directions

Despite great care being taken in the design of this research, there were several limitations that should be overcome in future research. First, gender differences among students were not considered in this research, and the ratio of male to female students actually was not balanced. It was discovered that all of the Year 7 student participants in the advanced class were female. In research from Lietaert et al. (2015), boys show lower engagement and achievement at school than girls. Cooper (2014) also found the same results among 1,132 young students in Grades 9–12 in the US. Although gender differences among students were not considered in this study, gender imbalance in young student engagement may be a concern. To increase validity and objectivity in the future, gender imbalance, as one of the individual learner factors, should be considered to better explore student engagement with oral corrective feedback. There was also a small number of student participants in this research, so it was difficult to conduct meaningful statistical analysis. In the future, the teacher-researcher could recruit more student participants and use statistics to compare the differences between different classes, the correlation between gender differences and young students'

preferences for oral corrective feedback, and the correlation between young students' preferences and actual performances.

Second, the amount of time was insufficient for the young students to consolidate the teaching content. In Rose Happy High School, the Chinese L2 learning classes were held once a week. Time constraints kept the young students from having access to more language learning resources, and much of the teaching time in the Chinese classes was devoted to refocusing and reviewing previous lessons.

Third, the tight class schedules did not allow the mentor teacher to fully complete the observation checklists during the Chinese class, which made it difficult to wholly and accurately determine how students engaged with oral corrective feedback based on three dimensions. In this case, the teacher-researcher relied more on transcripts of audio recordings and her self-reflective journals. After each class, the teacher-researcher organised these data in words to address this problem.

6.5 Conclusion

Centred on two cycles of the teaching and learning cycle, this action research focused on answering the following three questions: *What types of oral corrective feedback will foster students' engagement in Chinese in the L2 classroom? How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?* and *How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student's engagement with oral corrective feedback?*

Originally, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) coding system for corrective feedback involved six types of feedback to identify the types of corrective feedback provided by the teacher-researcher. However, the current study also discovered that the teacher-researcher employed extra types of feedback. A total of seven types of corrective feedback were identified in the Chinese classroom: recast, metalinguistic feedback, explicit correction, repetition, clarification request, elicitation, and the new combination of explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback. Another type, 'paralinguistic signals' could be considered the eighth nonverbal new type of corrective feedback (Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

The results of this research showed that the most used corrective feedback was recast, while clarification requests and elicitation were the teacher-researcher's least used type. It was also found that there was a gap between the young L2 students' responses to oral corrective feedback and the actual corrective feedback provided by the teacher-researcher in the Chinese classroom. Through the qualitative research method, three key themes came to light: oral corrective feedback based on proficiency levels, the teacher-researcher's continuous development, and contextualisation.

Different students' proficiency levels could contribute to different student engagement with oral corrective feedback. Comparatively, more explicit feedback types led to better student engagement for the high-level students, while more implicit feedback could better engage the low-level students. Also, the teacher-researcher should develop her

English ability to help build a strong teacher–student rapport and consider different teaching techniques to engage students in the Chinese L2 classroom.

Student engagement with corrective feedback has long been a popular topic, but there is little literature on the knowledge building and transfer of student engagement with oral corrective feedback, especially in younger students and the Chinese L2 teaching context. Therefore, this research has filled the gap and provided relevant references in younger student engagement with oral corrective feedback and Chinese language teaching.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Research Timeline

| | July–Oct. 2018 | Dec.–Mar. 2019 | Mar.–April 2019 | Apr.–June 2019 | July–Sep. 2019 | Oct.–Dec. 2019 |
|---|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Determining the research questions | × | | | | | |
| Literature review | × | × | × | × | × | × |
| COC | × | × | | | | |
| Ethics application | | × | × | | | |
| Self-reflection journal | | | × | × | × | × |
| Interviews | | | | × | × | × |
| Questionnaire | | | | × | × | × |
| Observation | | | | × | × | × |
| Data analysis | | | | × | × | × |
| Thesis submission | | | | | | × |

This timeline may change with the particular circumstances when being undertaken.

Appendix 2: Budget

| Item | Amount |
|------------------------|---------------|
| Data collection | \$500 |
| Proof reading | \$2000 |
| Copy editing | \$500 |
| Total | \$3000 |

This budget may change with the particular circumstances when being undertaken.

Appendix 3: Student Focus Group Guide

- (1) Tell me about your general experience of learning Chinese language.
- (2) Teacher will give some feedback when your answer is wrong. In general, what do you think of these feedback?
- (3) Did you feel satisfied with these different types of corrective feedback you received?
(Did you want more or less?)
- (4) There are many types of corrective feedback, such as recast, repeat, so what types of corrective feedback do you prefer? Why?
- (5) How do you feel about these corrective feedback? (Was the feedback you received easy or difficult to understand?)
- (6) Do you think that feedback was beneficial to you to improve your Chinese?
- (7) If teacher intends to improve her corrective feedback, what advice would you give her?
- (8) Do you have any further comments, suggestions or reflections on my teaching?

Appendix 4: Student Engagement Checklist

Teacher _____ Observer _____

Duration _____ Number of students _____ Class _____

| Three dimensions | Students Behaviours | YES or NO (circle) | Summary comments |
|-------------------------------|--|--------------------|------------------|
| Cognitive Engagement | The student can realise the error after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student can give the right answer after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student can explain the error after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| behavioural Engagement | The student can ask new or relevant questions after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student can take notes automatically after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student will talk about relevant experience after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student repairs successfully after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student is very focused when teacher provide feedback. | YES NO | |
| Affective Engagement | The student is more excited after providing feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student says that he or she likes feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student feels positive after giving feedback. | YES NO | |
| | The student feel anxious after giving feedback. | YES NO | |

COMMENT

Developed by Anita L. Archer based on *Explicit Instruction: Effective and Efficient Teaching*

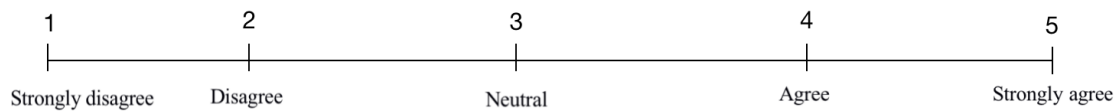
Appendix 5: Student Survey Questionnaire

Student Survey Questionnaire

Sex (circle one): Male Female

Native Language: _____

The purpose of this questionnaire is to help your teacher to improve her teaching and help you to correct more quickly after making errors. Here are a few statements, please circle the numbers and use the following numerical code to describe how much you agree with each statement. Your response will be anonymous, so please do not write your name anywhere on this form. Please answer each statement as honestly as possible and each statement can only be circled one number.



1 2 3 4 5

- | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I really like this class and I learned a lot because of the teacher's feedback. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I really like the teacher's feedback and teaching style. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I think it is a good thing to make errors. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I will feel not embarrassed when the teacher points out my error directly. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. After the teacher give me feedback, I become more engaged. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. The teacher's feedback is very helpful to me. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. I really want the teacher to give me more feedback. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I enjoy learning Chinese because of the teacher's feedback. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

COMNET FOR YOUR CHINESE TEACHER:

Appendix 6: The Process of Data Collection

| DATA COLLECTION METHODS | WHERE | WHEN | HOW LONG | HOW MANY TIMES | TARGET PARTICIPANTS |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|--|---|--|
| Semi-structured interviews | classroom or staff room | after class | 15 minutes | 20-30 times | the mentor teacher |
| Focus group | library | Chinese language revision lessons | 30-40 minutes for each group | 2 times (at the end of each cycle) | two groups from 7D and 7E |
| Questionnaire | classroom | a few minutes before class | 3-5 minutes | 2 times (at the end of each cycle) | students from 7D and 7E |
| Observation | classroom | During the class | 80 minutes for the whole lesson | 20 times | 4-6 students (across different levels of ability) in each class |
| Reflective journal | School or home | after class | 1-2 hours for each class | Depend on the situation | students from 7D and 7E and researcher herself |

Appendix 7: Interrelationship between contributory research questions, data collection method and data analysis

| Contributory Research Questions | Data Collection Method | Data collection participants | Data Analysis |
|--|-------------------------------|--|----------------------|
| <p>Contributory Research Question 1:</p> <p>How does each corrective feedback strategy engage the students behaviourally, cognitively and affectively?</p> | Focus Group | two groups from 7D and 7E | Thematic analysis |
| | Observation | students from 7D and 7E | Thematic analysis |
| | Questionnaire | students from 7D and 7E | Descriptive analysis |
| <p>Contributory Research Question 2:</p> <p>How does the teacher-researcher refine her pedagogy in response to student's engagement with oral corrective feedback?</p> | Semi-interview | the mentor teacher | Thematic analysis |
| | Reflective journal | students from 7D and 7E and researcher herself | Thematic analysis |

Appendix 8: The Teaching Outline

| Week | 7A Class | 7D Class |
|---------------|---|---|
| Week 1 | This class we would: 1.revise the word for tea in Chinese 2.Learn the pronunciation of other drink names in Chinese | This class we would: 1.revise the word for tea in Chinese 2.Learn the pronunciation of other drink names in Chinese |
| Week 2 | This class we would: 1.Learn how to write the Chinese characters for ‘like’, ‘eat’, and ‘drink’. 2.Revise the Chinese names of drinks | This class we would: 1.Learn how to write the Chinese characters for ‘like’, ‘eat’, and ‘drink’. 2.Revise the Chinese names of drinks 3. Learn how to say what we like eating and drinking |
| Week 3 | This class we would: 1. Learn how to say what we like eating and drinking 2. Practice how to say what you like eating and drinking 3. Do a favourite food survey | This class we would: 1. Finish learning how to say what you like eating and drinking 2. Do a favourite food survey 3. write up the survey results ‘我喜欢/不喜欢 吃....’ (I like/ dislike eating.....) |
| Week 4 | This class we would: 1.write up the survey results ‘我喜欢/不喜欢 吃....’ (I like/ dislike eating.....) 1.Revise Chinese names of dishes and drinks | This class we would: 1. Revise Chinese names of dishes and drinks 2. Practising how to say what you like eating and drink |

| | | |
|------------------------------------|--|--|
| Week 5 | This class we would: 1. Do reference list challenge 2. Do reading revision 3. rest of the class do the questionnaire and focus group interview | This class we would: 1.Do reference list challenge 2.Do reading revision 3. rest of the class do the questionnaire and focus group interview |
| Week 6 | This class we would: 1.Learn the Chinese flavour: 酸 (sour) 甜 (sweet) 苦 (bitter) 辣 (spicy) 咸(salty) 2.Revise Chinese names of dishes and drinks | This class we would: 3.Learn the Chinese flavour: 酸(sour) 甜(sweet) 苦(bitter) 辣(spicy) 咸(salty) Revise Chinese names of dishes and drinks |
| Week 7 | This class we would: 1.Practice describing the flavour of dishes 2.Learn how to use chopsticks | This class we would: 1.Practice describing the flavour of dishes 2.Learn how to use chopsticks |
| Week 8 | This class we would: 1.Practice giving reasons for liking/ disliking a dish 2.Learn how to order a table at a restaurant | This class we would: 1.Practice giving reasons for liking/ disliking a dish 2.Learn how to order a table at a restaurant |
| Week 9 | This class we would: 1.Practice ordering food with classmates: role-play 2.Rest of the class learn how to talk about holiday activities in Chinese | This class we would: 1.Practice ordering food with classmates: role-play 2.Rest of the class learn how to talk about holiday activities in Chinese |
| Week 10 DARE WEEK | This class we would: 1.Do the food assessment 2.Rest of the class do the questionnaire and focus group interview | This class we would: 1.Do the food assessment 2.Rest of the class do the questionnaire and focus group interview |

Appendix 9: A Sample of the Teacher-Researcher's Self-Reflective Journal

Week 1 Class: 7D Time: 10:00- 10:40 P1B week A

| General Comment | |
|---|--|
| <p>This class the students mainly:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1.revised the word for tea (chá) in Chinese 2.Learn the pronunciation of drink names in Chinese, like water (shuǐ), fruit juice (guǒ zhī). <p>In this class, 7D students learned the pronunciation and characters of the following words: water (水), coca cola (可口可乐), tea (茶), fruit juice (果汁) and chocolate milk (巧克力牛奶). For 7D class, the teacher-researcher mainly used her corrective feedback strategies when the students were asked to say the Chinese word according to the flash cards. During the class, 7D was really cooperative and concentrated and every student was eager to answer the questions.</p> | |
| Audio-recording | Reflection |
| <p>S: shuī (水 water, but wrong tone) T: shuǐ. S: sorry, it that shuí or shuǐ? T: shuǐ. S: shuǐ. so is that the third tone? T: yes! Good question!</p> | <p>Cognitive engagement: This type of corrective feedback is recast. Perhaps the teacher's volume is not loud or clear enough, or this student sat in the last row, so he could not hear the feedback very clearly. But he proposed several questions to ensure the correct pronunciation and further considered which types of tone it should be. This series of processes showed that he was really thinking.</p> |
| <p>T: these are two words, a little bit difficult. S: guǒ zhe (果汁 fruit juice, it should be guǒ zhī) T: guǒ zhī S8: guǒ zhī (the second pronunciation still not very clear) T: guǒ zhī S: guǒ zhī T: good!</p> | <p>behavioural engagement: This type of corrective feedback is recast. This student was struggling to say the second word's pronunciation, sounds like 'zhe' rather than 'zhi'. When the teacher was giving the corrective feedback, this student looked very concentrated and stared tightly at the teacher's mouth to learn how to pronounce 'zhe'. when he followed the teacher to repeat this word, he said the words very vigorously and slowly with shaking his whole body. In order to say this word well, he was working very hard.</p> |

| | |
|---|--|
| <p>T: last one is happy drink. How to say that?</p> <p>S: coca cola.</p> <p>T: so that is...</p> <p>S: kě lè. (可乐, cola)</p> <p>T: Good job! Good memory!</p> <p>Then the student burst into laughter .</p> | <p>Affective engagement: This types of corrective feedback is elicitation. The teacher uses elicitation to help the student self-repair. Instead of telling the answer directly, she paused for a while, prompting the student to self-correct so that the student can fill in the correct word or phrase. During this process, the student could make the connection between the happy drink and cola immediately, but was not familiar with the coca cola in Chinese. When the teacher-researcher used the elicitation feedback to drive her thinking, she looked distressed, biting her pen, frowning and thinking for a while. However, when she got it right, she suddenly smiled happily and almost jumped out of her chair. The student burst into laughter, which means she engaged affectively well.</p> |
| <p>Student looked at the picture of coca cola, but he could not say it in Chinese immediately.</p> <p>S: euh..... ke...</p> <p>(the student hesitated and thought for a while)</p> <p>T: That's happy drink.</p> <p>S: ah! kě lè (可乐 cola)</p> <p>T: well done! Nice pronunciation!</p> | <p>Cognitive engagement: This types of corrective feedback is metalinguistic feedback. At the beginning, when the student looked at the picture of cola, she hesitated for a while. She opened her mouth but said nothing. After the teacher-researcher gave student the clue for coca cola: 'happy drink', she said 'ah' immediately, and quickly pronounced this word as she nodded. When the teacher praised her, she looked at her partner and smiled. Coca cola in Chinese means happy drink, so the teacher used this types of CF to provide extra information to help students correct by themselves. This kind of CF is particularly effective when the clues are in the context of translation of Chinese to English as the students know English while their vocabulary in Chinese is limited.</p> |

Summary

In this week, I mainly helped the 7D students to review various kinds of drinks in Chinese based on the flash cards. 7D students were unfamiliar with these words and I also lack relevant experience, so I encountered the following problems during this Chinese class:

1. Sometimes, the students could not hear my voice clearly, like water (shuǐ)
2. The direct feedback like 'no, you are not right' seems like too negative for some students
3. at the beginning of the research, I was still unfamiliar with various types of corrective feedback, so she might suddenly be in trouble, or the feedback she gave was too deliberate and unnatural.

In the next week, the teacher-researcher should:

1. adjust the volume and try to say slowly and loudly to ensure all the students in the class can hear my voice very clearly and loudly
1. try to avoid using too harsh and direct feedback and try to use gentle and nice intonation of speech.
2. Practice the different types of corrective feedback a lot before the Chinese class in order to be more natural when employing the feedback strategies next time.

Moreover, in the teaching process, I found that it was important to make some connections between students' knowledge and new language, which could help students master the new language quickly.

Key words: adjust volume, avoid too much negative feedback, familiar six types of CF, establish the connections

Appendix 10: The Key Themes of Reflective Journals for 7A and 7D

| Cycle 1 | | | Cycle 2 | | |
|---------|-------|--|---------|-------|---|
| Week | Class | Reflection/ key themes | Week | Class | Reflection/ key themes |
| Week 1 | 7A | <p>1. The teacher-researcher need to increase her volume to ensure all the students can hear</p> <p>2. Avoid embarrassment and tension during the Chinese class</p> | Week 6 | 7A | <p>1. Try to be very patient and do not push them too hard during the class</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher's volume became very clear and loud and was praised by the mentor teacher after class</p> |
| | 7D | <p>1.The teacher-researcher ought to be familiar with all types of corrective feedback</p> <p>2. Try to be more confident during the class</p> | | 7D | <p>1. Exaggerating facial expression also can promote learner engagement with corrective feedback</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher could employ different types of corrective feedback naturally</p> |
| Week 2 | 7A | <p>1. Making some stories about the Chinese characters can help them learning Chinese</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher sometimes hesitated, lost confidence when teaching and asked the mentor teacher for help</p> | Week 7 | 7A | <p>1. Try to encourage them, help each student solve their problems nicely and build a good teacher-student rapport with each student</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher's use the feedback sandwich technique and put encouragement into the feedback</p> |
| | 7D | <p>1.The teacher-researcher's broken English sometimes affect the employment of corrective feedback</p> <p>2. Try to practice a lot before the class</p> | | 7D | <p>1. too direct feedback also was not suitable for 7D, the high-level students.</p> <p>2. Students would feel special if the teacher-researcher was willing to spend some time helping them solving the problems</p> |

| | | | | | |
|--------|----|---|---------|----|--|
| Week 3 | 7A | <p>1. Try not to use too direct and negative corrective feedback for some shy and quiet students</p> <p>2. Design some interesting games like ‘charade’ to help students learn better</p> | Week 8 | 7A | <p>1. continuous repeating exercise could help 7A students remember the tone more deeply</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher was learning how to manage the class with instructional sentences</p> |
| | 7D | <p>1. Use hand gestures while providing corrective feedback was useful and effective</p> <p>2. Funny games made all the students involved in the Chinese class</p> | | 7D | <p>1. The teacher-researcher can establish a connection between the students’ knowledge and new language</p> <p>2. Classroom management was very important and it could made the students behave well</p> |
| Week 4 | 7A | <p>1. when the teacher-researcher presented the hand gesture, the students saw the mirror images</p> <p>2. Put some inspiring words into the feedback</p> <p>3. Use more questions to let students to think autonomously, like ‘How many characters can you recognise in this sentence?’</p> | Week 9 | 7A | <p>1. Interesting context and topic can make students more engaged, like ordering a food</p> <p>1. The teacher-researcher should encourage students and explain the errors patiently when they making mistakes</p> |
| | 7D | <p>1. Inspire the students to think autonomously</p> <p>2. Encourage students to find the connections between the new word and original knowledge</p> | | 7D | <p>1. Try to make some challenges for 7A students</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher’s classroom management skills improved a lot</p> |
| Week 5 | 7A | <p>1. Teacher–student relationship needs to be further maintained</p> <p>2. Try to think from students’ perspectives</p> | Week 10 | 7A | <p>1. The teacher-researcher personal English ability improved a lot that she could basically understand all students speech and made a really good relationship with them</p> |

| | | | | | |
|--|----|--|---|----|--|
| | | | | | 2.The teacher-researcher became more confident during the class and she tried to control the whole class without the mentor teacher's help |
| | 7D | 1. Teacher–student rapport became more harmonious 2. The teacher-researcher's English ability still need to be improved | | 7D | 1.The teacher-researcher established a good relationship with 7D students 2. The teacher-researcher made great progress on her English ability 3. 7D students also need encouragement |
| Summary | | | Summary | | |
| <p>1. The teacher-researcher need to adjust her volume</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher need to overcome tension and embarrassment and became more confident in the Chinese class</p> <p>3. Do not use too direct or negative feedback for 7A</p> <p>4. The teacher-researcher need to establish a better rapport with students, especially 7A</p> <p>5. The teacher-researcher's broken English affected the employment of corrective feedback</p> <p>6. The most commonly used corrective feedback from the teacher-researcher was recast in cycle 1</p> <p>7. Hand gestures were useful to help students remember the tones when the teacher-researcher providing the feedback</p> <p>8. Students loved the funny activities</p> <p>9. Inspiring words were effective</p> <p>10. Try to establish a connection between the new language and students' original knowledge</p> | | | <p>1. The teacher-researcher's volume became very clear and loud</p> <p>2. The teacher-researcher became more confident and natural while teaching Mandarin</p> <p>3. Sometimes, 7D, the high-level class, also was not suitable for too harsh feedback</p> <p>4. The teacher-researcher both made a good relationship with two classes students</p> <p>5. The teacher-researcher's English ability improved a lot</p> <p>6. The teacher-researcher tried to use metalinguistic clues for 7A and the combination for 7D in cycle 2</p> <p>7. Body language, including hand gestures and facial expressions, was effective for learner engagement with corrective feedback</p> <p>8. Interesting context had a positive impact on learner engagement with corrective feedback</p> <p>9. Encouragement was effective by mean of feedback sandwich technique</p> <p>10. Classroom management is the foundation for smooth research</p> | | |

Appendix 11: University of Western Sydney Ethics Approval

WESTERN SYDNEY
UNIVERSITY



HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

24 June 2019
Professor Michele Simons
School of Education

Dear Michele,

Project Title: "A Teacher-researchers Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback - An action research project"

HREC Approval Number: H13310

Risk Rating: HREC - Moderate

I am pleased to advise the above research project meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007 (Updated 2018).

Ethical approval for this project has been granted by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee. This HREC is constituted and operates in accordance with the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research 2007 (Updated 2018).

Approval of this project is valid from 24 June 2019 until 24 June 2021.

This protocol covers the following researchers:

Michele Simons, Lingjie Yu, Chwee Beng Lee

Summary of Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report will be due annually on the anniversary of the approval date.
2. A final report will be due at the expiration of the approval period.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee prior to being implemented. Amendments must be requested using the HREC Amendment Request Form.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events on participants must be reported to the Human Research Ethics Committee via the Human Ethics Officer as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the Committee as a matter of priority.
6. Consent forms are to be retained within the archives of the School or Research Institute and made available to the Committee upon request.

7. Project specific conditions:

There are no specific conditions applicable.

Please quote the registration number and title as indicated above in the subject line on all future correspondence related to this project. All correspondence should be sent to humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au as this email address is closely monitored.

Yours sincerely

Professor Elizabeth Deane
Presiding Member,
Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee

Western Sydney University
ABN 53 014 069 881 CRICOS Provider No. 00917K
Locked Bag 1797 Penrith NSW 2751 Australia
westernsydney.edu.au

Appendix 12: State Education Research Approval Process (SERAP)

Approval



Miss Lingjie Yu
5 Doig Street
CONSTITUTION HILL NSW 2145

DOC19/584294
SERAP 2019311

Dear Miss Yu,

I refer to your application to conduct a research project in NSW government schools entitled *A Teacher-researcher's Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback- An action research*. I am pleased to inform you that your application has been approved.

You may contact principals of the nominated schools to seek their participation. **You should include a copy of this letter with the documents you send to principals.**

This approval will remain valid until 25 July 2020.

The following researchers or research assistants have fulfilled the Working with Children screening requirements to interact with or observe children for the purposes of this research for the period indicated:

| Researcher name | WWCC | WWCC expires |
|-----------------|-------------|--------------|
| Lingjie Yu | WWC1749656V | 31-Aug-2023 |


I draw your attention to the following requirements for all researchers in NSW government schools:

- The privacy of participants is to be protected as per the NSW Privacy and Personal Information Protection Act 1998.
- School principals have the right to withdraw the school from the study at any time. The approval of the principal for the specific method of gathering information must also be sought.
- The privacy of the school and the students is to be protected.
- The participation of teachers and students must be voluntary and must be at the school's convenience.
- Any proposal to publish the outcomes of the study should be discussed with the research approvals officer before publication proceeds.
- All conditions attached to the approval must be complied with.

When your study is completed please email your report to: serap@det.nsw.edu.au. You may also be asked to present on the findings of your research.

I wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely


Sandi Simpkins
Director, School Policy and Information Management
25 July 2019

SCHOOL POLICY AND INFORMATION MANAGEMENT
NSW Department of Education
Level 11, 105 Phillip Street, Parramatta NSW 2150 | GPO Box 33, Sydney NSW 2001
Telephone: 02 9244 5060 – Email: serap@det.nsw.edu.au



Appendix 13: Permission for the School’s Participation—Principal

Project Title: A Teacher-researcher’s Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback

Description of the Research:

Corrective feedback includes oral corrective feedback and written corrective feedback. A substantial number of studies have examined the impact of learner engagement with written corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010; Han & Hyland, 2015; Zheng & Yu, 2018). However, learner engagement with oral corrective feedback on second language has been under-conceptualized and under-explored and the term ‘learner engagement’ has been often used without being clearly defined (Han & Hyland, 2015).

In addition, there are a substantial number of studies that have investigated the effect of learner engagement with corrective feedback for higher education (Han & Hyland, 2015; Uscinski, 2015).

For this study, the mode of inquiry selected is descriptive in nature and thus, qualitative research is the predominant mode of inquiry, aiming to explore what types of oral corrective feedback will foster students’ engagement in Chinese in the second language classroom through action research. In addition, in this study, data will be collected from the student participants through focus group, questionnaires and observation, from the mentor teacher through semi-interview, from the teacher-researcher herself through self-reflective journals.

It will support the teacher-researcher in the ROSETE Program to gain experience and knowledge in practice to discover what types of corrective feedback can foster engagement through action research, develop Year 7 students’ engagement with oral corrective feedback based on three dimensions in the Chinese classroom and helps younger learners to build their language ability, and contribute to the scholarly literature on what types of oral corrective feedback can foster younger students’ engagement with Chinese in the second language classroom.

In Rouse Hill High School, the teacher-researcher teaches Chinese language lessons on every Thursday for class 7D and 7E. In order to collect data, the study is planned to run for about 10 weeks, which is divided into two cycles. In this research, data will be collected from the two Year 7 classes of students through focus group, questionnaires and observation, from the mentor teacher Katherine Wang through semi-interview, from the teacher-researcher herself through self-reflective journals.

What benefits will participants receive for participating?

Through using the strategy of oral corrective feedback by the teacher-researcher, this study will foster Australia school students' engagement, help them learn better, improve their performance and create a high-efficient classroom. And through the action research, the teacher-researcher will gain the experience and knowledge in practice to discover what types of corrective feedback can foster engagement through action research. These outcomes have the potential to offer information to schools and teachers interested in enhancing their practice as second language teachers.

Will the study involve any risk or discomfort for participants? If so, what will be done to rectify it?

There are no anticipated major risks or discomforts for participants. The only potential burden to participants might be the time that they will spend in participating in the study. You are also assured that their participation will not be disclosed to any third party to avoid the potential risk of the participation/ non participation becoming known to others.

How do you intend to publish or disseminate the results?

There will be an executive summary sent to Principal for their use the school for the teacher and students. The project outcomes will be published in the researcher's master dissertation. In some cases, the project findings may be prepared for submission to academic journals. In any publication and/or presentation, information will be provided in such a way that the participant cannot be identified. Any reference to individual participants will involve pseudonyms or codes.

Will the data and information that participants provide be disposed of?

Please be assured that only the teacher-researcher will have access to the raw data the participants will provide and that their data will not be used in any other projects. Please note that minimum retention period for data collection is five years post publication. The data and information the participants have provided will be securely disposed of.

If you have any further questions about this study, please contact Lingjie YU in Western Sydney University School of Education, 0413516093, 19551715@student.westernsydney.edu.au.

I, the principal of Rouse Hill High School, hereby consent the researcher to conduct above named research project.

I have discussed participation in the project with the mentor teacher and Year 7 students agree to their participation in the project.

I acknowledge that:

- I have read the participant information sheet and consent form for the mentor teacher and parent/ carer (or where appropriate, have had it read to me) and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information in the project with the researcher/s
- The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent for all participants' data and information provided to be used for this project.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Western Sydney University. The ethics reference number is: H13310

Appendix 14: Consent Form—Parent/Carer (Specific)

Project Title: A Teacher-researcher' s Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback – An action research

I, _____ , hereby consent for my child _____ , to participate in the above named research project.

I have discussed participation in the project with my child and my child agrees to their participation in the project.

I acknowledge that:

- I have read the participant information sheet (or where appropriate, have had it read to me) and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and my child's involvement in the project with the researcher/s
- The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent for my child to:

[Insert tick box option for each specific activity e.g.

- Participate in a focus group interview*
- Having their information audio recorded*
- Complete their questionnaires*

I consent for my child's data and information provided to be used for this project.

I understand that my child's involvement is confidential and that the information gained during the study may be published but no information about them will be used in any way that reveals their identity.

I understand that I can withdraw my child, or my child can withdraw, from the study at any time without affecting their relationship with the researcher/s, and any organisations involved, now or in the future.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Western Sydney University. The ethics reference number is: H13310.

What if I have a complaint?

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) on Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au.

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix 15: Participant Information Sheet—Parent/Carer (Specific)

Project Title: A Teacher-researcher' s Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback – An action research

Project Summary:

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Lingjie YU, an HDR student in School of Education at Western Sydney University, under the Supervision of Professor. Michele Simon, Dean of Western Sydney University School of Education. The research seeks to explore what types of corrective feedback will foster student engagement. This study aims to foster Year 7 students' engagement of Rouse Hill High School in the Chinese classroom through providing oral corrective feedback and help the teacher-researcher of ROSETE Program gain the experience and knowledge in practice to discover what types of corrective feedback can foster engagement through action research.

How is the study being paid for?

This project is being conducted as part of the ROSETE program. Projects in this program are supported through a joint agreement with Western Sydney University, Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau and the NSW Department of Education.

What will my child be asked to do?

Your child will be asked to do

Focus group: the teacher-researcher will select five to six students in each class as a focus group. Therefore, there are two focus groups in total and the student' s gender is mixed. At the end of each cycle, focus group interviews for these two groups will be conducted and the participants will be asked some questions about student engagement with oral corrective feedback. During the focus group, the teacher-researcher will use a small portable recorder to capture the interaction between herself and the students with permission from the students and their parents/carers.

Questionnaire: At the end of the two research cycles, the student participants in Class 7D and Class 7E will complete the questionnaires, which aims to collect information about participants' reflections and their opinions on how they engage with the different types of corrective feedback, and provide feedback on whether feel engaged in their learning. And the participants will take no more than 10 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

How much of my child's time will he/she need to give?

Focus group: At the end of each cycle, focus group interviews for these two groups will be conducted and the participants will be asked some questions about student engagement with oral corrective feedback. Each focus group interview will last approximately 30 to 40 minutes.

Questionnaire: At the end of the two research cycles, the student participants in Class 7D and Class 7E will complete the questionnaires. And the participants will take no more than 10 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

Optional text: Children not participating in the study will finish some writing tasks during the time the research is being carried out.

What benefits will my child, and/or the broader community, receive for participating?

Through researcher providing oral corrective feedback, this study will let the participants are more engaged in the Chinese classroom and foster their engagement in the Chinese classroom.

Will the study involve any risk or discomfort for my child? If so, what will be done to rectify it?

There are no anticipated major risks or discomforts for your children as participants. The only potential burden to you might be the time that your children will spend in participating in the study. You are also assured that their participation will not be disclosed to any third party to avoid the potential risk of the participation/ non participation becoming known to others.

How do you intend to publish or disseminate the results?

The project outcomes will be published in the researcher's master dissertation. In some cases, the project findings may be prepared for submission to academic journals. In any publication and/or presentation, information will be provided in such a way that the participant cannot be identified. Any reference to individual participants will involve pseudonyms or codes.

Will the data and information that my child provides be disposed of?

Please be assured that only the researchers will have access to the raw data your child will provide and that their data will not be used in any other projects. Please note that minimum

retention period for data collection is five years post publication. The data and information you have provided will be securely disposed of.

Can I withdraw my child from the study? Can my child withdraw from the study?

Your child's participation in the study is entirely voluntary and they are not obliged to be involved. Your child may withdraw from the study at any time – or you may withdraw your child from the study at which point all written and audio records of your child's participation will be destroyed.

What if I require further information?

Please contact Lingjie YU in Western Sydney University School of Education, 0413516093, should you wish to discuss the research further before deciding whether or not to participate

What if I have a complaint?

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) on Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au.

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree for your child to participate in this study, you may be asked to sign the Consent Form. The information sheet is for you to keep and the consent form is retained by the researcher/s.

This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Approval number is H13310.

Appendix 16: Consent Form—General (Specific)

Project Title: A Teacher-researcher' s Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback – An action research

I hereby consent to participate in the above named research project.

I acknowledge that:

- I have read the participant information sheet (or where appropriate, have had it read to me) and have been given the opportunity to discuss the information and my involvement in the project with the researcher/s
- The procedures required for the project and the time involved have been explained to me, and any questions I have about the project have been answered to my satisfaction.

I consent to:

[Insert tick box option for each specific activity e.g.

- Participating in a semi-interview*
- Having the interview audio recorded*
- Help researcher to conduct classroom observations*

I consent for my data and information provided to be used for this project.

I understand that my involvement is confidential and that the information gained during the study may be published but no information about me will be used in any way that reveals my identity.

I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any time without affecting my relationship with the researcher/s, and any organisations involved, now or in the future.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

Return address: *[Remove if not relevant]*

This study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at Western Sydney University. The ethics reference number is: H*[insert number]*

What if I have a complaint?

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) on Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au.

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Appendix 17: Participant Information Sheet—General (Specific)

Project Title: A Teacher-researcher' s Exploration of Learner Engagement with Corrective Feedback – An action research

Project Summary:

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Lingjie YU, an HDR student in School of Education at Western Sydney University, under the Supervision of Professor. Michele Simon, Dean of Western Sydney University School of Education. The research seeks to explore what types of corrective feedback will foster student engagement. This study aims to foster Year 7 students' engagement of Rouse Hill High School in the Chinese classroom through providing oral corrective feedback and help the teacher-researcher of ROSETE Program gain the experience and knowledge in practice to discover what types of corrective feedback can foster engagement through action research.

How is the study being paid for?

This project is being conducted as part of the ROSETE program. Projects in this program are supported through a joint agreement with Western Sydney University, Ningbo Municipal Education Bureau and the NSW Department of Education.

What will I be asked to do?

You will be asked to do

Observation: the participant will carefully select 4-6 students (across different levels of ability) in each class rather than observing the whole class and help the teacher-researcher to conduct classroom observations with an observation checklist.

Semi-interview: After each lesson, the participant will be conducted a brief interview in this classroom or in the staff room to provide the immediate feedback. The interview questions will mainly focus on the teacher-researcher' s teaching, students' responses and engagement after the implementation of the different types of corrective feedback, evaluation of corrective feedback strategies application and some suggestions for the next class, etc.

How much of my time will I need to give?

Observation: 80 minutes of the whole class

Semi-interview: After each lesson, the participant will be conducted a brief interview in this classroom or in the staff room for about 15 minutes to provide the immediate feedback. These interviews are expected to be carried out approximately 20 to 30 times over the two cycles of action.

What benefits will I, and/or the broader community, receive for participating?

Help the participant to gain the experience and knowledge in practice to discover what types of corrective feedback can foster engagement and have a deeper understanding of Chinese teaching.

Will the study involve any risk or discomfort for me? If so, what will be done to rectify it?

There are no anticipated major risks or discomforts for you as a participant. The only potential burden to you might be the time that you will spend in participating in the study. You are also assured that the participation will not be disclosed to any third party to avoid the potential risk of the participation/ non participation becoming known to others.

How do you intend to publish or disseminate the results?

The project outcomes will be published in the researcher's master dissertation. In some cases, the project findings may be prepared for submission to academic journals. In any publication and/or presentation, information will be provided in such a way that the participant cannot be identified. Any reference to individual participants will involve pseudonyms or codes.

Will the data and information that I have provided be disposed of?

Please be assured that only the researcher will have access to the raw data you provide and that your data will not be used in any other projects. Please note that minimum retention period for data collection is five years post publication. The data and information you have provided will be securely disposed of.

Can I withdraw from the study?

Participation is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged to be involved. If you do participate you can withdraw at any time without giving reason.

If you do choose to withdraw, any information that you have supplied will be destroyed.

What if I require further information?

Please contact Lingjie YU in Western Sydney University School of Education, 0413516093, should you wish to discuss the research further before deciding whether or not to participate

What if I have a complaint?

If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through Research Engagement, Development and Innovation (REDI) on Tel +61 2 4736 0229 or email humanethics@westernsydney.edu.au.

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

If you agree to participate in this study, you may be asked to sign the Participant Consent Form. The information sheet is for you to keep and the consent form is retained by the researcher/s.

This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee. The Approval number is H13310.